

# Lecture 27

Markov Chains

and a Few Paradoxes.

## Summary of Lecture 26

- A Markov Chain is a process that move from state to state randomly and only remembers its current state.

Ingredients:

- $\mathcal{X}$  - Finite state space, usually  $\mathcal{X} = \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ .
- $\pi_0$  - the initial distribution.
- $P(i, j)$  - Prob. to move from state  $i$  to  $j$ .

This defines a Markov Chain: sequence of r.v.s  $X_0, X_1, X_2, \dots$

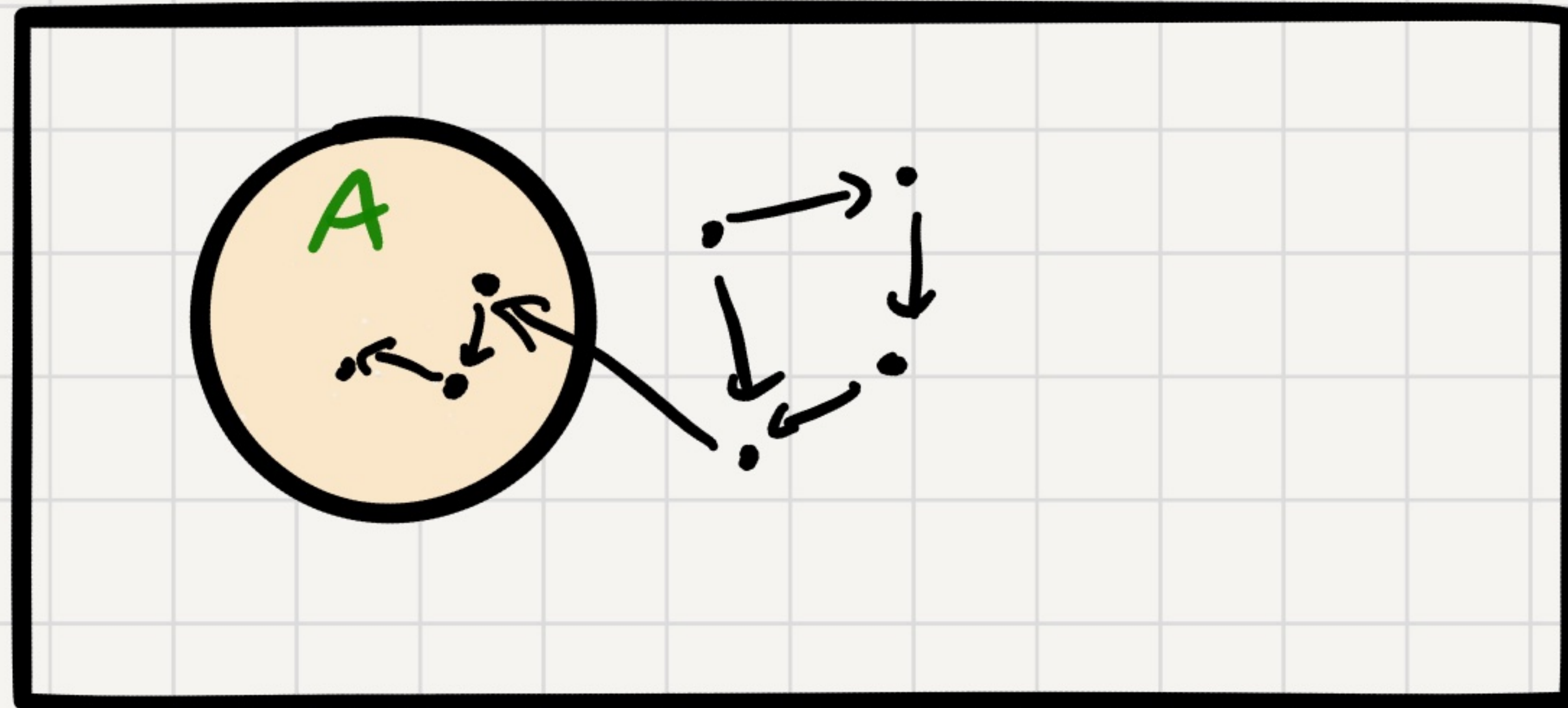
$$\Pr[X_0 = i] = \pi_0(i)$$

$$\Pr[X_{n+1} = j \mid X_n = i, X_{n-1}, \dots, X_1, X_0] = P(i, j).$$

$\pi_n$  : Prob. dist of  $X_n$ .

$$\pi_n = \pi_0 \cdot P^n$$

# First Step Equations



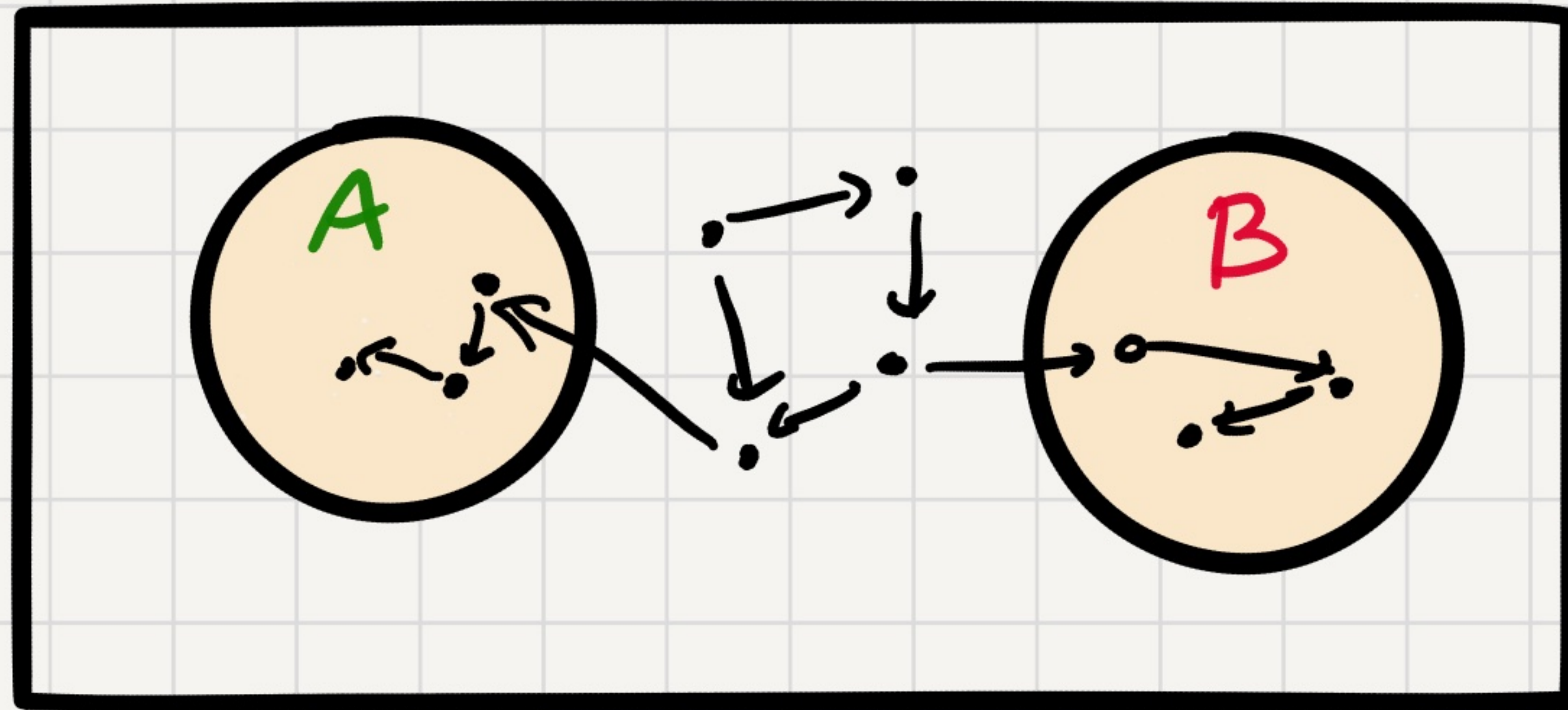
Let  $\{X_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be a MC on  $X$   $A \subseteq X$

$\beta(i)$  = expected time to reach  $A$  starting from  $i$ .

$\beta(i) = 0$  for  $i \in A$

$\beta(i) = 1 + \sum_j P(i,j) \beta(j)$  for  $i \notin A$ .

