

6.262: Discrete Stochastic Processes 3/28/11

Lecture 14: Review

The Basics: Let there be a sample space, a set of events (with axioms), and a probability measure on the events (with axioms).

In practice, there is a basic countable set of rv's that are IID, Markov, etc.

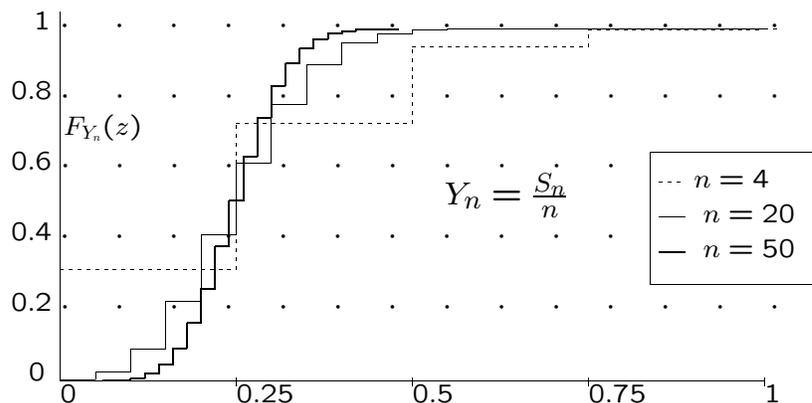
A sample point is then a collection of sample values, one for each rv.

There are often uncountable sets of rv's, e.g., $\{N(t); t \geq 0\}$, but they can usually be defined in terms of a basic countable set.

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For a sequence of IID rv's, X_1, X_2, \dots (Poisson and renewal processes), the laws of large numbers specify long term behavior.

The sample (time) average is S_n/n , $S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$. It is a rv of mean \bar{X} and variance σ^2/n .



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The weak LLN: If $E[|X|] < \infty$, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Pr \left\{ \left| \frac{S_n}{n} - \bar{X} \right| \geq \epsilon \right\} = 0 \quad \text{for every } \epsilon > 0.$$

This says that $\Pr \left\{ \frac{S_n}{n} \leq x \right\}$ approaches a unit step at \bar{X} as $n \rightarrow \infty$ (Convergence in probability and in distribution).

The strong LLN: If $E[|X|] < \infty$, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{S_n}{n} = \bar{X} \quad \text{W.P.1}$$

This says that, except for a set of sample points of zero probability, all sample sequences have a limiting sample path average equal to \bar{X} .

Also, essentially $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(S_n/n) = f(\bar{X})$ W.P.1.

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There are many extensions of the weak law telling how fast the convergence is. The most useful result about convergence speed is the central limit theorem. If $\sigma_{\bar{X}}^2 < \infty$, then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\Pr \left\{ \frac{S_n - n\bar{X}}{\sqrt{n}\sigma} \leq y \right\} \right] = \int_{-\infty}^y \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left(\frac{-x^2}{2} \right) dx.$$

Equivalently,

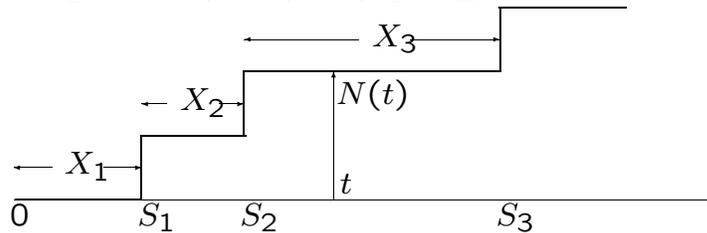
$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left[\Pr \left\{ \frac{S_n}{n} - \bar{X} \leq \frac{y\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right\} \right] = \int_{-\infty}^y \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp \left(\frac{-x^2}{2} \right) dx.$$

In other words, S_n/n converges to \bar{X} with $1/\sqrt{n}$ and becomes Gaussian as an extra benefit.

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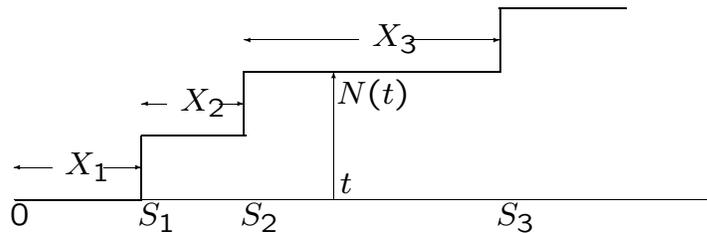
Arrival processes

Def: An arrival process is an increasing sequence of rv's, $0 < S_1 < S_2 < \dots$. The interarrival times are $X_1 = S_1$ and $X_i = S_i - S_{i-1}$, $i \geq 1$.



An arrival process can model arrivals to a queue, departures from a queue, locations of breaks in an oil line, etc.

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The process can be specified by the joint distribution of either the arrival epochs or the interarrival times.

