

# CS70: Jean Walrand: Lecture 33.

## Markov Chains 2

# CS70: Jean Walrand: Lecture 33.

## Markov Chains 2

# CS70: Jean Walrand: Lecture 33.

## Markov Chains 2

1. Review
2. Distribution
3. Irreducibility
4. Convergence

# Review

# Review

- ▶ Markov Chain:

# Review

- ▶ Markov Chain:
  - ▶ Finite set  $\mathcal{X}$ ;

# Review

- ▶ Markov Chain:
  - ▶ Finite set  $\mathcal{X}$ ;  $\pi_0$ ;

# Review

- ▶ Markov Chain:

- ▶ Finite set  $\mathcal{X}$ ;  $\pi_0$ ;  $P = \{P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}\}$ ;



# Review

- ▶ Markov Chain:

- ▶ Finite set  $\mathcal{X}$ ;  $\pi_0$ ;  $P = \{P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}\}$ ;
- ▶  $Pr[X_0 = i] = \pi_0(i), i \in \mathcal{X}$

# Review

- ▶ Markov Chain:

- ▶ Finite set  $\mathcal{X}$ ;  $\pi_0$ ;  $P = \{P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}\}$ ;
- ▶  $Pr[X_0 = i] = \pi_0(i), i \in \mathcal{X}$
- ▶  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j | X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}, n \geq 0$ .

# Review

- ▶ Markov Chain:

- ▶ Finite set  $\mathcal{X}$ ;  $\pi_0$ ;  $P = \{P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}\}$ ;
- ▶  $Pr[X_0 = i] = \pi_0(i), i \in \mathcal{X}$
- ▶  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j | X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}, n \geq 0$ .
- ▶ Note:  
 $Pr[X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, \dots, X_n = i_n] =$

# Review

- ▶ Markov Chain:

- ▶ Finite set  $\mathcal{X}$ ;  $\pi_0$ ;  $P = \{P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}\}$ ;
- ▶  $Pr[X_0 = i] = \pi_0(i), i \in \mathcal{X}$
- ▶  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j | X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}, n \geq 0$ .
- ▶ Note:  
 $Pr[X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, \dots, X_n = i_n] = \pi_0(i_0)P(i_0, i_1) \cdots P(i_{n-1}, i_n)$ .

# Review

- ▶ Markov Chain:

- ▶ Finite set  $\mathcal{X}$ ;  $\pi_0$ ;  $P = \{P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}\}$ ;
- ▶  $Pr[X_0 = i] = \pi_0(i), i \in \mathcal{X}$
- ▶  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j \mid X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}, n \geq 0$ .
- ▶ Note:  
 $Pr[X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, \dots, X_n = i_n] = \pi_0(i_0)P(i_0, i_1) \cdots P(i_{n-1}, i_n)$ .

- ▶ First Passage Time:

# Review

- ▶ Markov Chain:

- ▶ Finite set  $\mathcal{X}$ ;  $\pi_0$ ;  $P = \{P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}\}$ ;
- ▶  $Pr[X_0 = i] = \pi_0(i), i \in \mathcal{X}$
- ▶  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j \mid X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}, n \geq 0$ .
- ▶ Note:  
 $Pr[X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, \dots, X_n = i_n] = \pi_0(i_0)P(i_0, i_1) \cdots P(i_{n-1}, i_n)$ .

- ▶ First Passage Time:

- ▶  $A \cap B = \emptyset$ ;

# Review

- ▶ Markov Chain:

- ▶ Finite set  $\mathcal{X}$ ;  $\pi_0$ ;  $P = \{P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}\}$ ;
- ▶  $Pr[X_0 = i] = \pi_0(i), i \in \mathcal{X}$
- ▶  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j | X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}, n \geq 0$ .
- ▶ Note:  
 $Pr[X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, \dots, X_n = i_n] = \pi_0(i_0)P(i_0, i_1) \cdots P(i_{n-1}, i_n)$ .

- ▶ First Passage Time:

- ▶  $A \cap B = \emptyset; \beta(i) = E[T_A | X_0 = i]$ ;

# Review

- ▶ Markov Chain:

- ▶ Finite set  $\mathcal{X}$ ;  $\pi_0$ ;  $P = \{P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}\}$ ;
- ▶  $Pr[X_0 = i] = \pi_0(i), i \in \mathcal{X}$
- ▶  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j | X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}, n \geq 0$ .
- ▶ Note:  
 $Pr[X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, \dots, X_n = i_n] = \pi_0(i_0)P(i_0, i_1) \cdots P(i_{n-1}, i_n)$ .

- ▶ First Passage Time:

- ▶  $A \cap B = \emptyset; \beta(i) = E[T_A | X_0 = i]; \alpha(i) = P[T_A < T_B | X_0 = i]$



# Review

- ▶ Markov Chain:

- ▶ Finite set  $\mathcal{X}$ ;  $\pi_0$ ;  $P = \{P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}\}$ ;
- ▶  $Pr[X_0 = i] = \pi_0(i), i \in \mathcal{X}$
- ▶  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j | X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}, n \geq 0$ .
- ▶ Note:  
 $Pr[X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, \dots, X_n = i_n] = \pi_0(i_0)P(i_0, i_1) \cdots P(i_{n-1}, i_n)$ .

- ▶ First Passage Time:

- ▶  $A \cap B = \emptyset; \beta(i) = E[T_A | X_0 = i]; \alpha(i) = P[T_A < T_B | X_0 = i]$
- ▶  $\beta(i) = 1 + \sum_j P(i,j)\beta(j)$ ;

# Review

- ▶ Markov Chain:

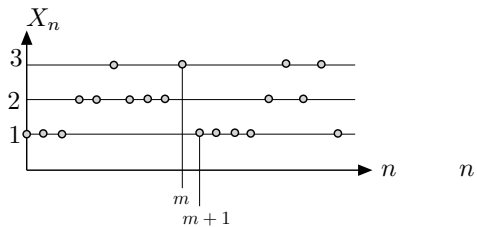
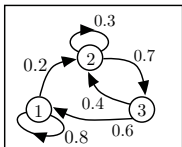
- ▶ Finite set  $\mathcal{X}$ ;  $\pi_0$ ;  $P = \{P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}\}$ ;
- ▶  $Pr[X_0 = i] = \pi_0(i), i \in \mathcal{X}$
- ▶  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j | X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i,j), i,j \in \mathcal{X}, n \geq 0$ .
- ▶ Note:  
 $Pr[X_0 = i_0, X_1 = i_1, \dots, X_n = i_n] = \pi_0(i_0)P(i_0, i_1) \cdots P(i_{n-1}, i_n)$ .

- ▶ First Passage Time:

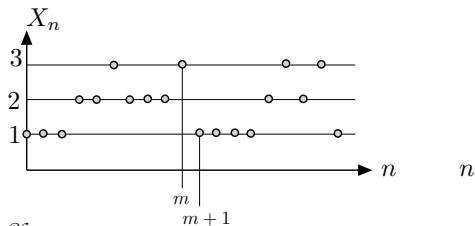
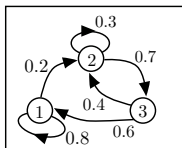
- ▶  $A \cap B = \emptyset; \beta(i) = E[T_A | X_0 = i]; \alpha(i) = P[T_A < T_B | X_0 = i]$
- ▶  $\beta(i) = 1 + \sum_j P(i,j)\beta(j); \alpha(i) = \sum_j P(i,j)\alpha(j)$ .

## Distribution of $X_n$

# Distribution of $X_n$

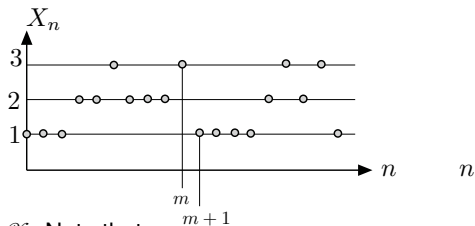
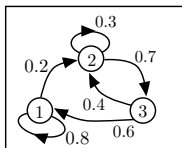


# Distribution of $X_n$



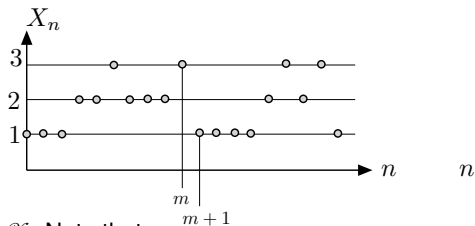
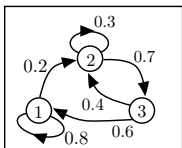
Let  $\pi_m(i) = Pr[X_m = i], i \in \mathcal{X}$ .

# Distribution of $X_n$



Let  $\pi_m(i) = Pr[X_m = i], i \in \mathcal{X}$ . Note that

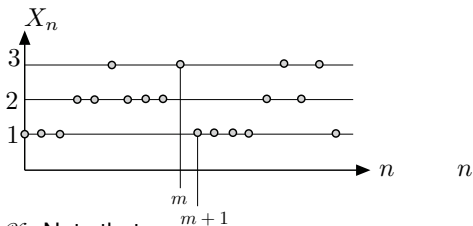
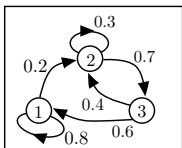
# Distribution of $X_n$



Let  $\pi_m(i) = Pr[X_m = i], i \in \mathcal{X}$ . Note that

$$Pr[X_{m+1} = j] = \sum_i Pr[X_{m+1} = j, X_m = i]$$

# Distribution of $X_n$

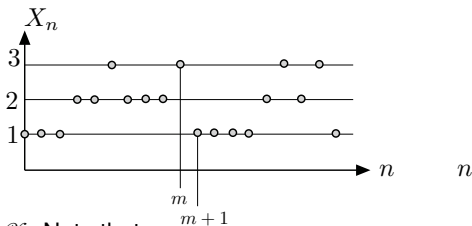
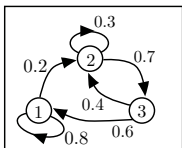


Let  $\pi_m(i) = Pr[X_m = i], i \in \mathcal{X}$ . Note that

$$\begin{aligned} Pr[X_{m+1} = j] &= \sum_i Pr[X_{m+1} = j, X_m = i] \\ &= \sum_i Pr[X_m = i] Pr[X_{m+1} = j | X_m = i] \end{aligned}$$



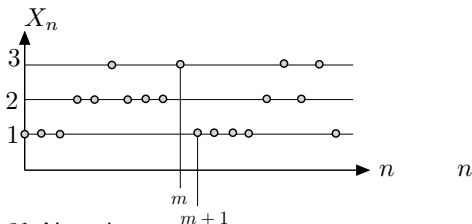
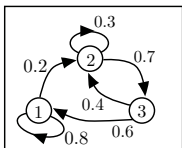
# Distribution of $X_n$



Let  $\pi_m(i) = Pr[X_m = i], i \in \mathcal{X}$ . Note that

$$\begin{aligned} Pr[X_{m+1} = j] &= \sum_i Pr[X_{m+1} = j, X_m = i] \\ &= \sum_i Pr[X_m = i] Pr[X_{m+1} = j | X_m = i] \\ &= \sum_i \pi_m(i) P(i, j). \end{aligned}$$

# Distribution of $X_n$



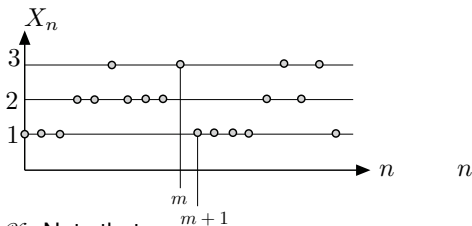
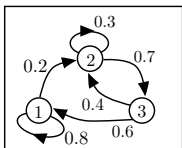
Let  $\pi_m(i) = Pr[X_m = i]$ ,  $i \in \mathcal{X}$ . Note that

$$\begin{aligned} Pr[X_{m+1} = j] &= \sum_i Pr[X_{m+1} = j, X_m = i] \\ &= \sum_i Pr[X_m = i] Pr[X_{m+1} = j | X_m = i] \\ &= \sum_i \pi_m(i) P(i, j). \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\pi_{m+1}(j) = \sum_i \pi_m(i) P(i, j), \forall j \in \mathcal{X}.$$

# Distribution of $X_n$



Let  $\pi_m(i) = Pr[X_m = i], i \in \mathcal{X}$ . Note that

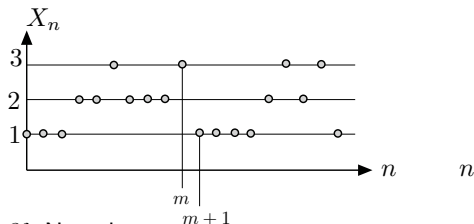
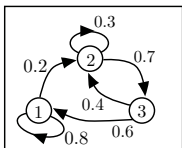
$$\begin{aligned} Pr[X_{m+1} = j] &= \sum_i Pr[X_{m+1} = j, X_m = i] \\ &= \sum_i Pr[X_m = i] Pr[X_{m+1} = j | X_m = i] \\ &= \sum_i \pi_m(i) P(i, j). \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

$$\pi_{m+1}(j) = \sum_i \pi_m(i) P(i, j), \forall j \in \mathcal{X}.$$

With  $\pi_m, \pi_{m+1}$  as a row vectors, these identities are written as  $\pi_{m+1} = \pi_m P$ .