# First Step Equations



Let  $\{X_n\}_{n=0}^{\infty}$  be a MC on  $\mathcal{X}$   $A, B \subseteq \mathcal{X}$   
 $A \cap B$  disjoint.

$\alpha(i) = \Pr[\text{reaching } A \text{ before } B, \text{ starting from } i]$

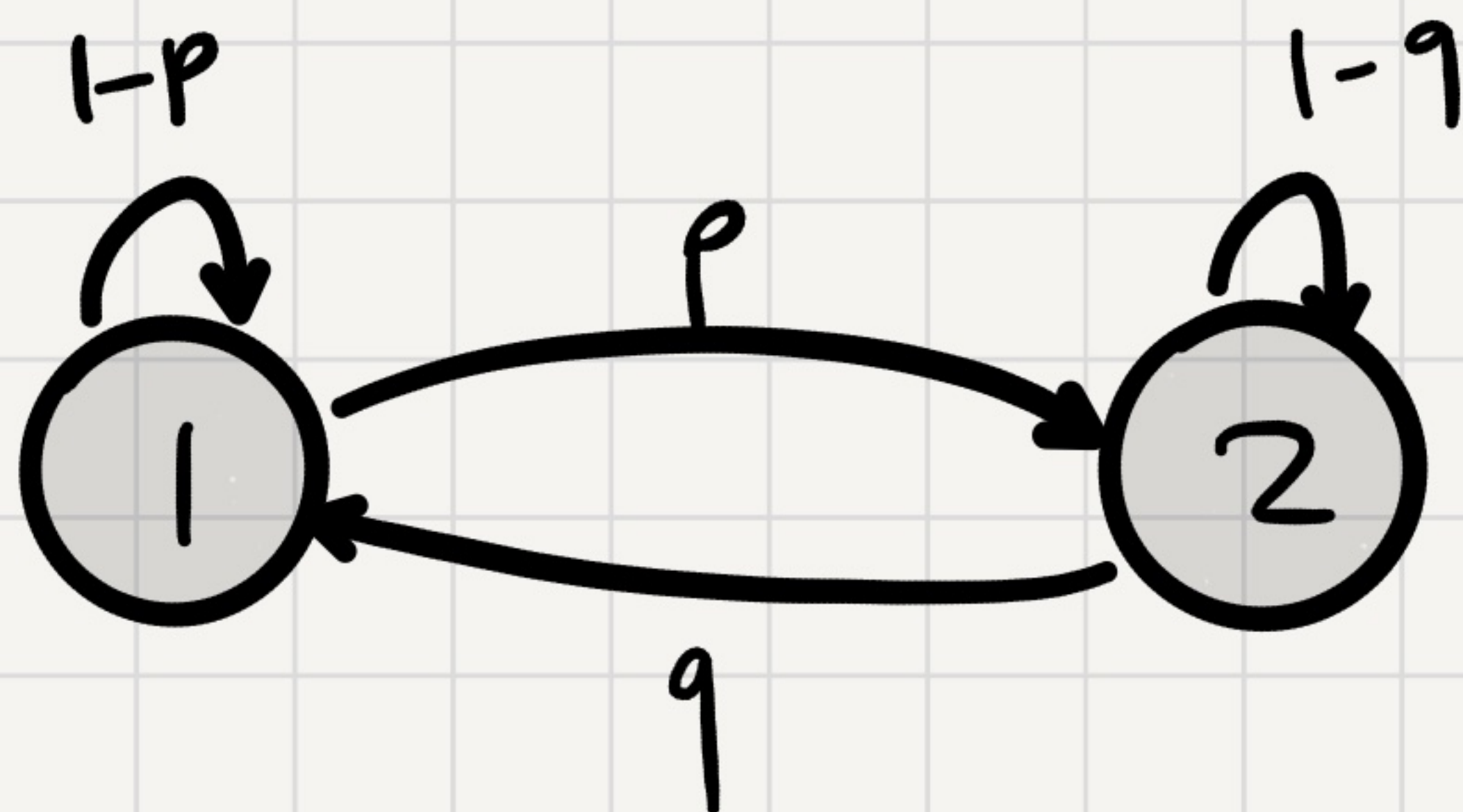
$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \alpha(i) = 0 \quad \text{for } i \in B \\ \alpha(i) = 1 \quad \text{for } i \in A \\ \alpha(i) = \sum_j P(i,j) \cdot \alpha(j) \quad \text{for } i \notin A \cup B. \end{array} \right.$$

Definition:

A distribution  $\pi$  over  $\mathcal{X}$  is stationary (aka invariant) if  $\pi = \pi P$ .

If  $\pi_0$  is stationary then  $\forall n \quad \pi_n = \pi_0$ .

## Stationary Distribution-Example



$\pi$  is stationary iff  $(\pi(1) \ \pi(2)) = (\pi(1) \ \pi(2)) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1-p & p \\ q & 1-q \end{pmatrix}$

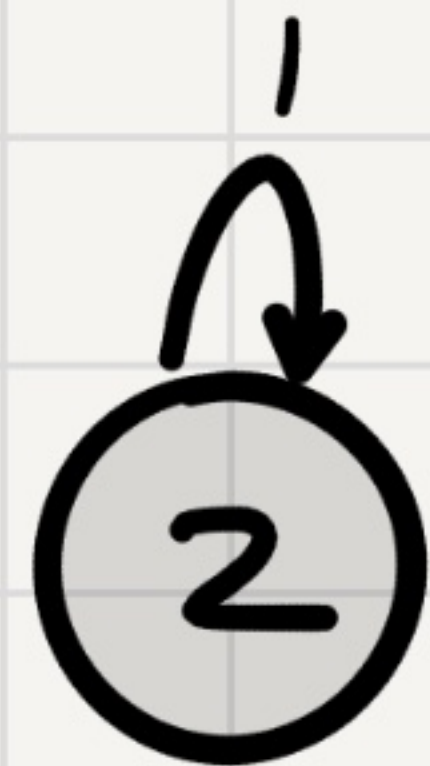
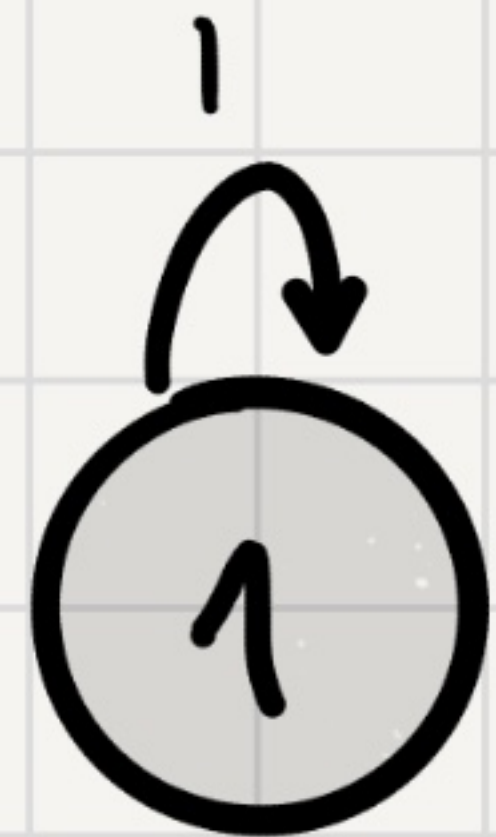
$$\pi(1) = \pi(1) \cdot (1-p) + \pi(2) \cdot q \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \pi(1) \cdot p = \pi(2) \cdot q$$

$$\pi(2) = \pi(1) \cdot p + \pi(2) \cdot (1-q) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \pi(1) \cdot p = \pi(2) \cdot q$$

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

Solution:  $\pi = \left[ \frac{q}{p+q}, \frac{p}{p+q} \right]$

## Stationary Distributions - Example 2



Which distributions are stationary?

