## MATH4240: Stochastic Processes Tutorial 6

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# Uniqueness of Stationary Distribution

**Theorem 1.** Let *P* be a stochastic  $n \times n$  matrix over a finite state space *S*. If *P* satisfies the following assumptions:

**Assumption 1.** The left eigenvector w.r.t. 1 can be chosen to have all nonnegative entries.

**Assumption 2.** The eigenvalue 1 is a simple root of the characteristic polynomial of P.

Assumption 3. Except 1, all other eigenvalues have moduli less than 1.

Then, the chain has a unique stationary distribution  $\pi$  and

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} P^n = \begin{pmatrix} \pi \\ \pi \\ \vdots \\ \pi \end{pmatrix}$$

**Theorem 2.** An irreducible positive-recurrent  $(m_x < \infty)$  Markov chain has a unique stationary distribution  $\pi$ , given by

$$\pi(x)=\frac{1}{m_x},$$

where  $x \in S$  and  $m_x = E_x(T_x) < \infty$ .

In particular, every irreducible finite Markov chain has a unique stationary distribution.

## Examples on Stationary Distribution

**Example 1** :  $S = \{0, 1, 2, ...\}$ ,

$$P(x, x+1) = p$$
 and  $P(x, 0) = 1 - p$ ,  $0 .$ 

Suppose that the stationary distribution  $\pi$  exists. Then  $\pi P = \pi$  and  $\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \pi(x) = 1$  imply that

$$\pi(0) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \pi(x) P(x,0) = (1-p) \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \pi(x) = 1-p,$$
  

$$\pi(1) = \pi(0) P(0,1) = (1-p)p,$$
  

$$\pi(2) = \pi(1) P(1,2) = (1-p)p^2,$$
  
....

By induction,  $\pi(x) = (1 - p)p^x$ ,  $x \ge 0$ .

On the other hand, we check directly that above  $\pi$  satisfies both  $\sum_{x=0}^{\infty} \pi(x) = 1$  and  $\pi(x) = \sum_{y=0}^{\infty} \pi(y)P(y,x)$ ,  $x \ge 0$ . Hence  $\pi = (1 - p, (1 - p)p, (1 - p)p^2, \cdots)$  is the unique (why unique?) stationary distribution.

## Examples on Stationary Distribution

**Example 2**:  $S = \{1, 2, ..., d\}$ ,  $d < \infty$ . The transition function P is *doubly stochastic*, that is to say,

$$\sum_{x\in\mathcal{S}}P(x,y)=1.$$

Assume the chain is irreducible. Since all states are in a finite irreducible closed set, the stationary distribution is unique.

Let  $\pi(x) = \frac{1}{d}$  for all  $x \in S$ . Then it is a probability vector since  $\sum_{x=1}^{d} \pi(x) = 1$ . Moreover, for all  $y \in S$ ,

$$\sum_{x=1}^{d} \pi(x) P(x, y) = \sum_{x=1}^{d} \frac{1}{d} P(x, y) = \frac{1}{d} = \pi(y).$$

This shows  $\pi$  is the unique stationary distribution we want.

**Example 3**:  $S = A \cup B$ , where  $A = \{1, 2, \dots, c\}$  and  $B = \{c + 1, c + 2, \dots, c + d\}$ . The transition probability

$$P(x,y) = \begin{cases} 1/d, & x \in A \text{ and } y \in B, \\ 1/c, & x \in B \text{ and } y \in A, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Since the chain is irreducible and finite, it has a unique stationary distribution  $\pi$ .

### For $y \in A$ , we have

$$\pi(y) = (\pi P)(y) = \sum_{x \in B} \pi(x) P(x, y) = \frac{1}{c} \sum_{x \in B} \pi(x),$$

which implies

$$\sum_{y\in A} \pi(y) = \sum_{y\in A} \frac{1}{c} \sum_{x\in B} \pi(x) = \sum_{x\in B} \pi(x).$$

Note that  $\sum_{x \in A \cup B} \pi(x) = 1$ . Hence  $\sum_{y \in A} \pi(y) = \sum_{x \in B} \pi(x) = 1/2$ . Thus for any  $y \in A$ ,  $\pi(y) = \frac{1}{2c}$ .

#### For $z \in B$ , we have

$$\pi(z) = (\pi P)(z) = \sum_{x \in A} \pi(x) P(x, z) = \frac{1}{d} \sum_{x \in A} \pi(x) = \frac{1}{2d}.$$

Therefore, the stationary distribution is

$$\pi(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2c}, & x \in A, \\ \frac{1}{2d}, & x \in B. \end{cases}$$

**Example 4.**  $S = \{1, 2, 3, 4\}$ ,

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2/3 & 0 & 0 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Observe that there are two '3-circles':  $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 1$  and  $2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 4 \rightarrow 2$ . Hence any two states can communicate, so the chain is irreducible.