# Distribution of $X_n$



Let  $\pi_m(i) = Pr[X_m = i], i \in \mathcal{X}$ . Note that

$$\begin{aligned} Pr[X_{m+1} = j] &= \sum_i Pr[X_{m+1} = j, X_m = i] \\ &= \sum_i Pr[X_m = i] Pr[X_{m+1} = j | X_m = i] \\ &= \sum_i \pi_m(i) P(i, j). \end{aligned}$$

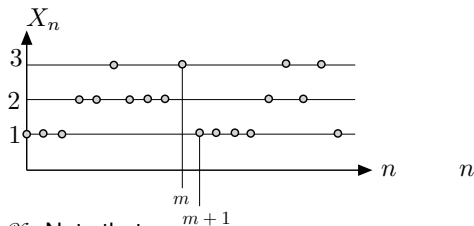
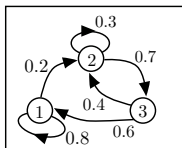
Hence,

$$\pi_{m+1}(j) = \sum_i \pi_m(i) P(i, j), \forall j \in \mathcal{X}.$$

With  $\pi_m, \pi_{m+1}$  as a row vectors, these identities are written as  $\pi_{m+1} = \pi_m P$ .

Thus,  $\pi_1 = \pi_0 P$ ,

# Distribution of $X_n$



Let  $\pi_m(i) = Pr[X_m = i], i \in \mathcal{X}$ . Note that

$$\begin{aligned} Pr[X_{m+1} = j] &= \sum_i Pr[X_{m+1} = j, X_m = i] \\ &= \sum_i Pr[X_m = i] Pr[X_{m+1} = j | X_m = i] \\ &= \sum_i \pi_m(i) P(i, j). \end{aligned}$$

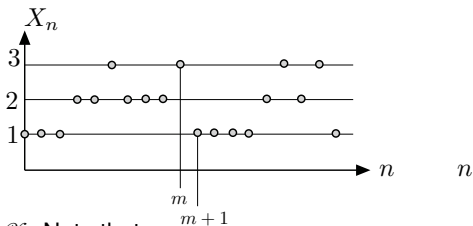
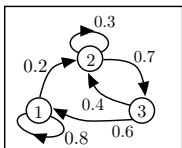
Hence,

$$\pi_{m+1}(j) = \sum_i \pi_m(i) P(i, j), \forall j \in \mathcal{X}.$$

With  $\pi_m, \pi_{m+1}$  as a row vectors, these identities are written as  $\pi_{m+1} = \pi_m P$ .

Thus,  $\pi_1 = \pi_0 P, \pi_2 = \pi_1 P$

# Distribution of $X_n$



Let  $\pi_m(i) = Pr[X_m = i], i \in \mathcal{X}$ . Note that

$$\begin{aligned}
 Pr[X_{m+1} = j] &= \sum_i Pr[X_{m+1} = j, X_m = i] \\
 &= \sum_i Pr[X_m = i] Pr[X_{m+1} = j | X_m = i] \\
 &= \sum_i \pi_m(i) P(i, j).
 \end{aligned}$$

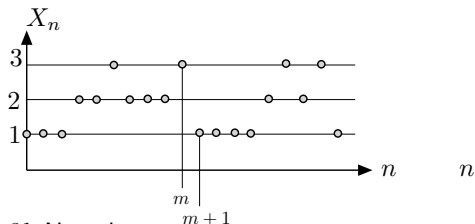
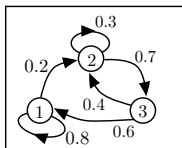
Hence,

$$\pi_{m+1}(j) = \sum_i \pi_m(i) P(i, j), \forall j \in \mathcal{X}.$$

With  $\pi_m, \pi_{m+1}$  as a row vectors, these identities are written as  $\pi_{m+1} = \pi_m P$ .

Thus,  $\pi_1 = \pi_0 P, \pi_2 = \pi_1 P = \pi_0 P^2, \dots$

# Distribution of $X_n$



Let  $\pi_m(i) = Pr[X_m = i], i \in \mathcal{X}$ . Note that

$$\begin{aligned} Pr[X_{m+1} = j] &= \sum_i Pr[X_{m+1} = j, X_m = i] \\ &= \sum_i Pr[X_m = i] Pr[X_{m+1} = j | X_m = i] \\ &= \sum_i \pi_m(i) P(i, j). \end{aligned}$$

Hence,

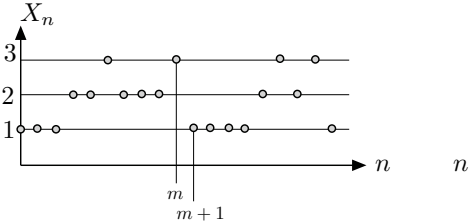
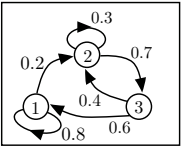
$$\pi_{m+1}(j) = \sum_i \pi_m(i) P(i, j), \forall j \in \mathcal{X}.$$

With  $\pi_m, \pi_{m+1}$  as a row vectors, these identities are written as  $\pi_{m+1} = \pi_m P$ .

Thus,  $\pi_1 = \pi_0 P, \pi_2 = \pi_1 P = \pi_0 P^2, \dots$  Hence,

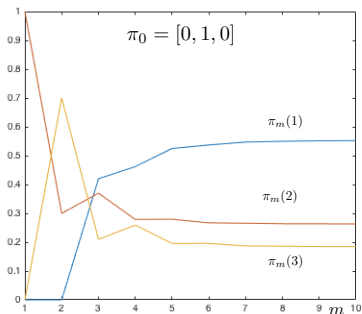
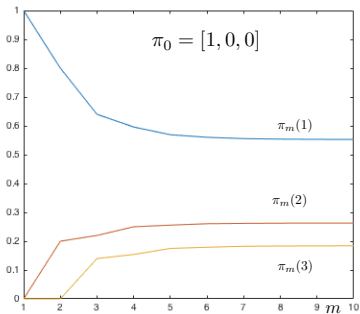
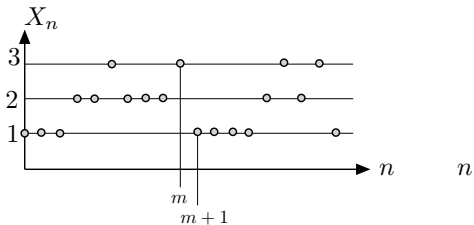
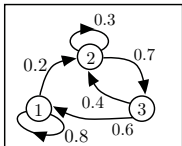
$$\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n, n \geq 0.$$

# Distribution of $X_n$

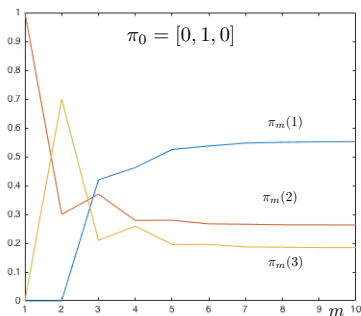
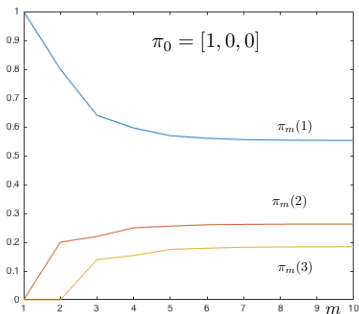
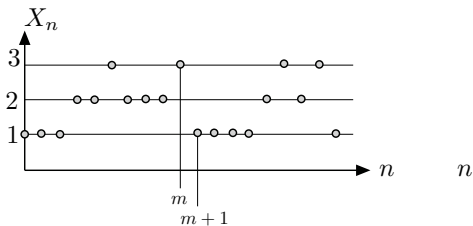
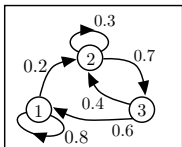




# Distribution of $X_n$

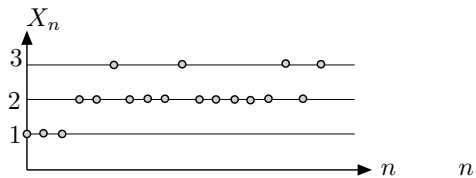
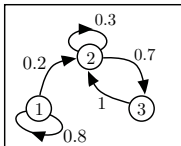


# Distribution of $X_n$

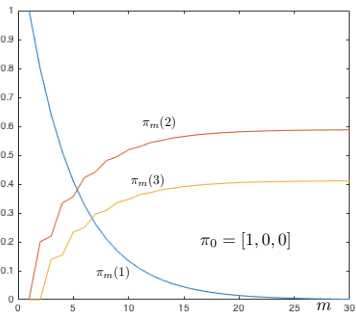
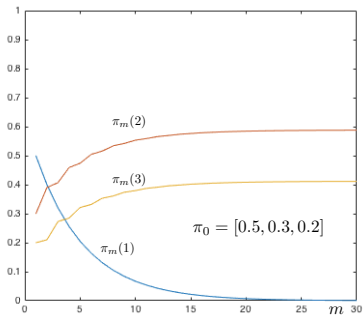
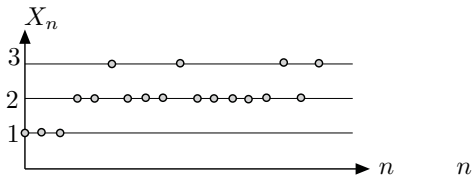
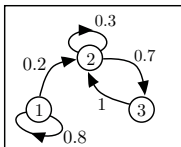


As  $m$  increases,  $\pi_m$  converges to a vector that does not depend on  $\pi_0$ .

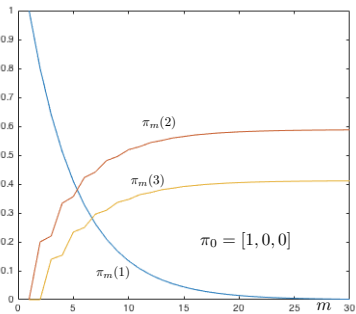
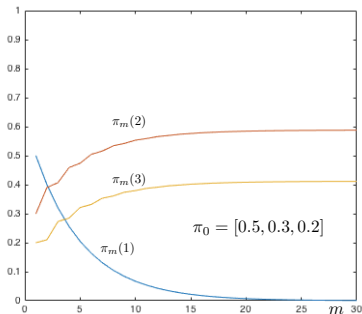
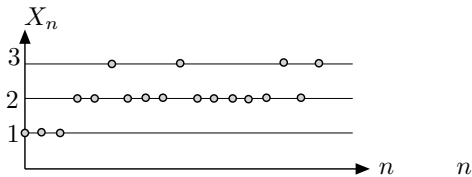
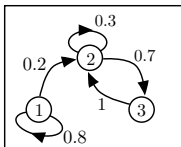
# Distribution of $X_n$



# Distribution of $X_n$

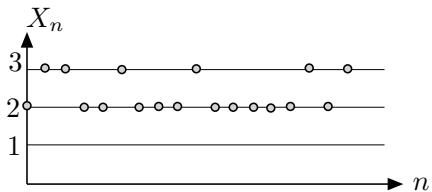
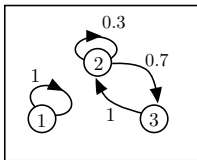


# Distribution of $X_n$

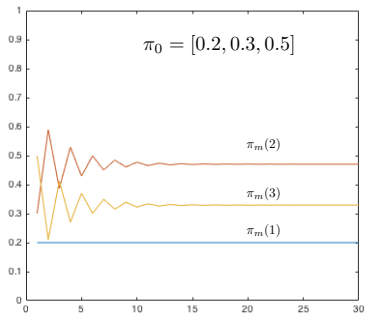
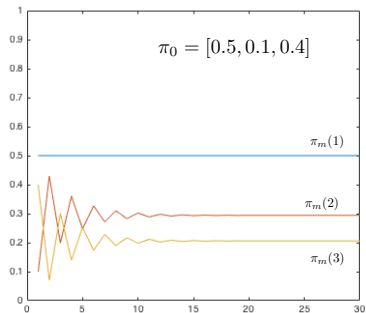
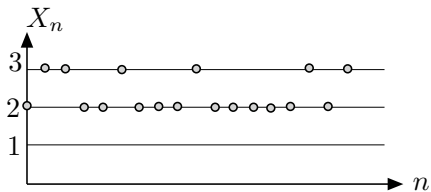
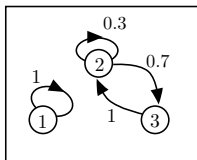


As  $m$  increases,  $\pi_m$  converges to a vector that does not depend on  $\pi_0$ .