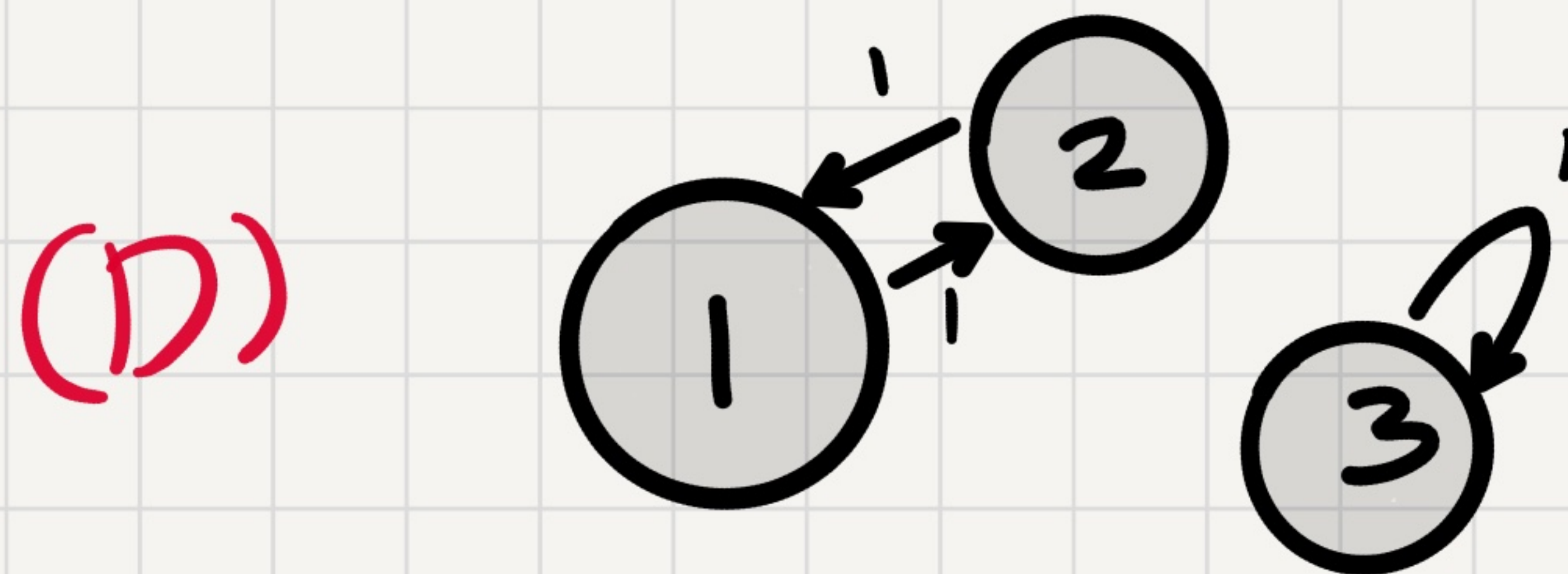
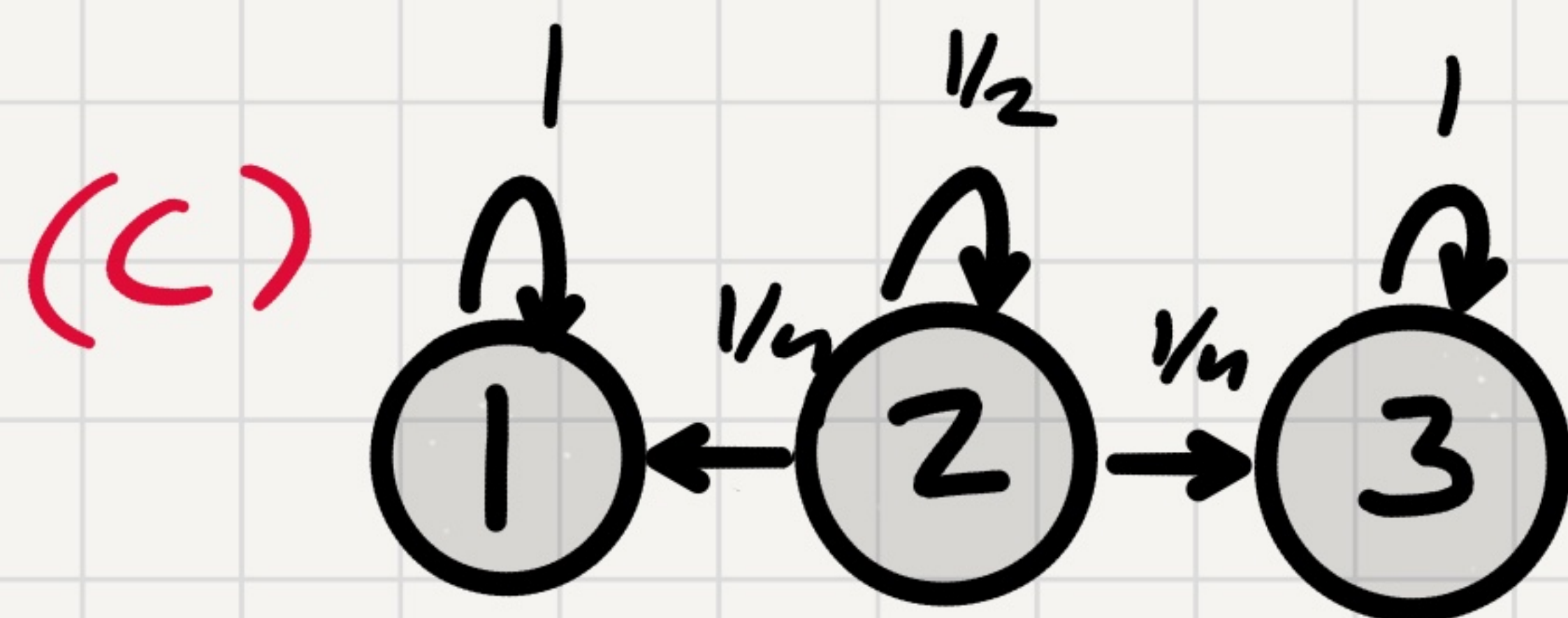
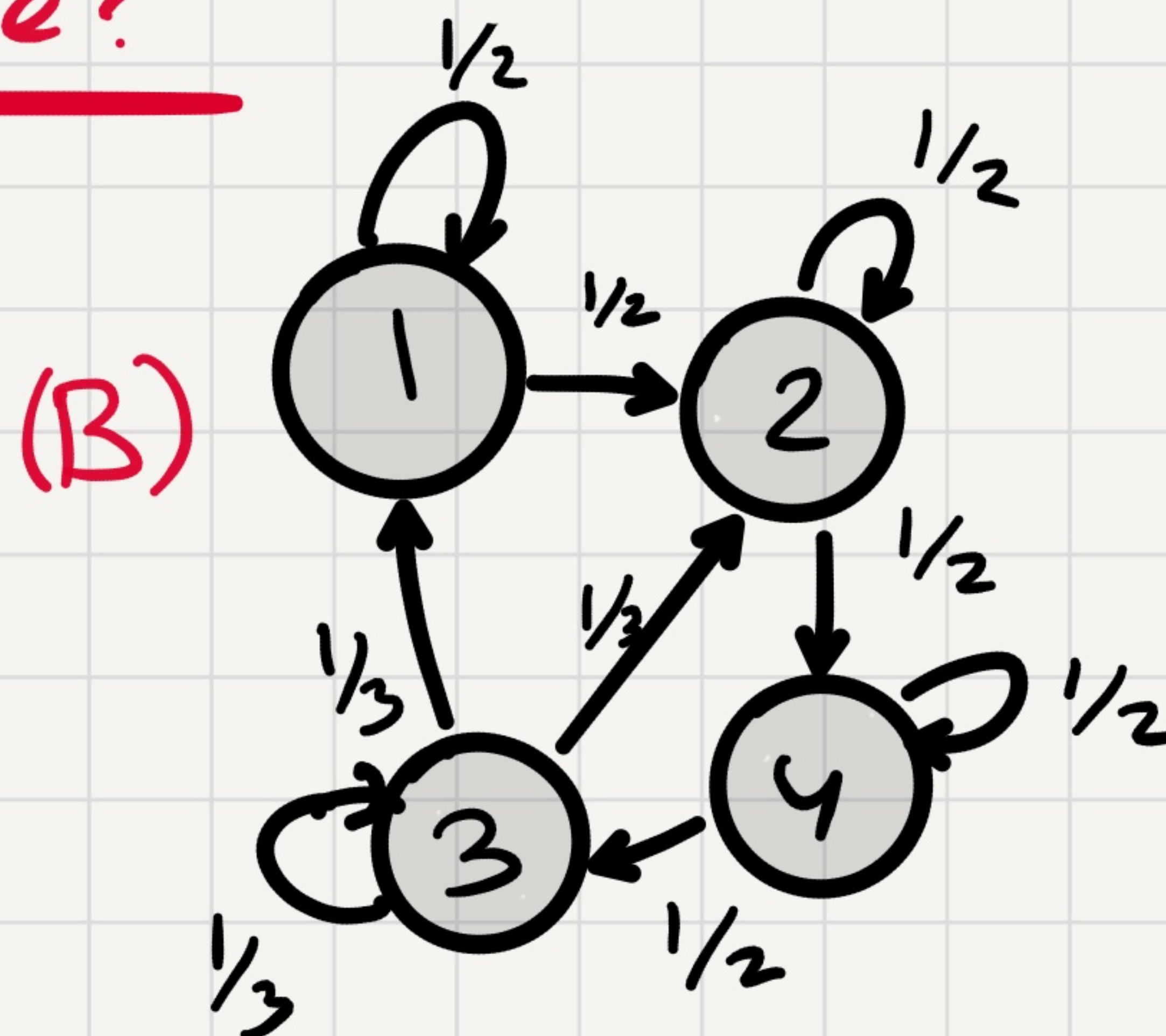
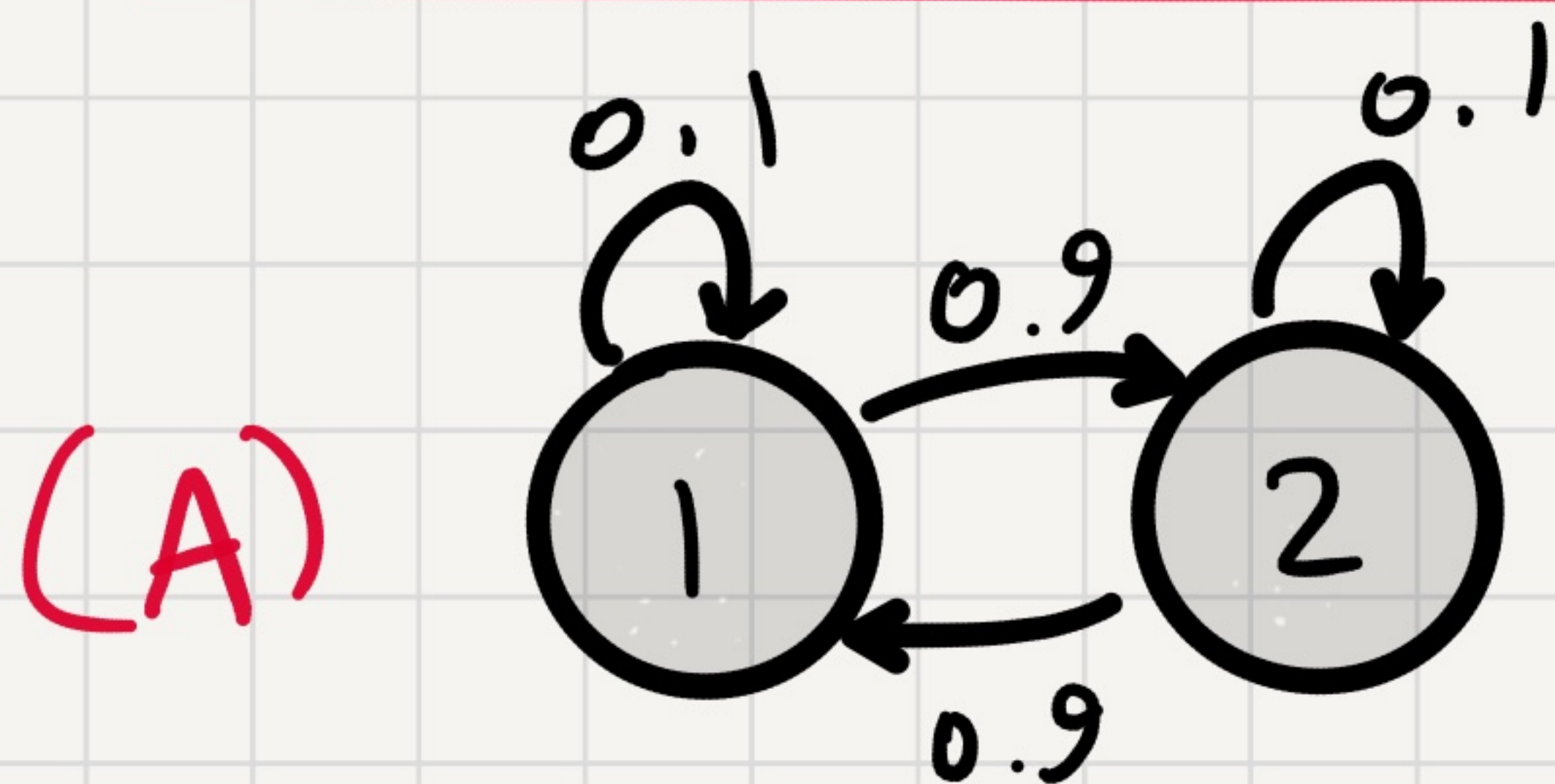
all of them.

