# **Applied Stochastic Processes**

## Solution sheet 5

### Solution 5.1

- (a) 1. False. There are three communicating classes.
  - 2. False. The state c is transient since d can be reached from c but c cannot be reached from d. Since the communicating class of b is  $\{b, c\}$ , the communicating class theorem implies that b is also transient.
  - 3. True. By the previous argument we can see that the classes  $\{a\}$  and  $\{b, c\}$  are transient. Since the state space is finite, a result from the course gives that there exists at least one recurrent state, and so the class  $\{d, e\}$  must be recurrent.
  - 4. False. By definition, an irreducible Markov chain has exactly one communication class.
  - 5. True. For example, take S to be countably infinite and define the transition probability P by  $p_{xx} = 1$  for all  $x \in S$ . Then every state is recurrent and forms its own communication class.
- (b) 1. False. The chain has two communicating classes for  $\varepsilon = 0$ .
  - 2. False. For all  $\varepsilon \ge 0$ ,  $\pi = (\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{4})$  is not reversible. It suffices to note that

$$\pi_c p_{cd} = \frac{1}{6} \neq \frac{1}{12} = \pi_d p_{dc}$$

3. True.  $\pi = (\frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2})$  is reversible if and only if  $\varepsilon = 0$ . For  $\varepsilon > 0$ , we note that

$$\pi_b p_{bc} = \frac{1}{8} \cdot \varepsilon \neq \frac{1}{4} \cdot \varepsilon = \pi_c p_{cb}.$$

For  $\varepsilon = 0$ , we note that  $\pi_a p_{ab} = \pi_b p_{ba} = \frac{1}{16}$  and  $\pi_c p_{cd} = \pi_d p_{dc} = \frac{1}{6}$ .

4. True.  $\pi = (\frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{8}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2})$  is stationary if and only if  $\varepsilon = 0$ . For  $\varepsilon = 0$ , it follows directly from (c) since reversible implies stationary. For  $\varepsilon > 0$ ,

$$\pi_c = \frac{1}{4} \neq \frac{1}{4} - \frac{\varepsilon}{8} = \pi_b p_{bc} + \pi_c p_{cc} + \pi_d p_{dc}.$$

5. True.  $\pi = (\frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{2}{5})$  is stationary for all  $\varepsilon \ge 0$ . To this end, it suffices to check that  $\pi$  is a left eigenvector associated to the eigenvalue 1 for the matrix

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0\\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} - \varepsilon & \varepsilon & 0\\ 0 & \varepsilon & \frac{1}{3} - \varepsilon & \frac{2}{3}\\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix}.$$

#### Solution 5.2

(a) First, we note that  $X_0 \sim \delta^1$ . Second, we note that for all  $n \ge 0$  and for all k > 0 and  $\ell \in \mathbb{N}$ , it follows from the definition of  $X_{n+1}$  that

$$\mathbb{P}[X_{n+1} = \ell | X_n = k] = \mathbb{P}\left[\sum_{i=1}^k Z_i^{n+1} = \ell\right]$$
  
= 
$$\sum_{z_1, \dots, z_k \ge 0: \ z_1 + \dots + z_k = \ell} \mathbb{P}\left[Z_1 = z_1, \dots, Z_k = z_k\right]$$
  
= 
$$\sum_{z_1, \dots, z_k \ge 0: \ z_1 + \dots + z_k = \ell} \nu(z_1) \cdot \dots \cdot \nu(z_k)$$
  
=: 
$$p_{kl}.$$

For k = 0, we have  $\mathbb{P}[X_{n+1} = 0 | X_n = 0] = 1 =: p_{00}$  for all  $n \ge 1$ . Moreover, by the independence of the  $(Z_i^n)_{i,n\ge 1}$ 's, we have for all  $x_0,\ldots,x_{n+1}$ ,

 $\mathbb{P}[X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} | X_0 = x_0, \dots, X_n = x_n] = \mathbb{P}[X_{n+1} = x_{n+1} | X_n = x_n],$ 

whenever  $\mathbb{P}[X_0 = x_0, \dots, X_n = x_n] > 0$ . Consequently,

$$\mathbb{P}[X_0 = x_0, \dots, X_{n+1} = x_{n+1}] = \delta_{x_0}^1 \cdot p_{x_0 x_1} \cdot \dots \cdot p_{x_n x_{n+1}},$$

and so we have shown that X is a Markov chain  $MC(\delta^1, P)$  with the transition probability  $P = (p_{xy})_{x,y \in \mathbb{N}}$  defined above.