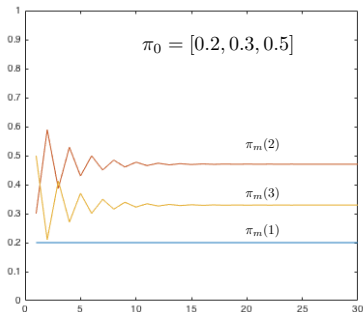
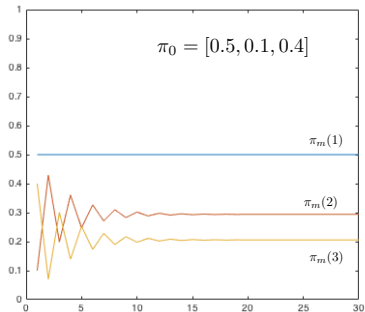
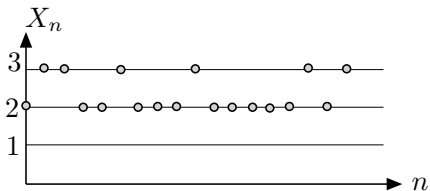
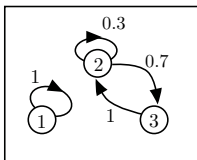
# Distribution of $X_n$



# Distribution of $X_n$



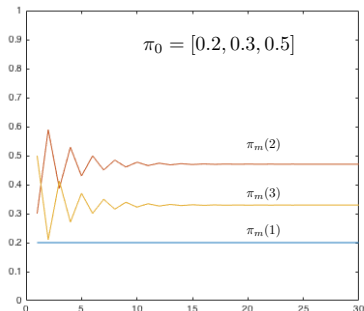
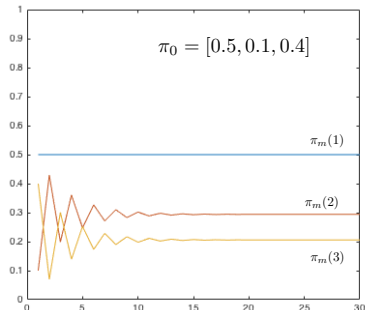
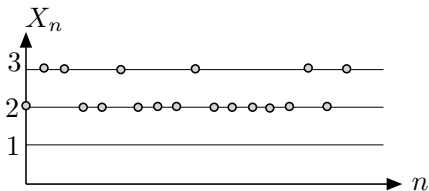
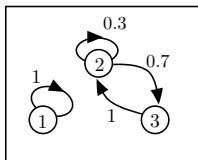
# Distribution of $X_n$



As  $m$  increases,  $\pi_m$  converges to a vector that depends on  $\pi_0$



# Distribution of $X_n$



As  $m$  increases,  $\pi_m$  converges to a vector that depends on  $\pi_0$  (obviously, since  $\pi_m(1) = \pi_0(1), \forall m$ ).

# Balance Equations

# Balance Equations

Question: Is there some  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ ?

# Balance Equations

Question: Is there some  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ ?

**Definition**

# Balance Equations

Question: Is there some  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ ?

**Definition** A distribution  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$  is said to be an **invariant distribution**.

# Balance Equations

Question: Is there some  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ ?

**Definition** A distribution  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$  is said to be an **invariant distribution**.

**Theorem**

# Balance Equations

Question: Is there some  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ ?

**Definition** A distribution  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$  is said to be an **invariant distribution**.

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ .

# Balance Equations

Question: Is there some  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ ?

**Definition** A distribution  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$  is said to be an **invariant distribution**.

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.



# Balance Equations

Question: Is there some  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ ?

**Definition** A distribution  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$  is said to be an **invariant distribution**.

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Proof:**

# Balance Equations

Question: Is there some  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ ?

**Definition** A distribution  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$  is said to be an **invariant distribution**.

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Proof:**  $\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$ ,

# Balance Equations

Question: Is there some  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ ?

**Definition** A distribution  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$  is said to be an **invariant distribution**.

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Proof:**  $\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$ , so that  $\pi_n = \pi_0, \forall n$  iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . □

# Balance Equations

Question: Is there some  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ ?

**Definition** A distribution  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$  is said to be an **invariant distribution**.

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Proof:**  $\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$ , so that  $\pi_n = \pi_0, \forall n$  iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . □

Thus, if  $\pi_0$  is invariant, the distribution of  $X_n$  is always the same as that of  $X_0$ .

# Balance Equations

Question: Is there some  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ ?

**Definition** A distribution  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$  is said to be an **invariant distribution**.

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Proof:**  $\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$ , so that  $\pi_n = \pi_0, \forall n$  iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . □

Thus, if  $\pi_0$  is invariant, the distribution of  $X_n$  is always the same as that of  $X_0$ .

Of course, this does not mean that  $X_n$  does not move.

# Balance Equations

Question: Is there some  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ ?

**Definition** A distribution  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$  is said to be an **invariant distribution**.

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Proof:**  $\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$ , so that  $\pi_n = \pi_0, \forall n$  iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . □

Thus, if  $\pi_0$  is invariant, the distribution of  $X_n$  is always the same as that of  $X_0$ .

Of course, this does not mean that  $X_n$  does not move. It means that the probability that it leaves a state  $i$  is equal to the probability that it enters state  $i$ .

# Balance Equations

Question: Is there some  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ ?

**Definition** A distribution  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$  is said to be an **invariant distribution**.

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Proof:**  $\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$ , so that  $\pi_n = \pi_0, \forall n$  iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . □

Thus, if  $\pi_0$  is invariant, the distribution of  $X_n$  is always the same as that of  $X_0$ .

Of course, this does not mean that  $X_n$  does not move. It means that the probability that it leaves a state  $i$  is equal to the probability that it enters state  $i$ .

The balance equations say that

# Balance Equations

Question: Is there some  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ ?

**Definition** A distribution  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$  is said to be an **invariant distribution**.

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Proof:**  $\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$ , so that  $\pi_n = \pi_0, \forall n$  iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . □

Thus, if  $\pi_0$  is invariant, the distribution of  $X_n$  is always the same as that of  $X_0$ .

Of course, this does not mean that  $X_n$  does not move. It means that the probability that it leaves a state  $i$  is equal to the probability that it enters state  $i$ .

The balance equations say that  $\sum_j \pi(j)P(j, i) = \pi(i)$ .



# Balance Equations

Question: Is there some  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ ?

**Definition** A distribution  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$  is said to be an **invariant distribution**.

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Proof:**  $\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$ , so that  $\pi_n = \pi_0, \forall n$  iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . □

Thus, if  $\pi_0$  is invariant, the distribution of  $X_n$  is always the same as that of  $X_0$ .

Of course, this does not mean that  $X_n$  does not move. It means that the probability that it leaves a state  $i$  is equal to the probability that it enters state  $i$ .

The balance equations say that  $\sum_j \pi(j)P(j, i) = \pi(i)$ .

That is,

$$\sum_{j \neq i} \pi(j)P(j, i) = \pi(i)(1 - P(i, i))$$

# Balance Equations

Question: Is there some  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ ?

**Definition** A distribution  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$  is said to be an **invariant distribution**.

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Proof:**  $\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$ , so that  $\pi_n = \pi_0, \forall n$  iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . □

Thus, if  $\pi_0$  is invariant, the distribution of  $X_n$  is always the same as that of  $X_0$ .

Of course, this does not mean that  $X_n$  does not move. It means that the probability that it leaves a state  $i$  is equal to the probability that it enters state  $i$ .

The balance equations say that  $\sum_j \pi(j)P(j, i) = \pi(i)$ .

That is,

$$\sum_{j \neq i} \pi(j)P(j, i) = \pi(i)(1 - P(i, i)) = \pi(i) \sum_{j \neq i} P(i, j).$$

# Balance Equations

Question: Is there some  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$ ?

**Definition** A distribution  $\pi_0$  such that  $\pi_m = \pi_0, \forall m$  is said to be an **invariant distribution**.

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Proof:**  $\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$ , so that  $\pi_n = \pi_0, \forall n$  iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . □

Thus, if  $\pi_0$  is invariant, the distribution of  $X_n$  is always the same as that of  $X_0$ .

Of course, this does not mean that  $X_n$  does not move. It means that the probability that it leaves a state  $i$  is equal to the probability that it enters state  $i$ .

The balance equations say that  $\sum_j \pi(j)P(j, i) = \pi(i)$ .

That is,

$$\sum_{j \neq i} \pi(j)P(j, i) = \pi(i)(1 - P(i, i)) = \pi(i) \sum_{j \neq i} P(i, j).$$

Thus,  $Pr[\text{enter } i] = Pr[\text{leave } i]$ .

# Balance Equations

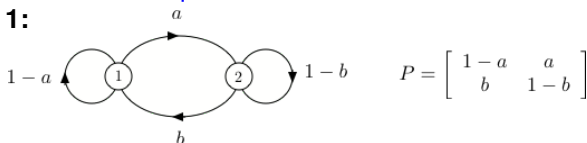
**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 1:**

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 1:**

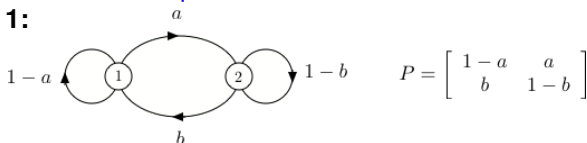


$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix}$$

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 1:**



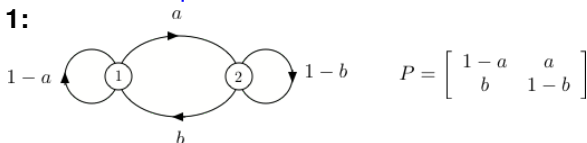
$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\pi P = \pi$$

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 1:**



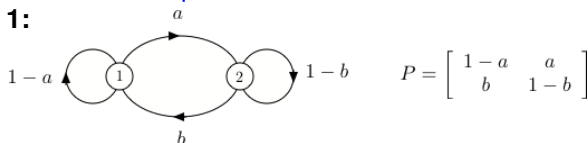
$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\pi P = \pi \Leftrightarrow [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix} = [\pi(1), \pi(2)]$$

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 1:**



$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\pi P = \pi \Leftrightarrow [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix} = [\pi(1), \pi(2)]$$

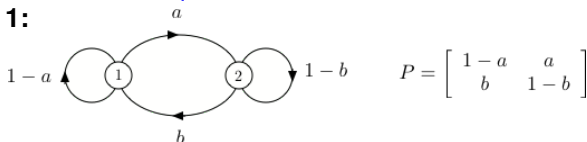
$$\Leftrightarrow \pi(1)(1-a) + \pi(2)b = \pi(1) \text{ and}$$



# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 1:**



$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix}$$

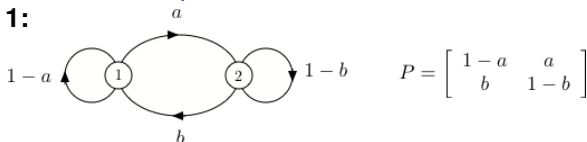
$$\pi P = \pi \Leftrightarrow [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix} = [\pi(1), \pi(2)]$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \pi(1)(1-a) + \pi(2)b = \pi(1) \text{ and } \pi(1)a + \pi(2)(1-b) = \pi(2)$$

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 1:**



$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\pi P = \pi \Leftrightarrow [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix} = [\pi(1), \pi(2)]$$

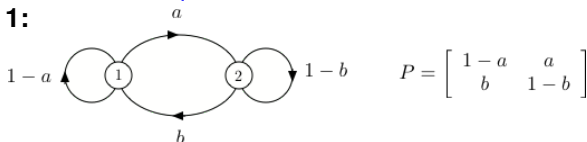
$$\Leftrightarrow \pi(1)(1-a) + \pi(2)b = \pi(1) \text{ and } \pi(1)a + \pi(2)(1-b) = \pi(2)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \pi(1)a = \pi(2)b.$$

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 1:**



$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\pi P = \pi \Leftrightarrow [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix} = [\pi(1), \pi(2)]$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \pi(1)(1-a) + \pi(2)b = \pi(1) \text{ and } \pi(1)a + \pi(2)(1-b) = \pi(2)$$

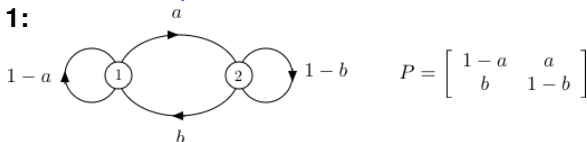
$$\Leftrightarrow \pi(1)a = \pi(2)b.$$

These equations are redundant!