$$\forall \pi \quad \pi = \pi \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Irreducible Markov Chains

A MC is irreducible if you can go from every state  $i$  to every state  $j$  (possibly in multiple steps).

Which MC are irreducible?





## Theorem:

Any finite irreducible MC has one and only one stationary distribution.

## Theorem 2: (Long Term Fraction of Time in States)

If  $(X_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  is an irreducible MC on  $\{1, \dots, k\}$

with stationary distribution  $\pi$ .

Then, for any start dist.  $\pi_0$ , for all  $i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} \mathbb{1}_{\{X_m = i\}} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \pi(i).$$

Intuition: Start at a dist.  $\pi_0$  and suppose

the limits exist. Denote by

In time  $n$ , the MC is at state  $i$ .

$$f(i) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} \underbrace{1 \{X_m = i\}}_{\text{}}.$$

What's the frac. of times we visit  $i$ ?

$f(i)$

What's the frac. of times we visit  $i$  and then move to  $j$ ?

$f(i) \cdot P(i,j)$

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$$f(i) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=0}^{n-1} \mathbb{1}_{\{X_m = i\}}$$

What's the frac. of times we visit  $i$ ?  $f(i)$   $f(j)$

What's the frac. of times we visit  $i$  and then move to  $j$ ?

$f(i) \cdot P(i,j)$

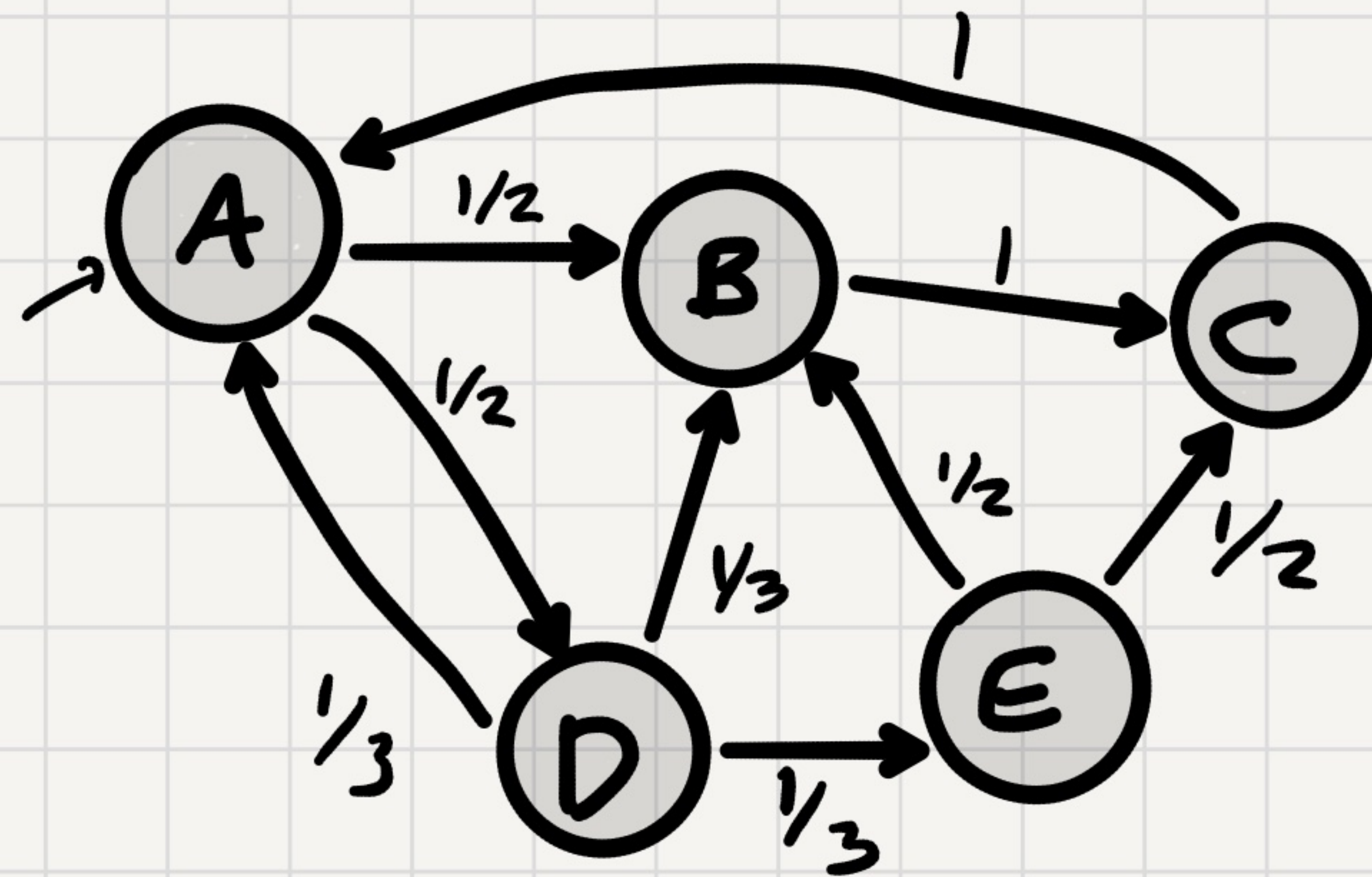
$$\text{Frac. of times we're at } j = \sum_i f(i) \cdot P(i,j)$$