(b)  $C_0 = \{0\}$  is a closed communication class and  $C_1 = \{1, 2, ...\}$  is a communication class that is not closed. Since  $C_0 \cup C_1 = E$ , there are no other communication classes.

To see that  $C_0 = \{0\}$  is a closed communication class, it suffices to note that  $p_{00} = 1$ . To see that  $C_1 = \{1, 2, ...\}$  is a communication class that is not closed, we make the following observations: First, using  $\nu(0), \nu(1) > 0$ , we have  $p_{i,i-1} > 0$  for all  $i \ge 1$ , and so  $i \to i-1$ . Second, using  $\nu(0) + \nu(1) < 1$ , there exists  $k \ge 2$  such that  $\nu(k) > 0$ , and so for all  $i \ge 1$ ,  $p_{i,ki} > 0$  and  $i \to ki$ . Combining these observations,  $i \to j$  for all  $i \ge 1$  and  $j \ge 0$ .

- (c)  $C_0$  is recurrent since  $\mathbf{P}_0[H_0 = 1] = 1$ .  $C_1$  is transient, which follows from Corollary 2.14 in Section 2.10. More precisely, since for  $i \ge 1$ ,  $i \to 0$  but  $0 \not\to i$ , it follows that i is transient.
- (d) If  $\nu(0) = 0$  and  $\nu(1) < 1$ , then  $X_{n+1} \ge X_n$  almost surely for all  $n \ge 0$  and  $X_{n+1} > X_n$  with positive probability. Consequently, there are infinitely many communication classes:  $C_0 = \{0\}, C_1 = \{1\}, C_2 = \{2\}$ , etc. As before, the class  $C_0$  is recurrent and closed. The classes  $C_1, C_2, \ldots$  are transient and not closed.

#### Solution 5.3

(a) Since  $X_n$  can take values in  $\{0, \ldots, N\}$ , we set  $S := \{0, \ldots, N\}$ . On the one hand, for x < N, we set

$$p_{x,x+1} = 1 - \frac{x}{N},$$

as in order for  $X_n$  to grow by 1, the randomly selected particle must be from container B; this occurs with probability

$$\frac{\# \text{ of particles in } B}{\# \text{ of total particles}} = \frac{N-x}{N}.$$

On the other hand, for x > 0, the only other option is for the amount of particles in A to decrease by 1, which happens with probability  $\frac{x}{N}$ , and so

$$p_{x,x-1} = \frac{x}{N}.$$

Whenever  $|x-y| \neq 1$  for  $x, y \in S$ , we set  $p_{xy} = 0$ . It can easily be verified that  $P = (p_{xy})_{x,y \in S}$  defines a trasition probability.

(b) Our goal is to identify a stationary distribution; this would represent the equilibrium distribution of particles. To this end, we try to find a reversible distribution  $\pi$ . By Proposition 3.1, we know that it would also be stationary.