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 1:**



$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\pi P = \pi \Leftrightarrow [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix} = [\pi(1), \pi(2)]$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \pi(1)(1-a) + \pi(2)b = \pi(1) \text{ and } \pi(1)a + \pi(2)(1-b) = \pi(2)$$

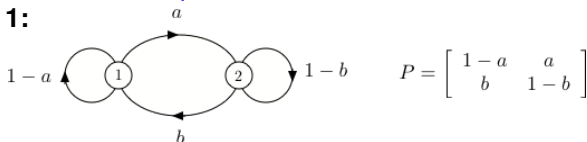
$$\Leftrightarrow \pi(1)a = \pi(2)b.$$

These equations are redundant! We have to add an equation:

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 1:**



$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\pi P = \pi \Leftrightarrow [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix} = [\pi(1), \pi(2)]$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \pi(1)(1-a) + \pi(2)b = \pi(1) \text{ and } \pi(1)a + \pi(2)(1-b) = \pi(2)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \pi(1)a = \pi(2)b.$$

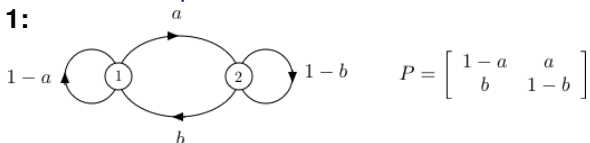
These equations are redundant! We have to add an equation:

$$\pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1.$$

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 1:**



$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\pi P = \pi \Leftrightarrow [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix} = [\pi(1), \pi(2)]$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \pi(1)(1-a) + \pi(2)b = \pi(1) \text{ and } \pi(1)a + \pi(2)(1-b) = \pi(2)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \pi(1)a = \pi(2)b.$$

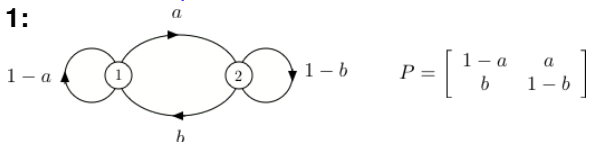
These equations are redundant! We have to add an equation:

$\pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1$ . Then we find

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 1:**



$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\pi P = \pi \Leftrightarrow [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \begin{bmatrix} 1-a & a \\ b & 1-b \end{bmatrix} = [\pi(1), \pi(2)]$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \pi(1)(1-a) + \pi(2)b = \pi(1) \text{ and } \pi(1)a + \pi(2)(1-b) = \pi(2)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \pi(1)a = \pi(2)b.$$

These equations are redundant! We have to add an equation:  
 $\pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1$ . Then we find

$$\pi = \left[ \frac{b}{a+b}, \frac{a}{a+b} \right].$$

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

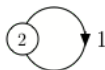
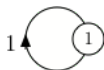
**Example 2:**



# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 2:**

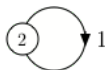


$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 2:**



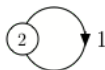
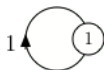
$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\pi P = \pi$$

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 2:**



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

$$\pi P = \pi \Leftrightarrow [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [\pi(1), \pi(2)]$$

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 2:**



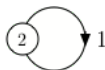
$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\pi P = \pi \Leftrightarrow [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \Leftrightarrow \pi(1) = \pi(1) \text{ and}$$

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 2:**



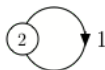
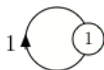
$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\pi P = \pi \Leftrightarrow [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \Leftrightarrow \pi(1) = \pi(1) \text{ and } \pi(2) = \pi(2).$$

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 2:**



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

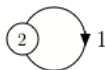
$$\pi P = \pi \Leftrightarrow [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \Leftrightarrow \pi(1) = \pi(1) \text{ and } \pi(2) = \pi(2).$$

Every distribution is invariant for this Markov chain.

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 2:**



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

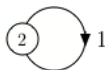
$$\pi P = \pi \Leftrightarrow [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \Leftrightarrow \pi(1) = \pi(1) \text{ and } \pi(2) = \pi(2).$$

Every distribution is invariant for this Markov chain. This is obvious, since  $X_n = X_0$  for all  $n$ .

# Balance Equations

**Theorem** A distribution  $\pi_0$  is invariant iff  $\pi_0 P = \pi_0$ . These equations are called the **balance equations**.

**Example 2:**



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

$$\pi P = \pi \Leftrightarrow [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [\pi(1), \pi(2)] \Leftrightarrow \pi(1) = \pi(1) \text{ and } \pi(2) = \pi(2).$$

Every distribution is invariant for this Markov chain. This is obvious, since  $X_n = X_0$  for all  $n$ . Hence,  $Pr[X_n = i] = Pr[X_0 = i], \forall (i, n)$ .



# Irreducibility

## Irreducibility

**Definition** A Markov chain is **irreducible** if it can go from every state  $i$  to every state  $j$

## Irreducibility

**Definition** A Markov chain is **irreducible** if it can go from every state  $i$  to every state  $j$  (possibly in multiple steps).

# Irreducibility

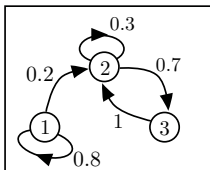
**Definition** A Markov chain is **irreducible** if it can go from every state  $i$  to every state  $j$  (possibly in multiple steps).

**Examples:**

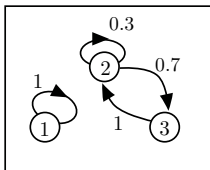
# Irreducibility

**Definition** A Markov chain is **irreducible** if it can go from every state  $i$  to every state  $j$  (possibly in multiple steps).

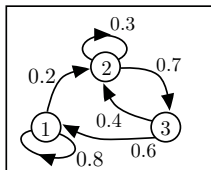
**Examples:**



[A]



[B]

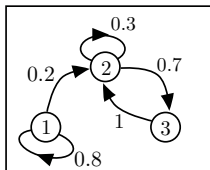


[C]

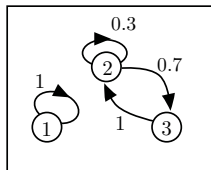
# Irreducibility

**Definition** A Markov chain is **irreducible** if it can go from every state  $i$  to every state  $j$  (possibly in multiple steps).

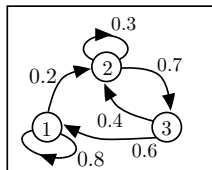
**Examples:**



[A]



[B]



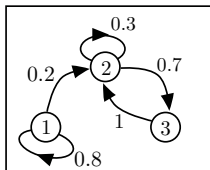
[C]

[A] is

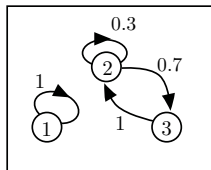
# Irreducibility

**Definition** A Markov chain is **irreducible** if it can go from every state  $i$  to every state  $j$  (possibly in multiple steps).

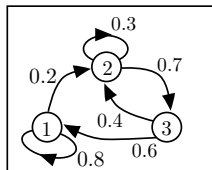
**Examples:**



[A]



[B]



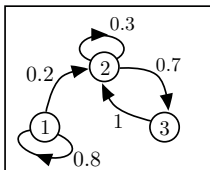
[C]

[A] is **not irreducible**.

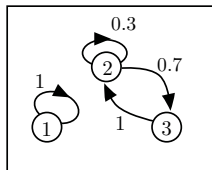
# Irreducibility

**Definition** A Markov chain is **irreducible** if it can go from every state  $i$  to every state  $j$  (possibly in multiple steps).

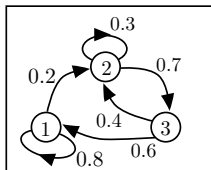
**Examples:**



[A]



[B]



[C]

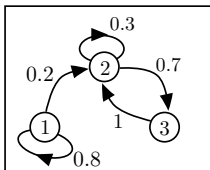
[A] is **not irreducible**. It cannot go from (2) to (1).



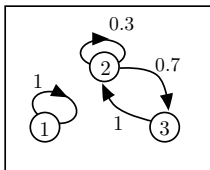
# Irreducibility

**Definition** A Markov chain is **irreducible** if it can go from every state  $i$  to every state  $j$  (possibly in multiple steps).

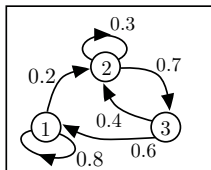
**Examples:**



[A]



[B]



[C]

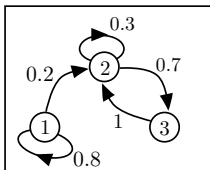
[A] is **not irreducible**. It cannot go from (2) to (1).

[B] is

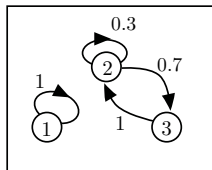
# Irreducibility

**Definition** A Markov chain is **irreducible** if it can go from every state  $i$  to every state  $j$  (possibly in multiple steps).

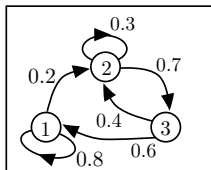
**Examples:**



[A]



[B]



[C]

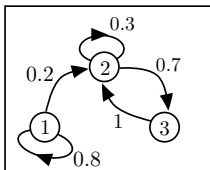
[A] is **not irreducible**. It cannot go from (2) to (1).

[B] is **not irreducible**.

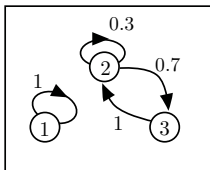
# Irreducibility

**Definition** A Markov chain is **irreducible** if it can go from every state  $i$  to every state  $j$  (possibly in multiple steps).

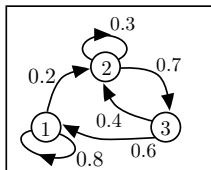
**Examples:**



[A]



[B]



[C]

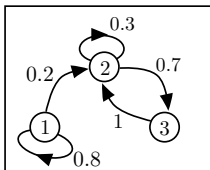
[A] is **not irreducible**. It cannot go from (2) to (1).

[B] is **not irreducible**. It cannot go from (2) to (1).

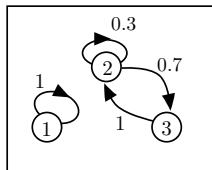
# Irreducibility

**Definition** A Markov chain is **irreducible** if it can go from every state  $i$  to every state  $j$  (possibly in multiple steps).

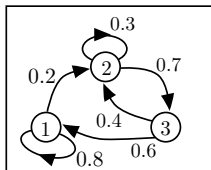
**Examples:**



[A]



[B]



[C]

[A] is **not irreducible**. It cannot go from (2) to (1).

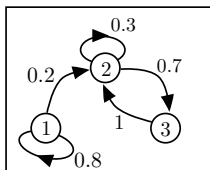
[B] is **not irreducible**. It cannot go from (2) to (1).