$\forall j$   $f(j) = \sum_i f(i) \cdot P(i,j)$ . Hence,  $f$  is a stationary dist.

In matrix-vector form  $\vec{f} = \vec{f} \cdot P$ .

Let's see a Simulation:

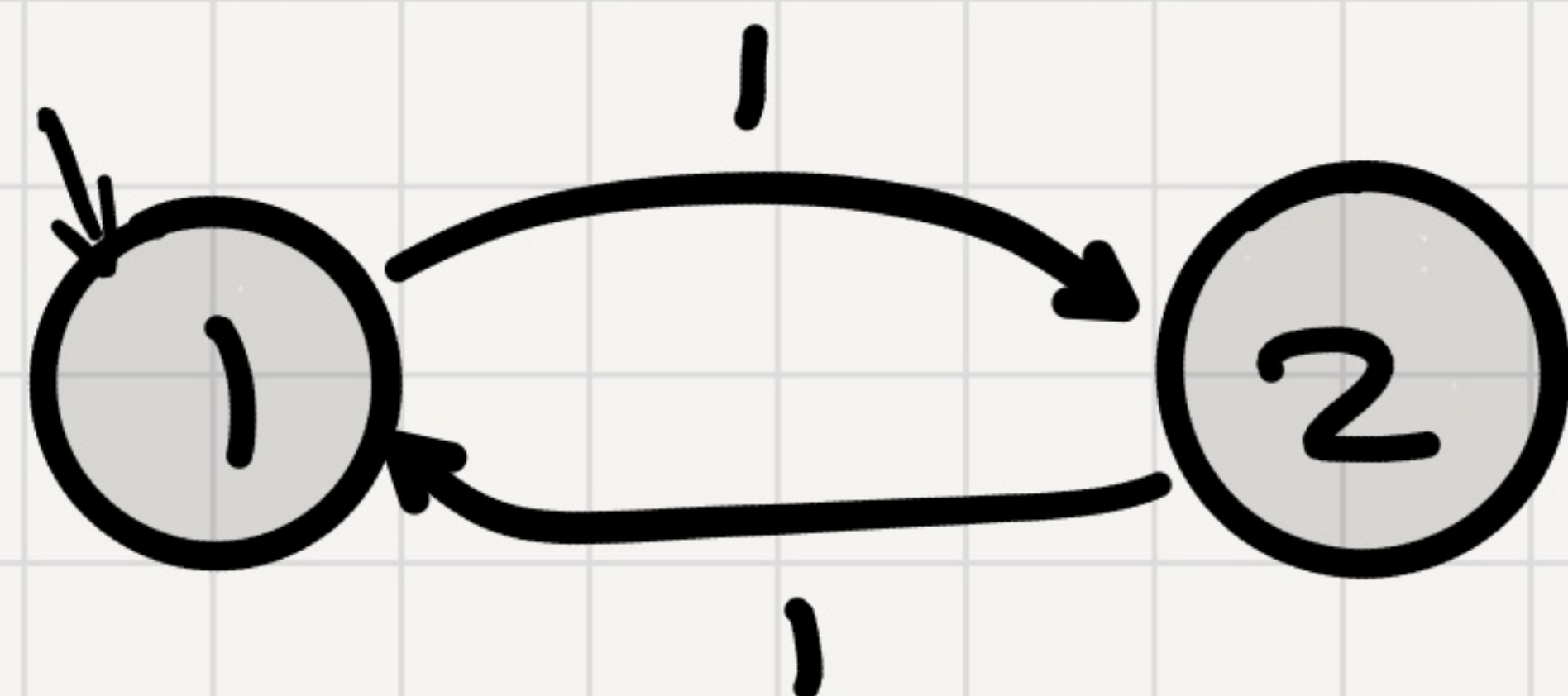
Recall this MC from lecture 26.



We'll run it for many steps and count how many times we've been in each step.

# Converges to the Stationary Distribution

Example:



The MC is irreducible.

It's stationary dist satisfies

$$(\pi(1) \quad \pi(2)) = (\pi(1) \quad \pi(2)) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \pi(1) = \pi(2) = 1/2.$$

But starting from 1:  $\pi_0 = (1 \ 0)$   
 $\pi_1 = (0 \ 1)$   
 $\pi_2 = (1 \ 0) \dots$

$$\pi_{2m} = (1 \ 0)$$
$$\pi_{2m+1} = (0 \ 1)$$

## Periodicity

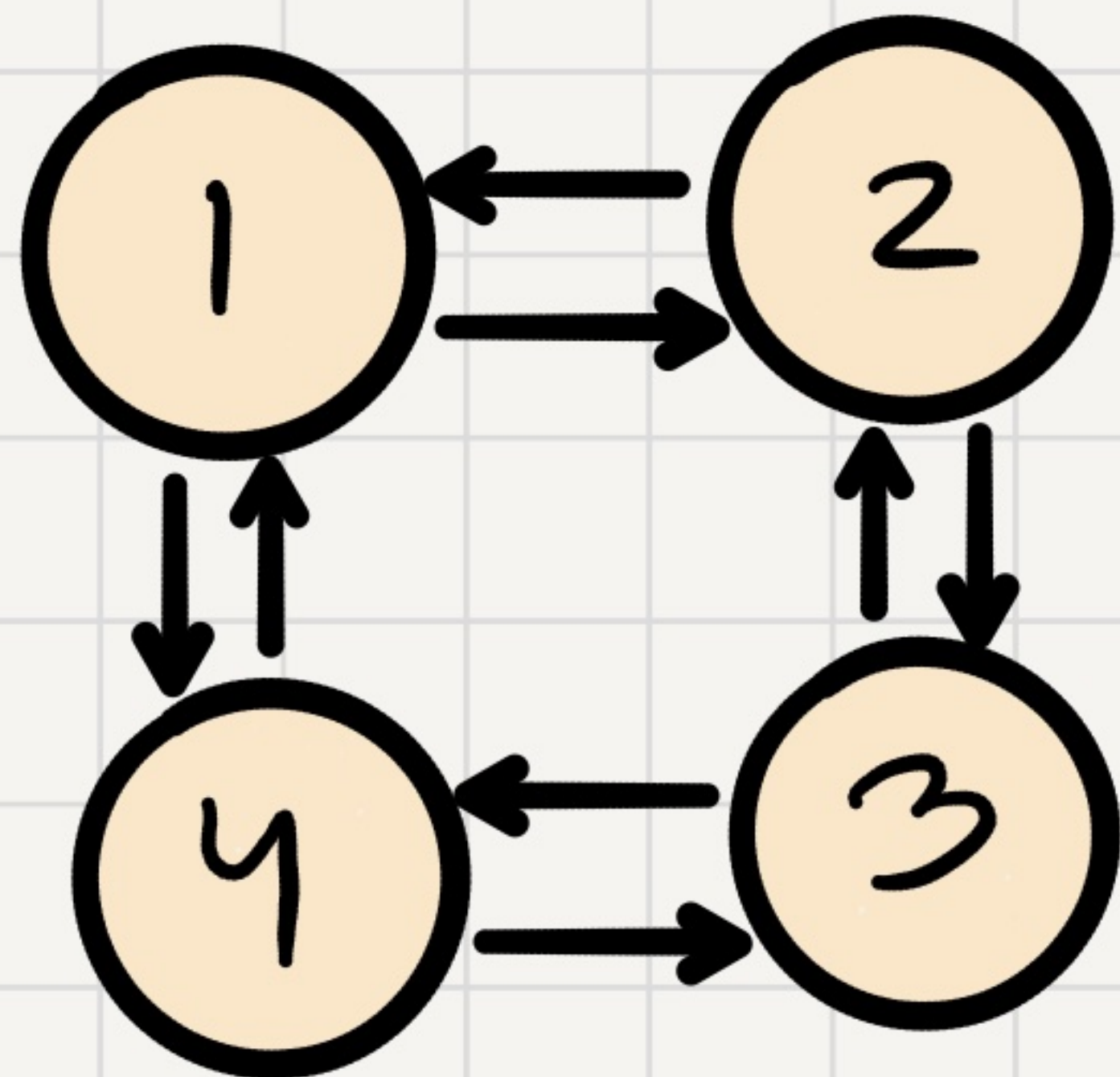
Def'n: The periodicity of a Markov Chain with transition matrix  $P$  is the gcd of lengths of all closed walks in the chain

