THE CHINESE UNIVERSITY OF HONG KONG

Department of Mathematics MATH4240 - Stochastic Processes - 2020/21 Term 2

Homework 4 Due: 12th March 2021

All questions are selected from the textbook. Please submit online through Blackboard your answers to all questions. The late submission will not be accepted. Reference solutions will be provided after grading.

Exercises (Page 80): 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10

1. Solution. Obviously the MC is finite and irreducible, hence it is positive recurrent. Moreover, the chain is aperiodic, hence it has a unique stationary distribution π . Let $\pi = (\pi(0), \pi(1), \pi(2))$, then $\pi P = \pi$ implies that

$$\begin{cases} 0.4\pi(0) + 0.3\pi(1) + 0.2\pi(2) = \pi(0), \\ 0.4\pi(0) + 0.4\pi(1) + 0.4\pi(2) = \pi(1), \\ 0.2\pi(0) + 0.3\pi(1) + 0.4\pi(2) = \pi(2). \end{cases}$$

Together with $\pi(0) + \pi(1) + \pi(2) = 1$, we get $\pi = (\pi(0), \pi(1), \pi(2)) = (0.3, 0.4, 0.3)$.

2. Proof. Suppose that the chain has a stationary distribution π , then it satisfies $\pi P = \pi$, that is, for any $y \in \mathcal{S}$,

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

Also one can check that $\pi(y) = \alpha_y, y \in \mathcal{S}$ satisfies

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

Hence $\pi(y) = \alpha_y, y \in \mathcal{S}$ is the unique stationary distribution.

3. Proof. Note that π satisfies $\pi P^m = \pi$ for any positive integer m. Since x leads to y, there is a positive integer n such that $P^n(x,y) > 0$. Hence

$$\pi(y) = \sum_{z \in \mathcal{S}} \pi(z) P^n(z, y) \ge \pi(x) P^n(x, y) > 0.$$

4. Proof. Note that π satisfies $\pi P = \pi$. Hence

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

5. Proof. (a) Clearly $\pi_{\alpha}(x) \geq 0$ for $x \in \mathcal{S}$ and

$$\sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \pi_{\alpha}(x) = (1 - \alpha) \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \pi_0(x) + \alpha \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \pi_1(x) = (1 - \alpha) + \alpha = 1.$$

Moreover, we have for any $y \in \mathcal{S}$,

$$(\pi_{\alpha}P)(y) = \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \pi_{\alpha}(x)P(x,y)$$

$$= \sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} ((1-\alpha)\pi_0(x) + \alpha\pi_1(x))P(x,y)$$

$$= (1-\alpha)\sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \pi_0(x)P(x,y) + \alpha\sum_{x \in \mathcal{S}} \pi_1(x)P(x,y)$$

$$= (1-\alpha)\pi_0(y) + \alpha\pi_1(y) = \pi_{\alpha}(y).$$

Hence π_{α} is a stationary distribution.

(b) Since π_0 and π_1 are distinct, we can choose $x_0 \in \mathcal{S}$ such that $\pi_0(x_0) \neq \pi_1(x_0)$. If $\alpha \neq \beta \in [0, 1]$, then

$$\pi_{\alpha}(x_0) - \pi_{\beta}(x_0) = (\alpha - \beta)(\pi_1(x_0) - \pi_0(x_0)) \neq 0.$$

Hence $\pi_{\alpha} \neq \pi_{\beta}$.

6. Solution. The transition matrix is given by

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ q & 0 & p & 0 & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & q & 0 & p & 0 & \cdots \\ 0 & 0 & q & 0 & p & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}.$$

Suppose that the stationary distribution π exists. Then by $\pi P = \pi$,

$$\pi(1)q = \pi(0) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \pi(1) = \frac{1}{q}\pi(0),$$

$$\pi(0) + \pi(2)q = \pi(1) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \pi(2) = \frac{\pi(1) - \pi(0)}{q} = \frac{p}{q^2}\pi(0),$$

$$\pi(1)p + \pi(3)q = \pi(2) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \pi(2) = \frac{\pi(2) - p\pi(1)}{q} = \frac{p^2}{q^3}\pi(0),$$

By induction, $\pi(n) = \frac{\pi(0)}{p} \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^n$, $n \ge 1$.

If $p \ge q$ (i.e. $p \ge 1/2$), then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \pi(n) \ge \frac{1}{p} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \pi(0) = \infty$. Thus, the stationary distribution does not exist.

On the other hand, if p < q (i.e. p < 1/2), we have

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \pi(n) = \left(1 + \frac{1}{p} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \left(\frac{p}{q}\right)^n\right) \pi(0) = \frac{2(1-p)}{1-2p} \pi(0).$$

Hence the unique stationary disrtibution is given by

$$\pi(0) = \frac{1-2p}{2(1-p)}, \quad \pi(n) = \frac{1-2p}{2(1-p)p} \left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right)^n, n \ge 1.$$

7. Solution. (a) The transition matrix is given by

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & \cdots & d-2 & d-1 & d \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{d} & 0 & \frac{d-1}{d} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{2}{d} & 0 & \frac{d-2}{d} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{3}{d} & 0 & \frac{d-3}{d} & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \frac{d-1}{d} & 0 & \frac{1}{d} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Let π be the stationary distribution. Then by $\pi P = \pi$,

$$\pi(1)\frac{1}{d} = \pi(0) \Rightarrow \pi(1) = d\pi(0) = {d \choose 1}\pi(0),$$

$$\pi(0) + \pi(2)\frac{2}{d} = \pi(1) \Rightarrow \pi(2) = \frac{d(d-1)\pi(0)}{2} = {d \choose 2}\pi(0),$$

$$\pi(1)\frac{d-1}{d} + \pi(3)\frac{3}{d} = \pi(2) \Rightarrow \pi(3) = \frac{d(d-1)(d-2)\pi(0)}{6} = {d \choose 3}\pi(0),$$