[C] is

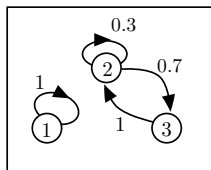
# Irreducibility

**Definition** A Markov chain is **irreducible** if it can go from every state  $i$  to every state  $j$  (possibly in multiple steps).

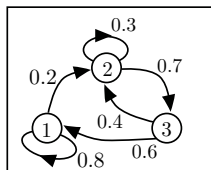
**Examples:**



[A]



[B]



[C]

[A] is **not irreducible**. It cannot go from (2) to (1).

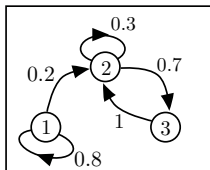
[B] is **not irreducible**. It cannot go from (2) to (1).

[C] is **irreducible**.

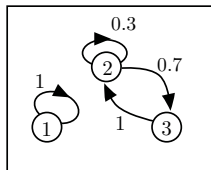
# Irreducibility

**Definition** A Markov chain is **irreducible** if it can go from every state  $i$  to every state  $j$  (possibly in multiple steps).

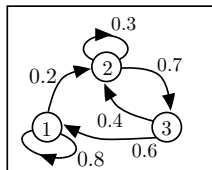
**Examples:**



[A]



[B]



[C]

[A] is **not irreducible**. It cannot go from (2) to (1).

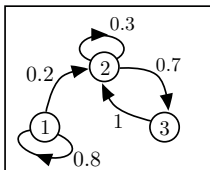
[B] is **not irreducible**. It cannot go from (2) to (1).

[C] is **irreducible**. It can go from every  $i$  to every  $j$ .

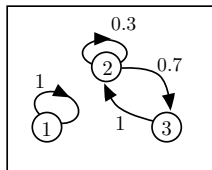
# Irreducibility

**Definition** A Markov chain is **irreducible** if it can go from every state  $i$  to every state  $j$  (possibly in multiple steps).

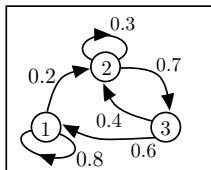
**Examples:**



[A]



[B]



[C]

[A] is **not irreducible**. It cannot go from (2) to (1).

[B] is **not irreducible**. It cannot go from (2) to (1).

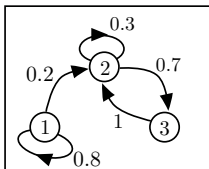
[C] is **irreducible**. It can go from every  $i$  to every  $j$ .

If you consider the graph with arrows when  $P(i,j) > 0$ ,

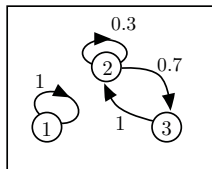
# Irreducibility

**Definition** A Markov chain is **irreducible** if it can go from every state  $i$  to every state  $j$  (possibly in multiple steps).

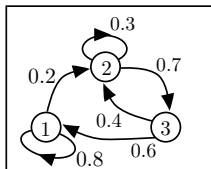
**Examples:**



[A]



[B]



[C]

[A] is **not irreducible**. It cannot go from (2) to (1).

[B] is **not irreducible**. It cannot go from (2) to (1).

[C] is **irreducible**. It can go from every  $i$  to every  $j$ .

If you consider the graph with arrows when  $P(i,j) > 0$ , irreducible means that there is a single connected component.



# Existence and uniqueness of Invariant Distribution

# Existence and uniqueness of Invariant Distribution

**Theorem** A finite irreducible Markov chain has one and only one invariant distribution.

## Existence and uniqueness of Invariant Distribution

**Theorem** A finite irreducible Markov chain has one and only one invariant distribution.

That is, there is a unique positive vector  $\pi = [\pi(1), \dots, \pi(K)]$  such that  $\pi P = \pi$  and  $\sum_k \pi(k) = 1$ .

## Existence and uniqueness of Invariant Distribution

**Theorem** A finite irreducible Markov chain has one and only one invariant distribution.

That is, there is a unique positive vector  $\pi = [\pi(1), \dots, \pi(K)]$  such that  $\pi P = \pi$  and  $\sum_k \pi(k) = 1$ .

**Proof:**

## Existence and uniqueness of Invariant Distribution

**Theorem** A finite irreducible Markov chain has one and only one invariant distribution.

That is, there is a unique positive vector  $\pi = [\pi(1), \dots, \pi(K)]$  such that  $\pi P = \pi$  and  $\sum_k \pi(k) = 1$ .

**Proof:** See EE126,

## Existence and uniqueness of Invariant Distribution

**Theorem** A finite irreducible Markov chain has one and only one invariant distribution.

That is, there is a unique positive vector  $\pi = [\pi(1), \dots, \pi(K)]$  such that  $\pi P = \pi$  and  $\sum_k \pi(k) = 1$ .

**Proof:** See EE126, or lecture note 24.

## Existence and uniqueness of Invariant Distribution

**Theorem** A finite irreducible Markov chain has one and only one invariant distribution.

That is, there is a unique positive vector  $\pi = [\pi(1), \dots, \pi(K)]$  such that  $\pi P = \pi$  and  $\sum_k \pi(k) = 1$ .

**Proof:** See EE126, or lecture note 24. (We will not expect you to understand this proof.)

## Existence and uniqueness of Invariant Distribution

**Theorem** A finite irreducible Markov chain has one and only one invariant distribution.

That is, there is a unique positive vector  $\pi = [\pi(1), \dots, \pi(K)]$  such that  $\pi P = \pi$  and  $\sum_k \pi(k) = 1$ .

**Proof:** See EE126, or lecture note 24. (We will not expect you to understand this proof.)

**Note:**



## Existence and uniqueness of Invariant Distribution

**Theorem** A finite irreducible Markov chain has one and only one invariant distribution.

That is, there is a unique positive vector  $\pi = [\pi(1), \dots, \pi(K)]$  such that  $\pi P = \pi$  and  $\sum_k \pi(k) = 1$ .

**Proof:** See EE126, or lecture note 24. (We will not expect you to understand this proof.)

**Note:** We know already that some irreducible Markov chains have multiple invariant distributions.

## Existence and uniqueness of Invariant Distribution

**Theorem** A finite irreducible Markov chain has one and only one invariant distribution.

That is, there is a unique positive vector  $\pi = [\pi(1), \dots, \pi(K)]$  such that  $\pi P = \pi$  and  $\sum_k \pi(k) = 1$ .

**Proof:** See EE126, or lecture note 24. (We will not expect you to understand this proof.)

**Note:** We know already that some irreducible Markov chains have multiple invariant distributions.

**Fact:**

## Existence and uniqueness of Invariant Distribution

**Theorem** A finite irreducible Markov chain has one and only one invariant distribution.

That is, there is a unique positive vector  $\pi = [\pi(1), \dots, \pi(K)]$  such that  $\pi P = \pi$  and  $\sum_k \pi(k) = 1$ .

**Proof:** See EE126, or lecture note 24. (We will not expect you to understand this proof.)

**Note:** We know already that some irreducible Markov chains have multiple invariant distributions.

**Fact:** If a Markov chain has two different invariant distributions  $\pi$  and  $\nu$ ,

## Existence and uniqueness of Invariant Distribution

**Theorem** A finite irreducible Markov chain has one and only one invariant distribution.

That is, there is a unique positive vector  $\pi = [\pi(1), \dots, \pi(K)]$  such that  $\pi P = \pi$  and  $\sum_k \pi(k) = 1$ .

**Proof:** See EE126, or lecture note 24. (We will not expect you to understand this proof.)

**Note:** We know already that some irreducible Markov chains have multiple invariant distributions.

**Fact:** If a Markov chain has two different invariant distributions  $\pi$  and  $\nu$ , then it has infinitely many invariant distributions.

## Existence and uniqueness of Invariant Distribution

**Theorem** A finite irreducible Markov chain has one and only one invariant distribution.

That is, there is a unique positive vector  $\pi = [\pi(1), \dots, \pi(K)]$  such that  $\pi P = \pi$  and  $\sum_k \pi(k) = 1$ .

**Proof:** See EE126, or lecture note 24. (We will not expect you to understand this proof.)

**Note:** We know already that some irreducible Markov chains have multiple invariant distributions.

**Fact:** If a Markov chain has two different invariant distributions  $\pi$  and  $\nu$ , then it has infinitely many invariant distributions. Indeed,  $p\pi + (1 - p)\nu$  is then invariant since

## Existence and uniqueness of Invariant Distribution

**Theorem** A finite irreducible Markov chain has one and only one invariant distribution.

That is, there is a unique positive vector  $\pi = [\pi(1), \dots, \pi(K)]$  such that  $\pi P = \pi$  and  $\sum_k \pi(k) = 1$ .

**Proof:** See EE126, or lecture note 24. (We will not expect you to understand this proof.)

**Note:** We know already that some irreducible Markov chains have multiple invariant distributions.

**Fact:** If a Markov chain has two different invariant distributions  $\pi$  and  $\nu$ , then it has infinitely many invariant distributions. Indeed,  $p\pi + (1 - p)\nu$  is then invariant since

$$[p\pi + (1 - p)\nu]P = p\pi P + (1 - p)\nu P = p\pi + (1 - p)\nu.$$

## Long Term Fraction of Time in States

## Long Term Fraction of Time in States

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ .



## Long Term Fraction of Time in States

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ .

Then, for all  $i$ ,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} 1\{X_m = i\} \rightarrow \pi(i), \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

# Long Term Fraction of Time in States

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ .

Then, for all  $i$ ,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} 1\{X_m = i\} \rightarrow \pi(i), \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

The left-hand side is the fraction of time that  $X_m = i$  during steps  $0, 1, \dots, n-1$ .

## Long Term Fraction of Time in States

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ .

Then, for all  $i$ ,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} 1\{X_m = i\} \rightarrow \pi(i), \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

The left-hand side is the fraction of time that  $X_m = i$  during steps  $0, 1, \dots, n-1$ . Thus, this fraction of time approaches  $\pi(i)$ .

## Long Term Fraction of Time in States

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ .

Then, for all  $i$ ,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} 1\{X_m = i\} \rightarrow \pi(i), \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

The left-hand side is the fraction of time that  $X_m = i$  during steps  $0, 1, \dots, n-1$ . Thus, this fraction of time approaches  $\pi(i)$ .

**Proof:** See EE126.

## Long Term Fraction of Time in States

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ .

Then, for all  $i$ ,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} 1\{X_m = i\} \rightarrow \pi(i), \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

The left-hand side is the fraction of time that  $X_m = i$  during steps  $0, 1, \dots, n-1$ . Thus, this fraction of time approaches  $\pi(i)$ .

**Proof:** See EE126. Lecture note 24 gives a plausibility argument.



## Long Term Fraction of Time in States

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ . Then, for all  $i$ ,  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{1}\{X_m = i\} \rightarrow \pi(i)$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

# Long Term Fraction of Time in States

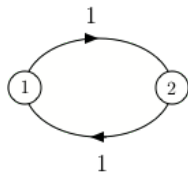
**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ . Then, for all  $i$ ,  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{1}\{X_m = i\} \rightarrow \pi(i)$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Example 1:**

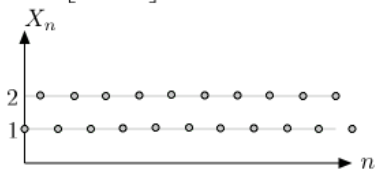
# Long Term Fraction of Time in States

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ . Then, for all  $i$ ,  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{1}\{X_m = i\} \rightarrow \pi(i)$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Example 1:**



$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \pi P = \pi \Rightarrow \pi = [1/2, 1/2]$$

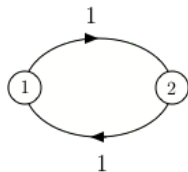




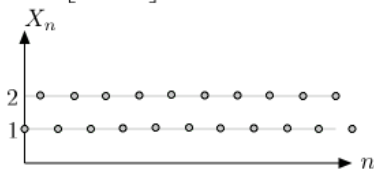
# Long Term Fraction of Time in States

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ . Then, for all  $i$ ,  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} 1\{X_m = i\} \rightarrow \pi(i)$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Example 1:**



$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \pi P = \pi \Rightarrow \pi = [1/2, 1/2]$$

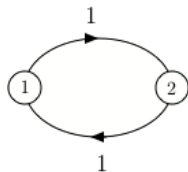


The fraction of time in state 1

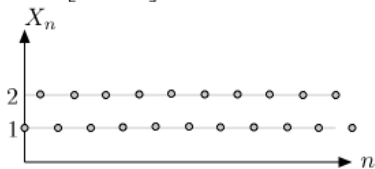
# Long Term Fraction of Time in States

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ . Then, for all  $i$ ,  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} 1\{X_m = i\} \rightarrow \pi(i)$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Example 1:**



$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \pi P = \pi \Rightarrow \pi = [1/2, 1/2]$$

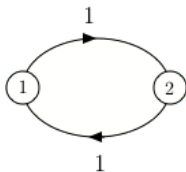


The fraction of time in state 1 converges to  $1/2$ ,

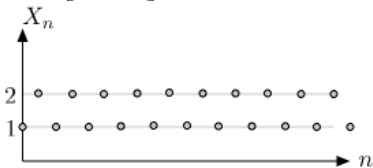
# Long Term Fraction of Time in States

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ . Then, for all  $i$ ,  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} 1\{X_m = i\} \rightarrow \pi(i)$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Example 1:**



$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \pi P = \pi \Rightarrow \pi = [1/2, 1/2]$$



The fraction of time in state 1 converges to  $1/2$ , which is  $\pi(1)$ .