$$\text{gcd}(n > 0 \mid \exists i \text{ s.t. } P^n(i, i) > 0)$$

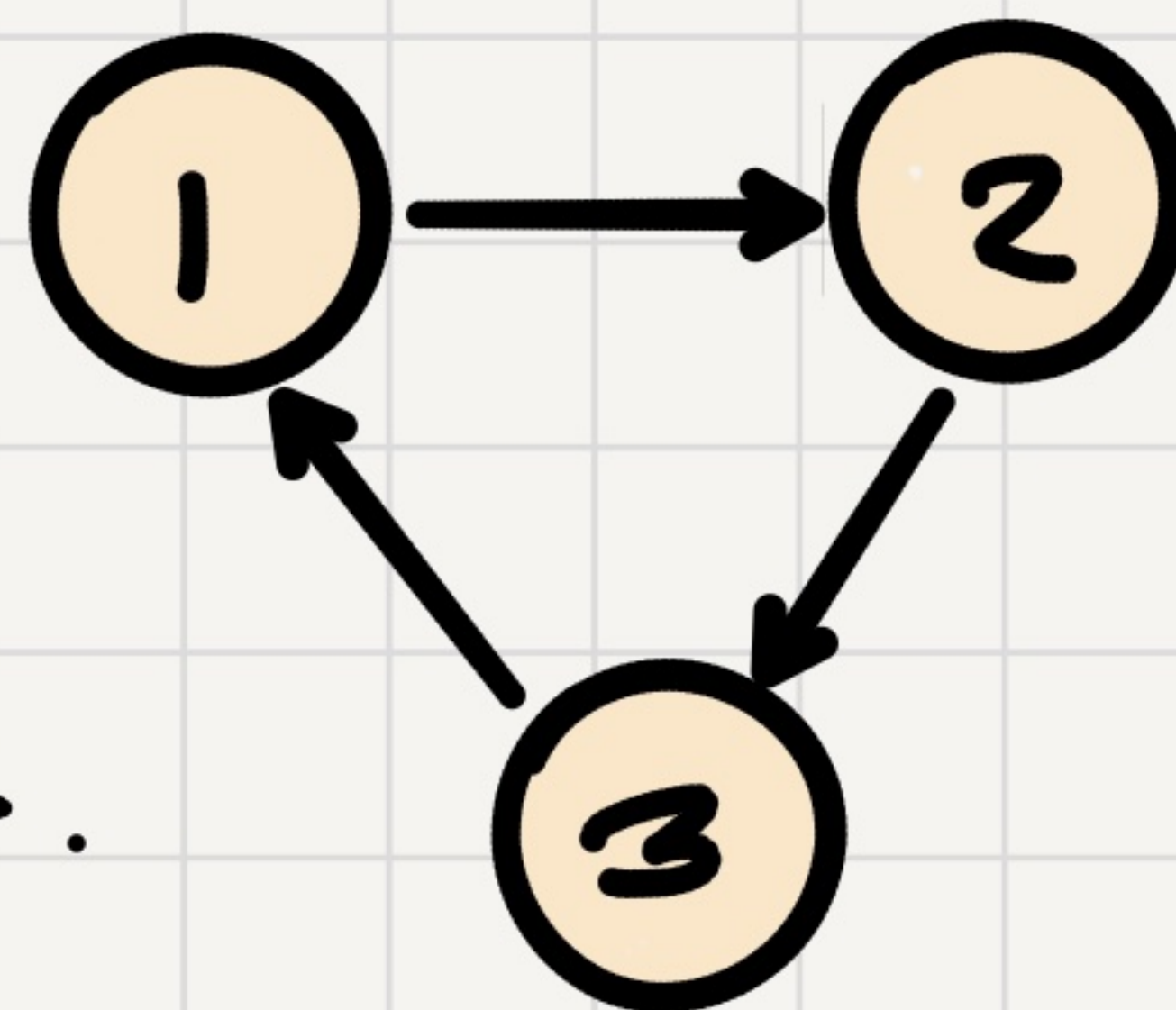
A Markov chain is aperiodic if this  $\text{gcd} = 1$ .

# Which Markov Chains are Aperiodic?

A.



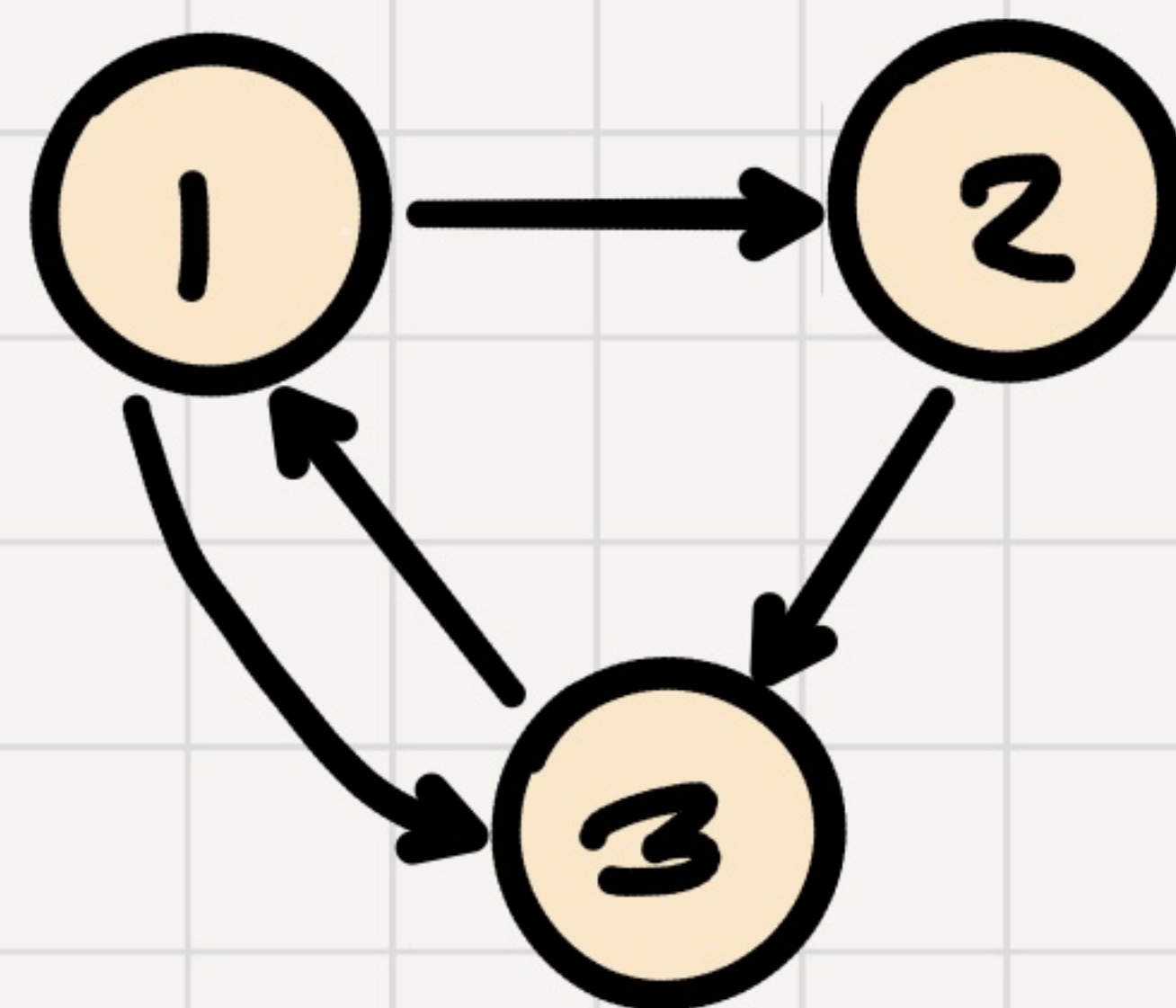
B.