By induction, $\pi(n) = \binom{d}{n}\pi(0)$, $0 \le n \le d$. Together with $\sum_{n=0}^{d}\pi(n) = 1$, the stationary distribution must be

$$\pi(n) = \frac{\binom{d}{n}}{2^d}, \quad 0 \le n \le d.$$

(b) The mean of this distribution is given by

$$\sum_{x=0}^{d} x \frac{\binom{d}{x}}{2^d} = \frac{1}{2^d} \sum_{x=0}^{d} x \binom{d}{x} = \frac{d}{2^d} \sum_{x=1}^{d} \binom{d-1}{x-1} = \frac{d}{2^d} 2^{d-1} = \frac{d}{2}.$$

Note that

$$\sum_{x=0}^{d} x^{2} \binom{d}{x} = \sum_{x=2}^{d} x(x-1) \binom{d}{x} + \sum_{x=1}^{d} x \binom{d}{x}$$
$$= d(d-1) \sum_{x=2}^{d} \binom{d-2}{x-2} + d \sum_{x=1}^{d} \binom{d-1}{x-1}$$
$$= d(d-1)2^{d-2} + d2^{d-1}.$$

Hence, the variance is given by

$$\sum_{x=0}^{d} x^2 \frac{\binom{d}{x}}{2^d} - \left(\sum_{x=0}^{d} x \frac{\binom{d}{x}}{2^d}\right)^2 = \frac{d(d-1)}{4} + \frac{d}{2} - \left(\frac{d}{2}\right)^2 = \frac{d}{4}.$$

8. Proof. The transition matrix is given by

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & \cdots & d-2 & d-1 & d \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2d} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{d-1}{2d} & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{2}{2d} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{d-2}{2d} & 0 & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{3}{2d} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{d-3}{2d} & \cdots & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \frac{d-1}{2d} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2d} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

Let π be the stationary distribution. Then by $\pi P = \pi$,

$$\pi(1)\frac{1}{2d} = \frac{\pi(0)}{2} \Rightarrow \pi(1) = d\pi(0) = {d \choose 1}\pi(0),$$

$$\frac{\pi(0)}{2} + \pi(2)\frac{2}{2d} = \frac{\pi(1)}{2} \Rightarrow \pi(2) = \frac{d(d-1)\pi(0)}{2} = {d \choose 2}\pi(0),$$

$$\pi(1)\frac{d-1}{2d} + \pi(3)\frac{3}{2d} = \frac{\pi(2)}{2} \Rightarrow \pi(3) = \frac{d(d-1)(d-2)\pi(0)}{6} = {d \choose 3}\pi(0),$$
...

By induction, $\pi(n) = \binom{d}{n}\pi(0)$, $0 \le n \le d$. Together with $\sum_{n=0}^{d}\pi(n) = 1$, the stationary distribution must be

$$\pi(n) = \frac{\binom{d}{n}}{2^d}, \quad 0 \le n \le d.$$

The result is the same as the one of the original Ehrenfest chain.

9. Solution. Let π be the stationary distribution. The transition function is given by

$$P(x,y) = \begin{cases} q_x = \left(\frac{x}{d}\right)^2, & \text{if } y = x - 1, x \neq 0; \\ r_x = 2\left(\frac{x}{d}\right)\left(\frac{d-x}{d}\right), & \text{if } y = x; \\ p_x = \left(\frac{d-x}{d}\right)^2, & \text{if } y = x + 1, x \neq d; \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

We can apply the result in page 51 of the textbook, for $x \ge 1$,

$$\pi_x = \frac{p_0 \cdots p_{x-1}}{q_1 \cdots q_x} = \frac{d^2(d-1)^2 \cdots (d-x+1)^2}{(x!)^2} = {\binom{d}{x}}^2,$$

and set $\pi_0 = 1 = \binom{d}{0}$. By the hint,

$$\pi(0) = \frac{1}{\sum_{x=0}^{d} \pi_x} = \frac{1}{\binom{2d}{d}} = \frac{\binom{d}{0}^2}{\binom{2d}{d}}.$$

Hence
$$\pi(x) = \pi_x \pi(0) = \frac{\binom{d}{x}^2}{\binom{2d}{d}}, \ 0 \le x \le d.$$

10. Proof. Since X_0 has the stationary distribution π , X_1 also has the stationary distribution π . Note that

$$P(X_0 = y \mid X_1 = x) = \frac{P(X_0 = y, X_1 = x)}{P(X_1 = x)} = \frac{\pi(y)P(y, x)}{\pi(x)}.$$

It suffices to show that for any $x, y \in \mathcal{S}$, $\pi(x)P(x,y) = \pi(y)P(y,x)$. For y = x or $|y-x| \geq 2$, the equation is trivial. If y = x + 1, then by (9),

$$\pi(x)P(x,x+1) = \pi(0)\pi_x p_x = \pi(0)\frac{p_0\cdots p_{x-1}p_x}{q_1\cdots q_x} = \pi(0)\pi_{x+1}q_{x+1} = \pi(x+1)P(x+1,x).$$

If y = x - 1, $x \ge 1$, then by (9),

$$\pi(x)P(x,x-1) = \pi(0)\pi_x q_x = \pi(0)\frac{p_0\cdots p_{x-1}}{q_1\cdots q_{x-1}} = \pi(0)\pi_{x-1}p_{x-1} = \pi(x-1)P(x-1,x).$$