## Long Term Fraction of Time in States

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ . Then, for all  $i$ ,  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{1}\{X_m = i\} \rightarrow \pi(i)$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

# Long Term Fraction of Time in States

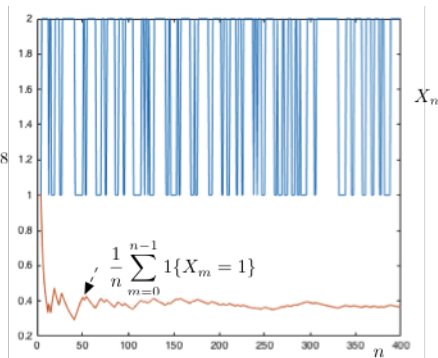
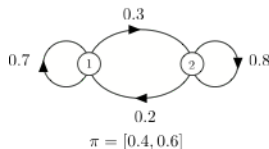
**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ . Then, for all  $i$ ,  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} \mathbf{1}\{X_m = i\} \rightarrow \pi(i)$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Example 2:**

# Long Term Fraction of Time in States

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ . Then, for all  $i$ ,  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} 1\{X_m = i\} \rightarrow \pi(i)$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

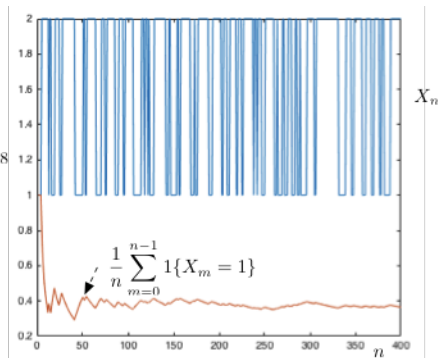
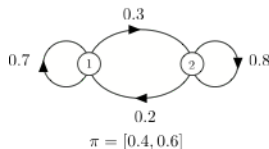
**Example 2:**



# Long Term Fraction of Time in States

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ . Then, for all  $i$ ,  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} 1\{X_m = i\} \rightarrow \pi(i)$ , as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

**Example 2:**



# Convergence to Invariant Distribution



## Convergence to Invariant Distribution

**Question:** Assume that the MC is irreducible.

## Convergence to Invariant Distribution

**Question:** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Does  $\pi_n$  approach the unique invariant distribution  $\pi$ ?

## Convergence to Invariant Distribution

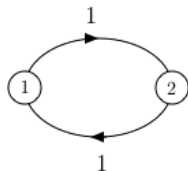
**Question:** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Does  $\pi_n$  approach the unique invariant distribution  $\pi$ ?

**Answer:** Not necessarily. Here is an example:

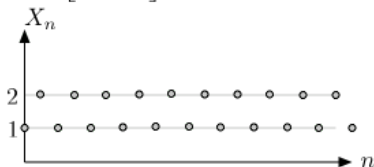
## Convergence to Invariant Distribution

**Question:** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Does  $\pi_n$  approach the unique invariant distribution  $\pi$ ?

**Answer:** Not necessarily. Here is an example:



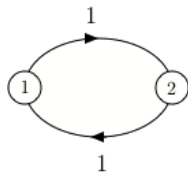
$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \pi P = \pi \Rightarrow \pi = [1/2, 1/2]$$



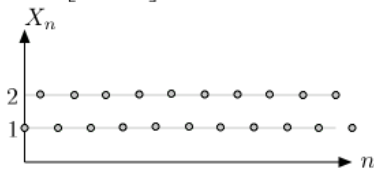
## Convergence to Invariant Distribution

**Question:** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Does  $\pi_n$  approach the unique invariant distribution  $\pi$ ?

**Answer:** Not necessarily. Here is an example:



$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \pi P = \pi \Rightarrow \pi = [1/2, 1/2]$$

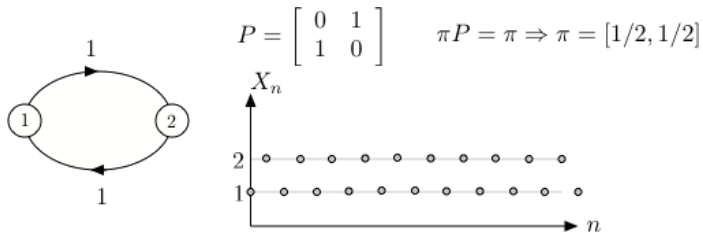


Assume  $X_0 = 1$ .

## Convergence to Invariant Distribution

**Question:** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Does  $\pi_n$  approach the unique invariant distribution  $\pi$ ?

**Answer:** Not necessarily. Here is an example:

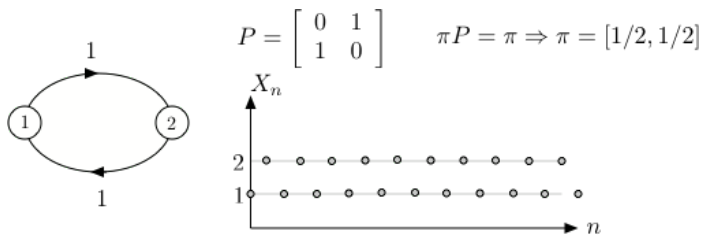


Assume  $X_0 = 1$ . Then  $X_1 = 2$ ,

## Convergence to Invariant Distribution

**Question:** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Does  $\pi_n$  approach the unique invariant distribution  $\pi$ ?

**Answer:** Not necessarily. Here is an example:

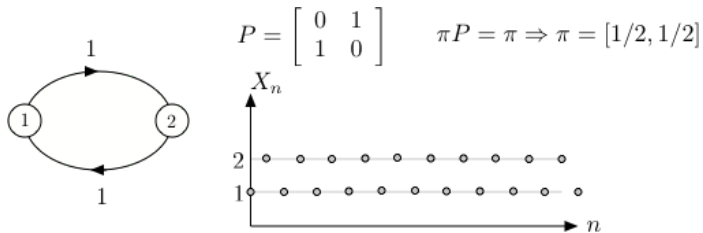


Assume  $X_0 = 1$ . Then  $X_1 = 2, X_2 = 1,$

## Convergence to Invariant Distribution

**Question:** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Does  $\pi_n$  approach the unique invariant distribution  $\pi$ ?

**Answer:** Not necessarily. Here is an example:



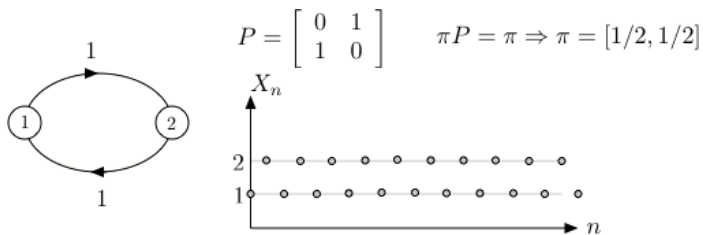
Assume  $X_0 = 1$ . Then  $X_1 = 2, X_2 = 1, X_3 = 2, \dots$



## Convergence to Invariant Distribution

**Question:** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Does  $\pi_n$  approach the unique invariant distribution  $\pi$ ?

**Answer:** Not necessarily. Here is an example:



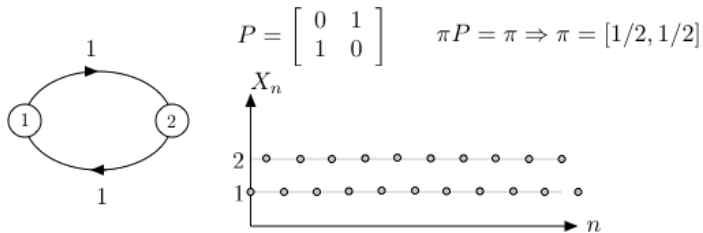
Assume  $X_0 = 1$ . Then  $X_1 = 2, X_2 = 1, X_3 = 2, \dots$

Thus, if  $\pi_0 = [1, 0]$ ,

## Convergence to Invariant Distribution

**Question:** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Does  $\pi_n$  approach the unique invariant distribution  $\pi$ ?

**Answer:** Not necessarily. Here is an example:



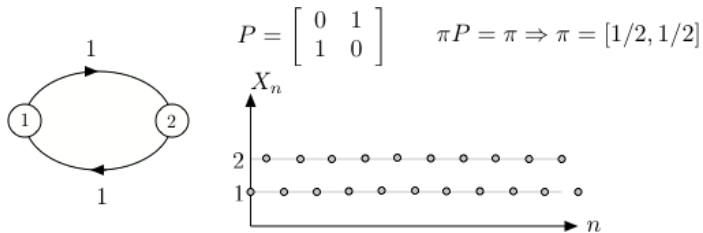
Assume  $X_0 = 1$ . Then  $X_1 = 2, X_2 = 1, X_3 = 2, \dots$

Thus, if  $\pi_0 = [1, 0]$ ,  $\pi_1 = [0, 1]$ ,

## Convergence to Invariant Distribution

**Question:** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Does  $\pi_n$  approach the unique invariant distribution  $\pi$ ?

**Answer:** Not necessarily. Here is an example:



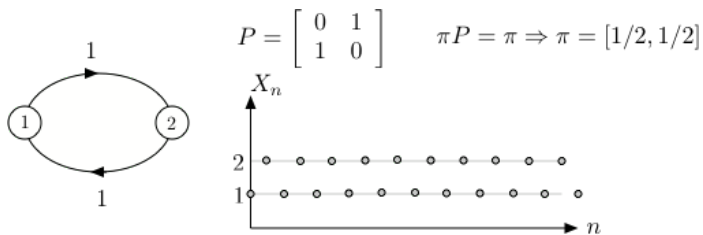
Assume  $X_0 = 1$ . Then  $X_1 = 2, X_2 = 1, X_3 = 2, \dots$

Thus, if  $\pi_0 = [1, 0], \pi_1 = [0, 1], \pi_2 = [1, 0],$

## Convergence to Invariant Distribution

**Question:** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Does  $\pi_n$  approach the unique invariant distribution  $\pi$ ?

**Answer:** Not necessarily. Here is an example:



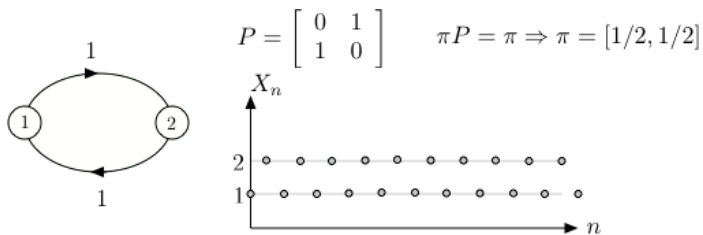
Assume  $X_0 = 1$ . Then  $X_1 = 2, X_2 = 1, X_3 = 2, \dots$

Thus, if  $\pi_0 = [1, 0], \pi_1 = [0, 1], \pi_2 = [1, 0], \pi_3 = [0, 1], \dots$ , etc.

## Convergence to Invariant Distribution

**Question:** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Does  $\pi_n$  approach the unique invariant distribution  $\pi$ ?