The counting process, $\{N(t); t \geq 0\}$, for each t , is the number of arrivals up to and including t , i.e., $N(t) = \max\{n : S_n \leq t\}$. For every n, t ,

$$\{S_n \leq t\} = \{N(t) \geq n\}$$

Note that $S_n = \min\{t : N(t) \geq n\}$, so that $\{N(t); t \geq 0\}$ specifies $\{S_n; n > 0\}$.

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Def: A renewal process is an arrival process for which the interarrival rv's are IID. A Poisson process is a renewal process for which the interarrival rv's are exponential.

Def: A memoryless rv is a nonnegative non-deterministic rv for which

$$\Pr\{X > t+x\} = \Pr\{X > x\}\Pr\{X > t\} \quad \text{for all } x, t \geq 0.$$

This says that $\Pr\{X > t+x \mid X > t\} = \Pr\{X > x\}$. **If** X is the time until an arrival, and the arrival has not happened by t , the remaining distribution is the original distribution.

The exponential is the only memoryless rv.

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Thm: Given a Poisson process of rate λ , the interval from any given $t > 0$ until the first arrival after t is a rv Z_1 with $F_{Z_1}(z) = 1 - \exp[-\lambda z]$. Z_1 is independent of all $N(\tau)$ for $\tau \leq t$.

Z_1 (and $N(\tau)$ for $\tau \leq t$) are also independent of future interarrival intervals, say Z_2, Z_3, \dots . Also $\{Z_1, Z_2, \dots, \}$ are the interarrival intervals of a PP starting at t .

The corresponding counting process is $\{\tilde{N}(t, \tau); \tau \geq t\}$ **where** $\tilde{N}(t, \tau) = N(\tau) - N(t)$ **has the same distribution as** $N(\tau - t)$.

This is called the stationary increment property.

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Def: The independent increment property for a counting process is that for all $0 < t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_k$, the rv's $N(t_1), [\tilde{N}(t_1, t_2)], \dots, [\tilde{N}(t_{n-1}, t_n)]$ are independent.

Thm: PP's have both the stationary and independent increment properties.

PP's can be defined by the stationary and independent increment properties plus either the Poisson PMF for $N(t)$ or

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr\{\tilde{N}(t, t+\delta) = 1\} &= \lambda\delta + o(\delta) \\ \Pr\{\tilde{N}(t, t+\delta) > 1\} &= o(\delta).\end{aligned}$$

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The probability distributions

$$f_{S_1, \dots, S_n}(s_1, \dots, s_n) = \lambda^n \exp(-\lambda s_n) \quad \text{for } 0 \leq s_1 \leq \dots \leq s_n$$

The intermediate arrival epochs are equally likely to be anywhere (with $s_1 < s_2 < \dots$). Integrating,

$$f_{S_n}(t) = \frac{\lambda^n t^{n-1} \exp(-\lambda t)}{(n-1)!} \quad \text{Erlang}$$

The probability of arrival n in $(t, t + \delta)$ is

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr\{N(t) = n-1\} \lambda \delta &= \delta f_{S_n}(t) + o(\delta) \\ \Pr\{N(t) = n-1\} &= \frac{f_{S_n}(t)}{\lambda} \\ &= \frac{(\lambda t)^{n-1} \exp(-\lambda t)}{(n-1)!} \\ p_{N(t)}(n) &= \frac{(\lambda t)^n \exp(-\lambda t)}{n!} \quad \text{Poisson}\end{aligned}$$

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Combining and splitting

If $N_1(t), N_2(t), \dots, N_k(t)$ are independent PP's of rates $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$, then $N(t) = \sum_i N_i(t)$ is a Poisson process of rate $\sum_j \lambda_j$.

Two views: 1) Look at arrival epochs, as generated, from each process, then combine all arrivals into one Poisson process.

(2) Look at combined sequence of arrival epochs, then allocate each arrival to a sub-process by a sequence of IID rv's with PMF $\lambda_i / \sum_j \lambda_j$.

This is the workhorse of Poisson type queueing problems.

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Conditional arrivals and order statistics

$$f_{\vec{S}^{(n)}|N(t)}(\vec{s}^{(n)} | n) = \frac{n!}{t^n} \quad \text{for } 0 < s_1 < \dots < s_n < t$$

$$\Pr\{S_1 > \tau | N(t)=n\} = \left[\frac{t-\tau}{t}\right]^n \quad \text{for } 0 < \tau \leq t$$

$$\Pr\{S_n < t - \tau | N(t)=n\} = \left[\frac{t-\tau}{t}\right]^n \quad \text{for } 0 < \tau \leq t$$

The joint distribution of S_1, \dots, S_n given $N(t) = n$ is the same as the joint distribution of n uniform rv's that have been ordered.