period: 2.

period: 3

C.



$\gcd(2, 2, \dots)$   
 $= 1$

Theorem: Let  $X_n$  be an irreducible  
a periodic Markov chain with stationary dist  $\pi$ .

Then, no matter what's the starting dist.  $\pi_0$

$$\forall i: \pi_n(i) \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow \infty} \pi(i).$$



# Some Paradoxes

## St. Petersburg Paradox

A casino is offering you to play the following game:

- Start with a stake of  $z$  \$.

- At each point flip a fair coin
  - H: double the stake.
  - T: stop and give stake to player.

How much are you willing to pay to play this game?

What's the expected winning stake?

$X$  r.v. capturing winning stake

$$\Pr[X=2] = 1/2 \quad \Pr[X=4] = 1/4 \quad \dots \quad \Pr[X=2^k] = \frac{1}{2^k}.$$

$$E[X] = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \Pr[X=2^i] \cdot 2^i = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^i} \cdot 2^i = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} 1 = \infty.$$

## St. Petersburg Paradox

A casino is offering you to play the following game:

- Start with a stake of  $z$  \$.

- At each point flip a fair coin
  - H: double the stake.
  - T: stop and give stake to player.

How much are you willing to pay to play this game?

If the casino has only  $n=2^k$  dollars. What's the expected win?

$$\begin{aligned} E[X] &= 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + \dots && + 2^{k-1} \cdot \frac{1}{2^{k-1}} + \underbrace{2^k \cdot \frac{1}{2^{k-1}}} \\ &= k+1 = \log_2 n + 1 \end{aligned}$$

## Double-or-Nothing

Suppose you go to a casino and you want a betting strategy that will guarantee you win 1\$.

They have a simple game: You choose how much to bet  $x$ .

They flip a fair coin  $\begin{cases} H & \text{you win } x \text{ dollars} \\ T & \text{" lose } x \text{ dollars.} \end{cases}$

Strategy: Start with betting 1\$, if successful, stop.

else, bet 2\$, if successful stop.

else, bet 4\$, if " stop.

...

Eventually a H will be flipped and you will win overall 1\$.

## Double-or-Nothing

Bet  $x$  dollars ; w.p.  $\frac{1}{2}$  win  $x$  ; w.p.  $\frac{1}{2}$  lose  $x$ .

Strategy: Start with betting  $1\$$ , if successful, stop.

else, bet  $2\$$ , if successful stop.

else, bet  $4\$$ , if " stop.

...

Eventually a  $11$  will be flipped and you will win overall  $1\$$ .

What happens if you have a limited budget, say  $1023\$$ :

You'll lose  $1023\$$  with prob.  $\frac{1}{1024}$

and win  $1\$$  with prob.  $1 - \frac{1}{1024}$

On expectation, you'll even out.

$$\frac{1}{1024} \cdot (-1023) + \left(1 - \frac{1}{1024}\right) \cdot 1 = 0.$$

# Confusing Statistics:

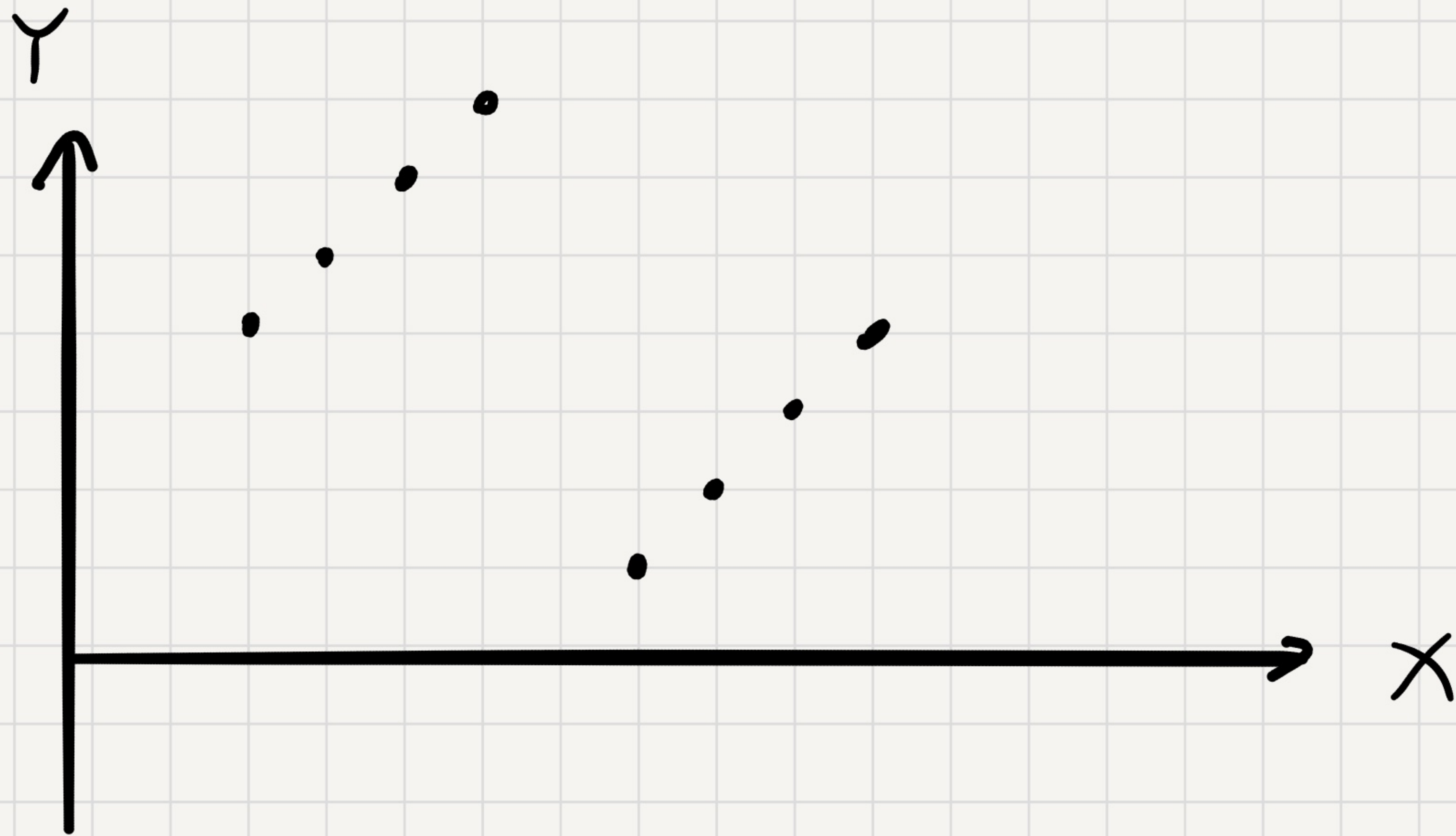
## Simpson's Paradox

Results from real-life medical study:

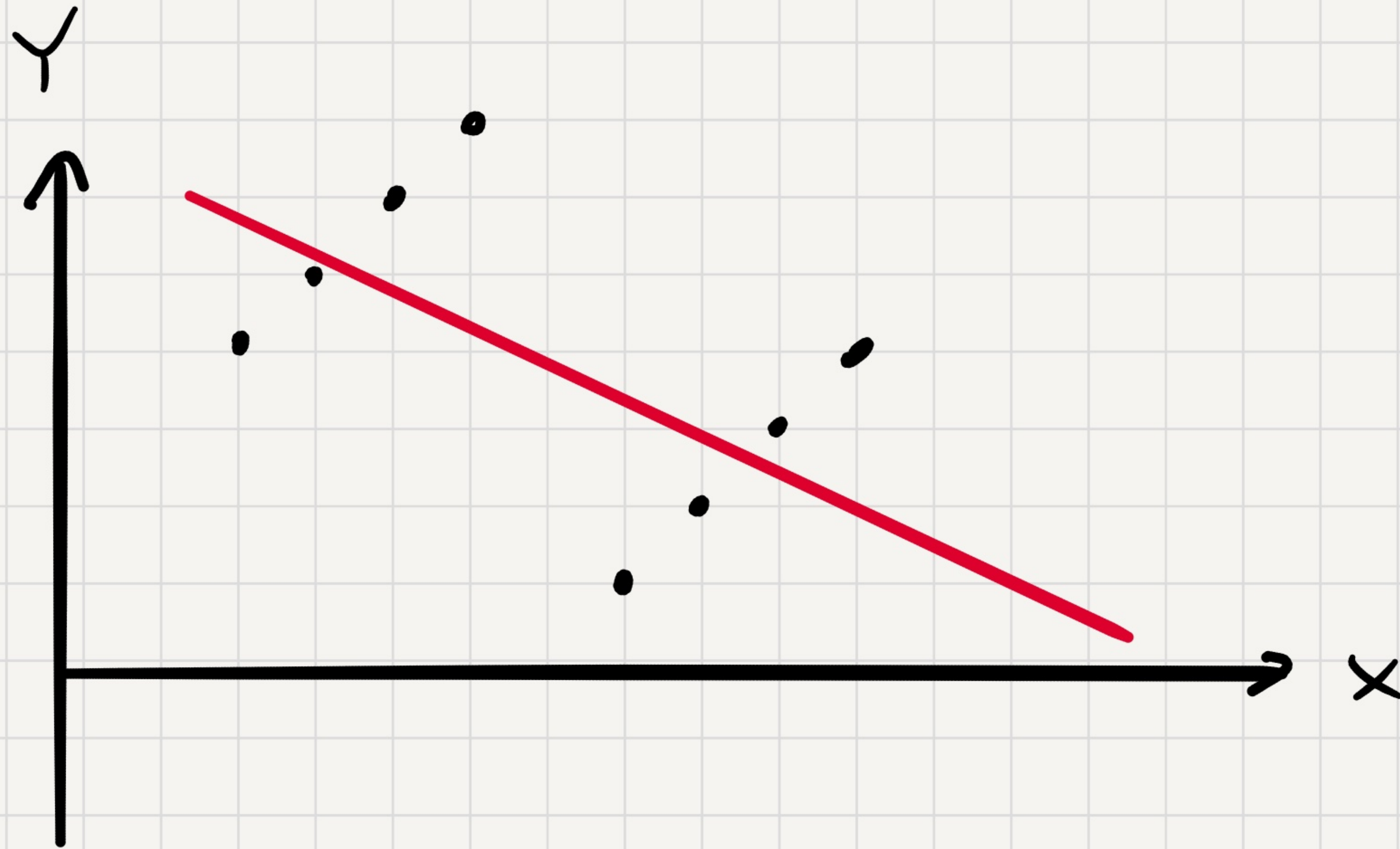
	Treatment A	Treatment B
Small Stones	Group 1 93% (81/87)	Group 2 87% (234/270)
Large Stones	Group 3 73% (192/263)	Group 4 69% (55/80)
Both	78% (273/350)	83% (289/350)

Which treatment is better?

What's the best linear predictor of  $Y$  given  $X$ ?



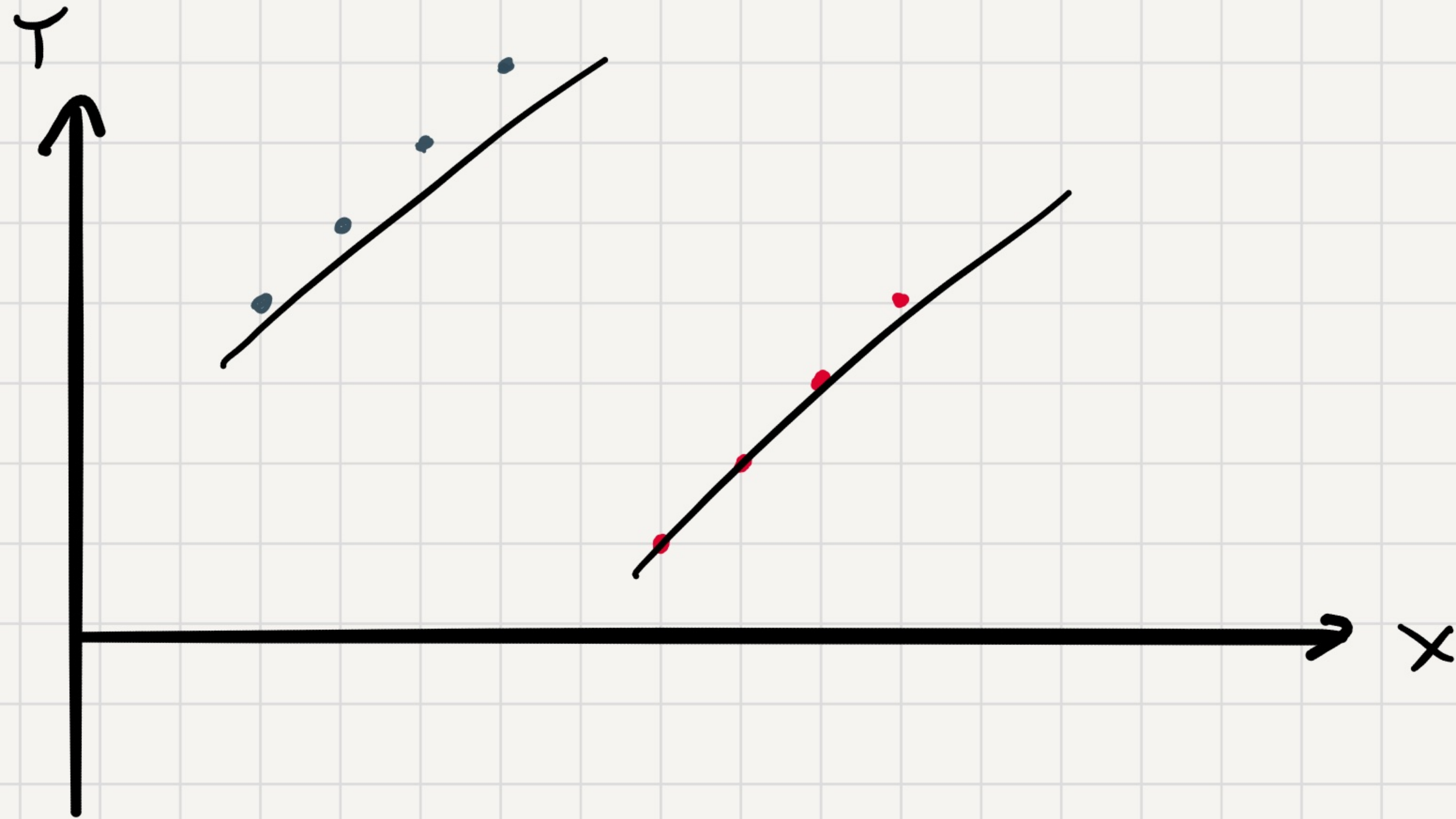
What's the best linear predictor of  $Y$  given  $X$ ?



trend is down: as  $X$  increases  
we predict that  $Y$  decreases



But if the data is coming from a mixture of two distributions **red** and **blue**:



In each subgroup  
trend is up:

as  $X$  increases  
we predict that  $Y$  increases.

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Thank you  
and good luck in  
the final!