Let  $\pi = (\pi(1), \pi(2), \pi(3), \pi(4))$  be the stationary distribution. Then  $\pi P = \pi$  implies that

$$\begin{cases} (2/3)\pi(3) = \pi(1), \\ \pi(1) + \pi(4) = \pi(2), \\ \pi(2) = \pi(3), \\ (1/3)\pi(3) = \pi(4). \end{cases}$$

Together with  $\pi(1) + \pi(2) + \pi(3) + \pi(4) = 1$ , we get  $\pi = (\pi(1), \pi(2), \pi(3), \pi(4)) = (2/9, 1/3, 1/3, 1/9).$ 

#### Example 5. note that

$$P^{2} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2/3 & 0 & 0 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, P^{3} = \begin{pmatrix} 2/3 & 0 & 0 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2/3 & 0 & 0 & 1/3 \end{pmatrix},$$
$$P^{4} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2/3 & 0 & 0 & 1/3 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = P.$$

Inductively we have  $P^{3k-2} = P$ ,  $P^{3k-1} = P^2$ , and  $P^{3k} = P^3$  for all  $k \ge 1$ . Hence the limit  $\lim_{k\to\infty} P^k$  does not exists even the chain has the unique stationary distribution. Example 6. Let a random walk defined on integer with

$$P(i, i+1) = P(i, i-1) = \frac{1}{2}$$

for all  $i \in \mathbb{Z}$ . It is an irreducible Markov chain by tutorial 4, but it does not have any stationary distributions.

Suppose not. Let  $\pi$  be a stationary distribution. Since  $\sum_{x \in S} \pi(x) = 1$ , there exists some  $i \in \mathbb{Z}$  such that  $\pi(i) > 0$ . Since

$$\pi(i) = (\pi P)(i) = \sum_{x \in \mathbb{Z}} \pi(x) P(x, i) = \frac{1}{2} \pi(i-1) + \frac{1}{2} \pi(i+1),$$

Then, we have either  $\pi(i+1) \ge \pi(i)$  or  $\pi(i-1) \ge \pi(i)$ . Without loss of generality, suppose  $\pi(i+1) \ge \pi(i)$ .

# Examples on Stationary Distribution

If  $\pi(i+1) = \pi(i)$ , since  $\pi P = \pi$ , we have  $\pi(i+1) = \frac{1}{2}\pi(i) + \frac{1}{2}\pi(i+2)$ . Then,  $\pi(i+2) = \pi(i+1) = \pi(1)$ . By induction, we have  $\pi(i+k) = \pi(i) > 0$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ . In particular,

$$\sum_{x\in\mathcal{S}}\pi(x)\geq\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\pi(i+k)=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\pi(i)=\infty,$$

which is a contradiction.

Suppose  $\pi(i+1) > \pi(i)$ , then by similar argument, we have  $\pi(i+2) > \pi(i+1) > \pi(i)$ . Again, we have

$$\sum_{x\in\mathbb{Z}}\pi(x)\geq\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\pi(i+k)>\sum_{k=0}^{\infty}\pi(i)=\infty,$$

which is again a contradiction. Thus, we do not have stationary distribution.

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## Bounded Convergence Theorem

The following theorem appearing in analysis course provides a device to switch the order of limit and infinite sum effectively. We will see there is an application on the existence and uniqueness of stationary distribution.

#### Theorem. Suppose that

(i) the sequence of functions on positive integers,  $a_n(k)$ ,  $k \ge 1$ , is *uniformly bounded*, i.e., there exists K > 0 such that

$$|a_n(k)| \leq K, \quad \forall n, k \geq 1;$$

(ii) 
$$\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n(k) = a(k)$$
 for any  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ ;  
(iii)  $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} p_k = 1$  (or  $< \infty$ ), and  $p_k \ge 0$  for any  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ .  
Then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty}\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}a_n(k)p_k=\sum_{k=1}^{\infty}a(k)p_k.$$
 (1)

**Proof.** Since  $|a_n(k)| \le K$  and  $\lim_{n \to \infty} a_n(k) = a(k)$ ,  $|a(k)| \le K$ ,  $\forall k \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ .

For any  $\varepsilon > 0$ , there exists M such that

$$\sum_{k=M+1}^{\infty} p_k < \varepsilon/4K.$$

For any k, there exists  $N(k) \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  such that for any n > N(k),

$$|a_n(k) - a(k)| < \varepsilon/2.$$

# Bounded Convergence Theorem

Set 
$$N = \max_{1 \le k \le M} \{N(k)\}$$
, then for any  $n > N$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_n(k) p_k - \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a(k) p_k \right| \\ &= \left| \sum_{k=1}^{M} a_n(k) p_k + \sum_{k=M+1}^{\infty} a_n(k) p_k - \sum_{k=1}^{M} a(k) p_k - \sum_{k=M+1}^{\infty} a(k) p_k \right| \\ &\leq \sum_{k=1}^{M} |a_n(k) - a(k)| p_k + \sum_{k=M+1}^{\infty} |a_n(k)| p_k + \sum_{k=M+1}^{\infty} |a(k)| p_k \\ &\leq \sum_{k=1}^{M} (\varepsilon/2) p_k + \sum_{k=M+1}^{\infty} K p_k + \sum_{k=M+1}^{\infty} K p_k \\ &< \varepsilon/2 + (\varepsilon/4K) K + (\varepsilon/4K) K = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

That implies the formula (1).