By definition of reversibility,  $\pi$  needs to satisfy for all  $x \in \{0, \dots, N-1\}$ ,

$$\pi_x p_{x,x+1} = \pi_{x+1} p_{x+1,x}.$$

We use this to calculate  $\pi_x$  explicitly and see if this defines a proper distribution.

$$\pi_{x+1} = \frac{\pi_x (1 - \frac{x}{N})}{\frac{x+1}{N}} = \pi_x \frac{N - x}{x+1} \stackrel{\text{(Induction)}}{=} \pi_0 \frac{N \cdots (N - x)}{(x+1)!}.$$
 (1)

Thus we find that  $\pi_x = \binom{N}{x} \pi_0$ . Since  $\pi$  should define a distribution, we must have  $\sum_{x \in S} \pi_x = 1$ . Hence we find

$$\pi_0 = \left(\sum_{x \in S} \binom{N}{x}\right)^{-1} = \frac{1}{2^N}.$$
(2)

Hence,

$$\pi_x = \binom{N}{x} \frac{1}{2^N},$$

the binomial distribution; which is (as we have shown) reversible, and thus stationary.

#### Solution 5.4

First, if  $\pi$  is reversible, then it follows directly from Proposition 3.1 that it is stationary.

Second, we assume that  $\pi$  is stationary and aim to prove that it is reversible. In the case p = q = 1, every distribution  $\pi$  is trivially reversible and stationary. In the case  $p \neq 1$  or  $q \neq 1$ , we deduce from  $\pi P = \pi$  that

$$\pi_1(1-p) = \pi_2(1-q).$$

Plugging in  $\pi_2 = 1 - \pi_1$ , we get

$$1 - q = \pi_1(2 - p - q) \quad \iff \quad \pi_1 = \frac{1 - q}{2 - p - q}.$$

Hence,

$$(\pi_1, \pi_2) = \left(\frac{1-q}{2-p-q}, \frac{1-p}{2-p-q}\right),$$

which is reversible since  $\pi_1 p_{12} = \pi_2 p_{21}$ .

#### Solution 5.5

(a) We check that the two properties in the definition of transition probability are satisfied. For every  $x, y \in S$ , the definition directly implies  $\hat{p}_{xy} \ge 0$ . For every  $x \in S$  with  $\pi(x) = 0$ ,

$$\sum_{y \in S} \hat{p}_{xy} = \sum_{y \in S} \mathbf{1}_{x=y} = 1,$$

and for every  $x \in S$  with  $\pi(x) > 0$ ,

$$\sum_{y \in S} \hat{p}_{xy} = \sum_{y \in S} \frac{\pi(y) p_{yx}}{\pi(x)} = \frac{\pi(x)}{\pi(x)} = 1$$

by stationarity of  $\pi$ .

(b) Let  $f, g \in L^{\infty}(S)$ .

$$\begin{split} \langle Pf,g \rangle_{\pi} &= \sum_{x \in S} (Pf)(x) \, g(x) \, \pi(x) = \sum_{x,y \in S} \pi(x) \, p_{xy} \, f(y) \, g(x) \\ &= \sum_{x,y \in S} \pi(y) \, \hat{p}_{yx} \, f(y) \, g(x) = \sum_{y \in S} f(y) \, (\hat{P}g)(y) \, \pi(y) = \langle f, \hat{P}g \rangle_{\pi} \end{split}$$

In the third equality, we have used that the definition of  $\hat{P}$  implies  $\pi(x)p_{xy} = \pi(y)\hat{p}_{yx}$  for all  $x, y \in S$ . If  $\pi(y) > 0$ , this is clear. If  $\pi(y) = 0$ , we must have  $\pi(x) = 0$  or  $p_{xy} = 0$  by stationarity of  $\pi$ .

(c) If  $\pi$  is reversible, then  $\pi(y)\hat{p}_{yx} = \pi(x)p_{xy} = \pi(y)p_{yx}$ , and so the same calculation as in part (b) shows that  $\langle Pf, g \rangle_{\pi} = \langle f, Pg \rangle_{\pi}$ , i.e. *P* is self-adjoint.

Fix arbitrary  $x, y \in S$  and set  $f := \delta_x$  and  $g := \delta_y$ . If P is self-adjoint, then

$$\pi(y)p_{yx} = \langle Pf, g \rangle_{\pi} = \langle f, Pg \rangle_{\pi} = \pi(x)p_{xy},$$

and so p is reversible.