**Answer:** Not necessarily. Here is an example:



Assume  $X_0 = 1$ . Then  $X_1 = 2, X_2 = 1, X_3 = 2, \dots$

Thus, if  $\pi_0 = [1, 0], \pi_1 = [0, 1], \pi_2 = [1, 0], \pi_3 = [0, 1],$  etc.

Hence,  $\pi_n$  does not converge to  $\pi = [1/2, 1/2]$ .

# Periodicity

# Periodicity

## Theorem

## Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible.



## Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

## Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24.



## Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition**

## Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**.

## Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**.  
Otherwise, it is periodic with period  $d(i)$ .

## Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**.  
Otherwise, it is periodic with period  $d(i)$ .

**Example**

# Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

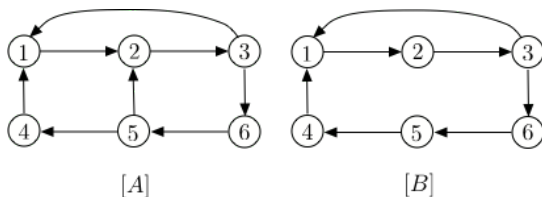
$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**.  
Otherwise, it is periodic with period  $d(i)$ .

**Example**



# Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

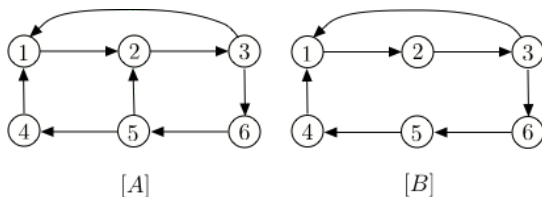
$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**.  
Otherwise, it is periodic with period  $d(i)$ .

**Example**



[A]:



# Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

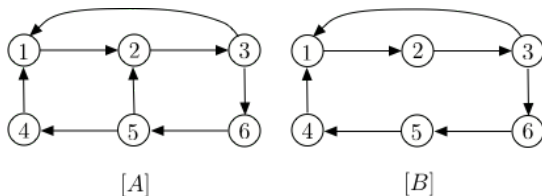
$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**.  
Otherwise, it is periodic with period  $d(i)$ .

**Example**



$$[A]: \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\}$$

# Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

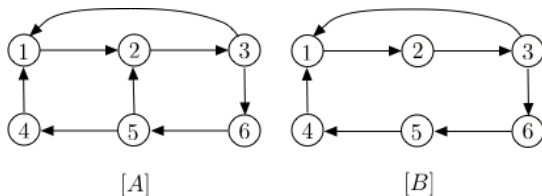
$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**.  
Otherwise, it is periodic with period  $d(i)$ .

**Example**



$$[A]: \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\} = \{3, 6, 9, 12, \dots\}$$

# Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

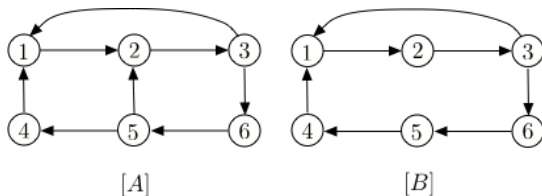
$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**.  
Otherwise, it is periodic with period  $d(i)$ .

**Example**



$$[A]: \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\} = \{3, 6, 9, 12, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(1) = 3.$$

# Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

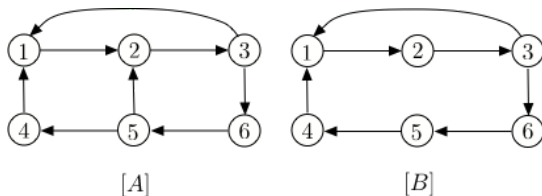
$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**.  
Otherwise, it is periodic with period  $d(i)$ .

**Example**



$$\begin{aligned} [A]: \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\} &= \{3, 6, 7, 9, 11, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(1) = 1. \\ \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 2 \mid X_0 = 2] > 0\} & \end{aligned}$$

# Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

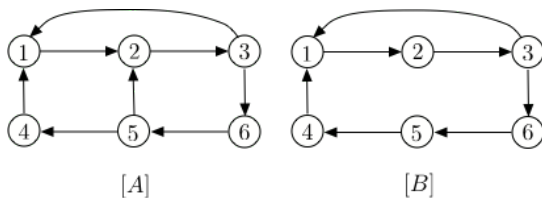
$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**.  
Otherwise, it is periodic with period  $d(i)$ .

**Example**



$$\begin{aligned} [A]: \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\} &= \{3, 6, 7, 9, 11, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(1) = 1. \\ \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 2 \mid X_0 = 2] > 0\} &= \{3, 4, \dots\} \end{aligned}$$

# Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

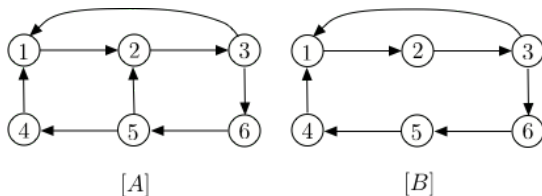
$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**.  
Otherwise, it is periodic with period  $d(i)$ .

**Example**



$$[A]: \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 | X_0 = 1] > 0\} = \{3, 6, 7, 9, 11, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(1) = 1.$$

$$\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 2 | X_0 = 2] > 0\} = \{3, 4, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(2) = 1.$$

# Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

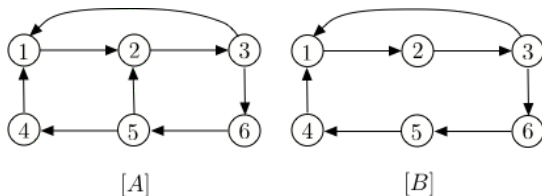
$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**. Otherwise, it is periodic with period  $d(i)$ .

**Example**



$$[A]: \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\} = \{3, 6, 7, 9, 11, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(1) = 1.$$

$$\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 2 \mid X_0 = 2] > 0\} = \{3, 4, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(2) = 1.$$

[B]:

# Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

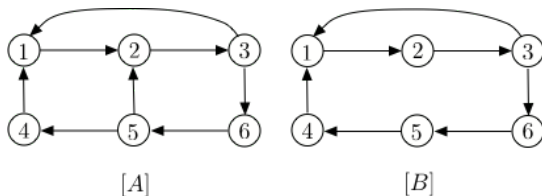
$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**. Otherwise, it is periodic with period  $d(i)$ .

**Example**



$$[A]: \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\} = \{3, 6, 7, 9, 11, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(1) = 1.$$

$$\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 2 \mid X_0 = 2] > 0\} = \{3, 4, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(2) = 1.$$

$$[B]: \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\}$$



# Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

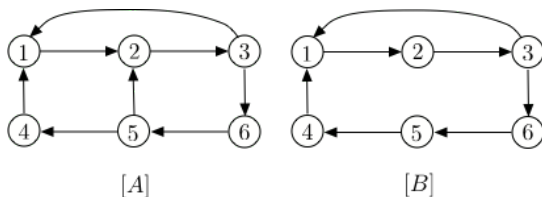
$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**.  
Otherwise, it is periodic with period  $d(i)$ .

**Example**



$$[A]: \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\} = \{3, 6, 7, 9, 11, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(1) = 1.$$

$$\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 2 \mid X_0 = 2] > 0\} = \{3, 4, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(2) = 1.$$

$$[B]: \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\} = \{3, 6, 9, \dots\}$$

# Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

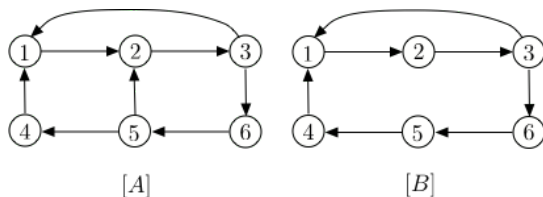
$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**.  
Otherwise, it is periodic with period  $d(i)$ .

**Example**



$$[A]: \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\} = \{3, 6, 7, 9, 11, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(1) = 1.$$

$$\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 2 \mid X_0 = 2] > 0\} = \{3, 4, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(2) = 1.$$

$$[B]: \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\} = \{3, 6, 9, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(i) = 3.$$

## Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

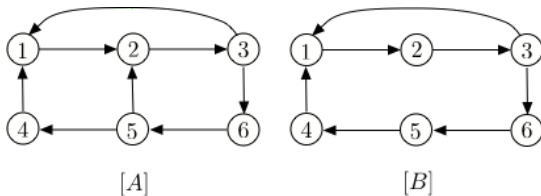
$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**. Otherwise, it is periodic with period  $d(i)$ .

**Example**



[A]:  $\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\} = \{3, 6, 9, 12, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(1) = 3$ .

$\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 2 \mid X_0 = 2] > 0\} = \{3, 6, 9, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(2) = 3$ .

[B]:  $\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\} = \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(i) = 1$ .

$\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 5 \mid X_0 = 5] > 0\}$

# Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

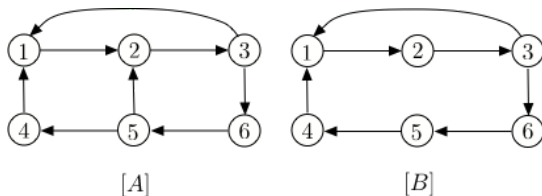
$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**. Otherwise, it is periodic with period  $d(i)$ .

**Example**



$$[A]: \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\} = \{3, 6, 7, 9, 11, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(1) = 1.$$

$$\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 2 \mid X_0 = 2] > 0\} = \{3, 4, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(2) = 1.$$

$$[B]: \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\} = \{3, 6, 9, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(i) = 3.$$

$$\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 5 \mid X_0 = 5] > 0\} = \{6, 9, \dots\}$$

# Periodicity

**Theorem** Assume that the MC is irreducible. Then

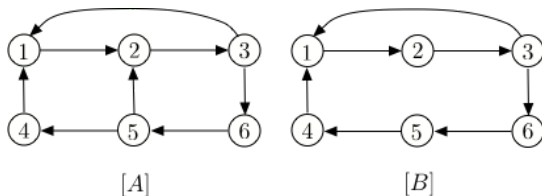
$$d(i) := \text{g.c.d.}\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = i \mid X_0 = i] > 0\}$$

has the same value for all states  $i$ .

**Proof:** See Lecture notes 24. □

**Definition** If  $d(i) = 1$ , the Markov chain is said to be **aperiodic**. Otherwise, it is periodic with period  $d(i)$ .

**Example**



$$[A]: \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\} = \{3, 6, 9, 11, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(1) = 1.$$

$$\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 2 \mid X_0 = 2] > 0\} = \{3, 4, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(2) = 1.$$

$$[B]: \{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 1 \mid X_0 = 1] > 0\} = \{3, 6, 9, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(i) = 3.$$

$$\{n > 0 \mid \Pr[X_n = 5 \mid X_0 = 5] > 0\} = \{6, 9, \dots\} \Rightarrow d(5) = 3.$$

## Convergence of $\pi_n$

## Convergence of $\pi_n$

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ .

## Convergence of $\pi_n$

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ . Then, for all  $i \in \mathcal{X}$ ,

$$\pi_n(i) \rightarrow \pi(i), \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$



## Convergence of $\pi_n$

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ . Then, for all  $i \in \mathcal{X}$ ,

$$\pi_n(i) \rightarrow \pi(i), \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

**Proof**

## Convergence of $\pi_n$

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ . Then, for all  $i \in \mathcal{X}$ ,

$$\pi_n(i) \rightarrow \pi(i), \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

**Proof** See EE126, or Lecture notes 24.



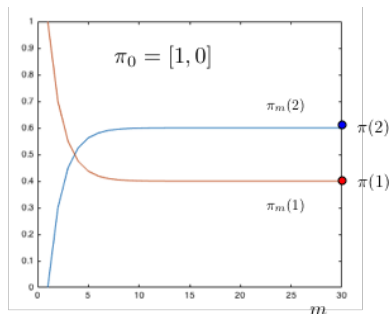
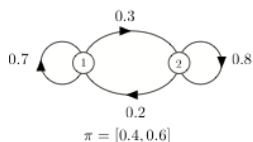
# Convergence of $\pi_n$

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ . Then, for all  $i \in \mathcal{X}$ ,

$$\pi_n(i) \rightarrow \pi(i), \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

**Proof** See EE126, or Lecture notes 24. □

## Example



## Convergence of $\pi_n$

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ .

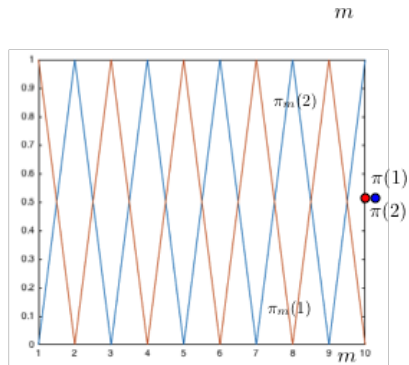
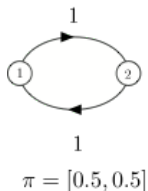
## Convergence of $\pi_n$

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ . Then, for all  $i \in \mathcal{X}$ ,

$$\pi_n(i) \rightarrow \pi(i), \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

**Proof** See EE126, or Lecture notes 24. □

**Example**



## Convergence of $\pi_n$

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ .

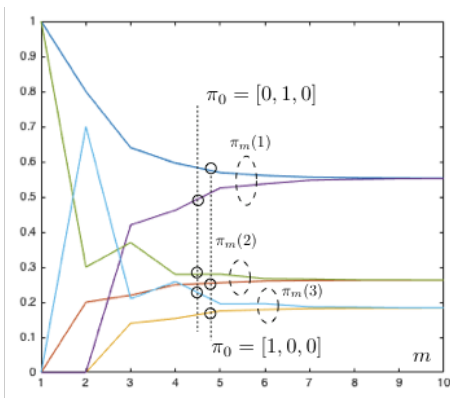
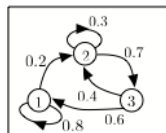
# Convergence of $\pi_n$

**Theorem** Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain with invariant distribution  $\pi$ . Then, for all  $i \in \mathcal{X}$ ,

$$\pi_n(i) \rightarrow \pi(i), \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

**Proof** See EE126, or Lecture notes 24. □

**Example**



# Calculating $\pi$



## Calculating $\pi$

Let  $P$  be irreducible. How do we find  $\pi$ ?

## Calculating $\pi$

Let  $P$  be irreducible. How do we find  $\pi$ ?

**Example:**  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

## Calculating $\pi$

Let  $P$  be irreducible. How do we find  $\pi$ ?

**Example:**  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

One has  $\pi P = \pi$ , i.e.,

## Calculating $\pi$

Let  $P$  be irreducible. How do we find  $\pi$ ?

**Example:**  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

One has  $\pi P = \pi$ , i.e.,  $\pi[P - I] = \mathbf{0}$

## Calculating $\pi$

Let  $P$  be irreducible. How do we find  $\pi$ ?

**Example:**  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

One has  $\pi P = \pi$ , i.e.,  $\pi[P - I] = \mathbf{0}$  where  $I$  is the identity matrix:

## Calculating $\pi$

Let  $P$  be irreducible. How do we find  $\pi$ ?

**Example:**  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

One has  $\pi P = \pi$ , i.e.,  $\pi[P - I] = \mathbf{0}$  where  $I$  is the identity matrix:

$$\pi \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 - 1 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 - 1 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 - 1 \end{bmatrix} = [0, 0, 0].$$

## Calculating $\pi$

Let  $P$  be irreducible. How do we find  $\pi$ ?

**Example:**  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

One has  $\pi P = \pi$ , i.e.,  $\pi[P - I] = \mathbf{0}$  where  $I$  is the identity matrix:

$$\pi \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 - 1 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 - 1 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 - 1 \end{bmatrix} = [0, 0, 0].$$

However, the sum of the columns of  $P - I$  is  $\mathbf{0}$ .

## Calculating $\pi$

Let  $P$  be irreducible. How do we find  $\pi$ ?

**Example:**  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

One has  $\pi P = \pi$ , i.e.,  $\pi[P - I] = \mathbf{0}$  where  $I$  is the identity matrix:

$$\pi \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 - 1 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 - 1 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 - 1 \end{bmatrix} = [0, 0, 0].$$

However, the sum of the columns of  $P - I$  is  $\mathbf{0}$ . This shows that these equations are redundant:



## Calculating $\pi$

Let  $P$  be irreducible. How do we find  $\pi$ ?

**Example:**  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

One has  $\pi P = \pi$ , i.e.,  $\pi[P - I] = \mathbf{0}$  where  $I$  is the identity matrix:

$$\pi \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 - 1 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 - 1 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 - 1 \end{bmatrix} = [0, 0, 0].$$

However, the sum of the columns of  $P - I$  is  $\mathbf{0}$ . This shows that these equations are redundant: If all but the last one hold, so does the last one.

## Calculating $\pi$

Let  $P$  be irreducible. How do we find  $\pi$ ?

**Example:**  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

One has  $\pi P = \pi$ , i.e.,  $\pi[P - I] = \mathbf{0}$  where  $I$  is the identity matrix:

$$\pi \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 - 1 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 - 1 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 - 1 \end{bmatrix} = [0, 0, 0].$$

However, the sum of the columns of  $P - I$  is  $\mathbf{0}$ . This shows that these equations are redundant: If all but the last one hold, so does the last one. Let us replace the last equation by  $\pi \mathbf{1} = 1$ , i.e.,

## Calculating $\pi$

Let  $P$  be irreducible. How do we find  $\pi$ ?

**Example:**  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

One has  $\pi P = \pi$ , i.e.,  $\pi[P - I] = \mathbf{0}$  where  $I$  is the identity matrix:

$$\pi \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 - 1 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 - 1 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 - 1 \end{bmatrix} = [0, 0, 0].$$

However, the sum of the columns of  $P - I$  is  $\mathbf{0}$ . This shows that these equations are redundant: If all but the last one hold, so does the last one. Let us replace the last equation by  $\pi \mathbf{1} = 1$ , i.e.,  $\sum_j \pi(j) = 1$ :

## Calculating $\pi$

Let  $P$  be irreducible. How do we find  $\pi$ ?

**Example:**  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

One has  $\pi P = \pi$ , i.e.,  $\pi[P - I] = \mathbf{0}$  where  $I$  is the identity matrix:

$$\pi \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 - 1 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 - 1 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 - 1 \end{bmatrix} = [0, 0, 0].$$

However, the sum of the columns of  $P - I$  is  $\mathbf{0}$ . This shows that these equations are redundant: If all but the last one hold, so does the last one. Let us replace the last equation by  $\pi \mathbf{1} = 1$ , i.e.,  $\sum_j \pi(j) = 1$ :

$$\pi \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 - 1 & 0.2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0.3 - 1 & 1 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [0, 0, 1].$$

## Calculating $\pi$

Let  $P$  be irreducible. How do we find  $\pi$ ?

**Example:**  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

One has  $\pi P = \pi$ , i.e.,  $\pi[P - I] = \mathbf{0}$  where  $I$  is the identity matrix:

$$\pi \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 - 1 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 - 1 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 - 1 \end{bmatrix} = [0, 0, 0].$$

However, the sum of the columns of  $P - I$  is  $\mathbf{0}$ . This shows that these equations are redundant: If all but the last one hold, so does the last one. Let us replace the last equation by  $\pi \mathbf{1} = 1$ , i.e.,  $\sum_j \pi(j) = 1$ :

$$\pi \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 - 1 & 0.2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0.3 - 1 & 1 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [0, 0, 1].$$

Hence,

$$\pi = [0, 0, 1] \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 - 1 & 0.2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0.3 - 1 & 1 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$$

## Calculating $\pi$

Let  $P$  be irreducible. How do we find  $\pi$ ?

**Example:**  $P = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

One has  $\pi P = \pi$ , i.e.,  $\pi[P - I] = \mathbf{0}$  where  $I$  is the identity matrix:

$$\pi \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 - 1 & 0.2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 - 1 & 0.7 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 0 - 1 \end{bmatrix} = [0, 0, 0].$$

However, the sum of the columns of  $P - I$  is  $\mathbf{0}$ . This shows that these equations are redundant: If all but the last one hold, so does the last one. Let us replace the last equation by  $\pi \mathbf{1} = 1$ , i.e.,  $\sum_j \pi(j) = 1$ :

$$\pi \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 - 1 & 0.2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0.3 - 1 & 1 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [0, 0, 1].$$

Hence,

$$\pi = [0, 0, 1] \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 - 1 & 0.2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0.3 - 1 & 1 \\ 0.6 & 0.4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \approx [0.55, 0.26, 0.19]$$

# Summary

Markov Chains

# Summary

Markov Chains



# Summary

## Markov Chains

- ▶ Markov Chain:

# Summary

## Markov Chains

- ▶ Markov Chain:  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j | X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i, j)$

# Summary

## Markov Chains

- ▶ Markov Chain:  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j | X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i, j)$
- ▶ FSE:  $\beta(i) = 1 + \sum_j P(i, j)\beta(j)$ ;

# Summary

## Markov Chains

- ▶ Markov Chain:  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j | X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i, j)$
- ▶ FSE:  $\beta(i) = 1 + \sum_j P(i, j)\beta(j)$ ;  $\alpha(i) = \sum_j P(i, j)\alpha(j)$ .

# Summary

## Markov Chains

- ▶ Markov Chain:  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j | X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i, j)$
- ▶ FSE:  $\beta(i) = 1 + \sum_j P(i, j)\beta(j)$ ;  $\alpha(i) = \sum_j P(i, j)\alpha(j)$ .
- ▶  $\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$

# Summary

## Markov Chains

- ▶ Markov Chain:  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j | X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i, j)$
- ▶ FSE:  $\beta(i) = 1 + \sum_j P(i, j)\beta(j)$ ;  $\alpha(i) = \sum_j P(i, j)\alpha(j)$ .
- ▶  $\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$
- ▶  $\pi$  is invariant iff  $\pi P = \pi$

# Summary

## Markov Chains

- ▶ Markov Chain:  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j | X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i, j)$
- ▶ FSE:  $\beta(i) = 1 + \sum_j P(i, j)\beta(j)$ ;  $\alpha(i) = \sum_j P(i, j)\alpha(j)$ .
- ▶  $\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$
- ▶  $\pi$  is invariant iff  $\pi P = \pi$
- ▶ Irreducible  $\Rightarrow$  one and only one invariant distribution  $\pi$

# Summary

## Markov Chains

- ▶ Markov Chain:  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j | X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i, j)$
- ▶ FSE:  $\beta(i) = 1 + \sum_j P(i, j)\beta(j)$ ;  $\alpha(i) = \sum_j P(i, j)\alpha(j)$ .
- ▶  $\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$
- ▶  $\pi$  is invariant iff  $\pi P = \pi$
- ▶ Irreducible  $\Rightarrow$  one and only one invariant distribution  $\pi$
- ▶ Irreducible  $\Rightarrow$  fraction of time in state  $i$  approaches  $\pi(i)$



# Summary

## Markov Chains

- ▶ Markov Chain:  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j | X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i, j)$
- ▶ FSE:  $\beta(i) = 1 + \sum_j P(i, j)\beta(j)$ ;  $\alpha(i) = \sum_j P(i, j)\alpha(j)$ .
- ▶  $\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$
- ▶  $\pi$  is invariant iff  $\pi P = \pi$
- ▶ Irreducible  $\Rightarrow$  one and only one invariant distribution  $\pi$
- ▶ Irreducible  $\Rightarrow$  fraction of time in state  $i$  approaches  $\pi(i)$
- ▶ Irreducible + Aperiodic  $\Rightarrow \pi_n \rightarrow \pi$ .

# Summary

## Markov Chains

- ▶ Markov Chain:  $Pr[X_{n+1} = j | X_0, \dots, X_n = i] = P(i, j)$
- ▶ FSE:  $\beta(i) = 1 + \sum_j P(i, j)\beta(j)$ ;  $\alpha(i) = \sum_j P(i, j)\alpha(j)$ .
- ▶  $\pi_n = \pi_0 P^n$
- ▶  $\pi$  is invariant iff  $\pi P = \pi$
- ▶ Irreducible  $\Rightarrow$  one and only one invariant distribution  $\pi$
- ▶ Irreducible  $\Rightarrow$  fraction of time in state  $i$  approaches  $\pi(i)$
- ▶ Irreducible + Aperiodic  $\Rightarrow \pi_n \rightarrow \pi$ .
- ▶ Calculating  $\pi$ : One finds  $\pi = [0, 0, \dots, 1] Q^{-1}$  where  $Q = \dots$ .