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Finite-state Markov chains

An integer-time stochastic process $\{X_n; n \geq 0\}$ is a Markov chain if for all n, i, j, k, \dots ,

$$\Pr\{X_n = j \mid X_{n-1}=i, X_{n-2}=k \dots X_0=m\} = P_{ij},$$

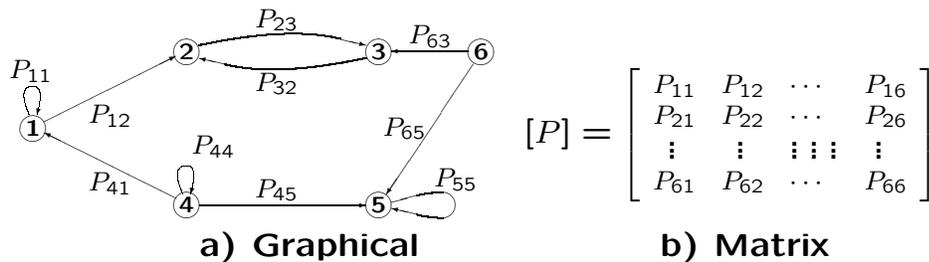
where P_{ij} depends only on i, j and $p_{X_0}(m)$ is arbitrary. A Markov chain is finite-state if the sample space for each X_i is a finite set, \mathcal{S} . The sample space \mathcal{S} usually taken to be the integers $1, 2, \dots, M$.

A Markov chain is completely described by $\{P_{ij}; 1 \leq i, j \leq M\}$ plus the initial probabilities $p_{X_0}(i)$.

The set of transition probabilities $\{P_{ij}; 1 \leq i, j \leq M\}$, is usually viewed as the Markov chain with p_{X_0} viewed as a parameter.

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A finite-state Markov chain can be described as a directed graph or as a matrix.



An edge (i, j) is put in the graph only if $P_{ij} > 0$, making it easy to understand connectivity.

The matrix is useful for algebraic and asymptotic issues.

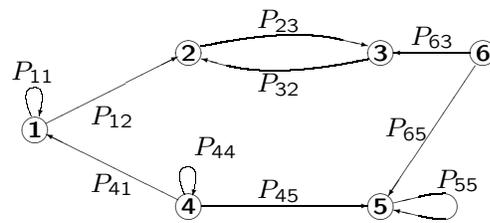
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Classification of states

An (n -step) walk is an ordered string of nodes (states), say (i_0, i_1, \dots, i_n) , $n \geq 1$, with a directed arc from i_{m-1} to i_m for each m , $1 \leq m \leq n$.

A path is a walk with no repeated nodes.

A cycle is a walk in which the last node is the same as the first and no other node is repeated.



Walk: (4, 4, 1, 2, 3, 2)

Walk: (4, 1, 2, 3)

Path: (4, 1, 2, 3)

Path: (6, 3, 2)

Cycle: (2, 3, 2)

Cycle: (5, 5)

A node j is accessible from i , ($i \rightarrow j$) if there is a walk from i to j , i.e., if $P_{ij}^n > 0$ for some $n > 0$.

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If ($i \rightarrow j$) and ($j \rightarrow k$) then ($i \rightarrow k$).

Two states i, j communicate (denoted $i \leftrightarrow j$) if ($i \rightarrow j$) and ($j \rightarrow i$).

A class \mathcal{C} of states is a non-empty set such that ($i \leftrightarrow j$) for each $i, j \in \mathcal{C}$ but $i \not\leftrightarrow j$ for each $i \in \mathcal{C}, j \notin \mathcal{C}$.

\mathcal{S} is partitioned into classes. The class \mathcal{C} containing i is $\{i\} \cup \{j : (i \leftrightarrow j)\}$.

For finite-state chains, a state i is transient if there is a $j \in \mathcal{S}$ such that $i \rightarrow j$ but $j \not\rightarrow i$. If i is not transient, it is recurrent.

All states in a class are transient or all are recurrent.

A finite-state Markov chain contains at least one recurrent class.

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The period, $d(i)$, of state i is $\gcd\{n : P_{ii}^n > 0\}$, i.e., returns to i can occur only at multiples of some largest $d(i)$.

All states in the same class have the same period.

A recurrent class with period $d > 1$ can be partitioned into subclasses S_1, S_2, \dots, S_d . Transitions from each class go only to states in the next class (viewing S_1 as the next subclass to S_d).

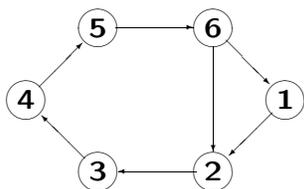
An ergodic class is a recurrent aperiodic class. A Markov chain with only one class is ergodic if that class is ergodic.

Thm: For an ergodic finite-state Markov chain, $\lim_n P_{ij}^n = \pi_j$, i.e., the limit exists for all i, j and is independent of i . $\{\pi_i; 1 \leq M\}$ satisfies $\sum_i \pi_i P_{ij} = \pi_j > 0$ with $\sum_i \pi_i = 1$.

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A substep for this theorem is showing that for an ergodic M state Markov chain, $P_{ij}^n > 0$ for all i, j and all $n \geq (M - 1)^2 + 1$.

The reason why n must be so large to ensure that $P_{ij}^n > 0$ is indicated by the following chain where the smallest cycle has length $M - 1$.



Starting in state 2, the state at the next 4 steps is deterministic. For the next 4 steps, there are two possible choices then 3, etc.

A second substep is the special case of the theorem where $P_{ij} > 0$ for all i, j .

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Lemma 2: Let $[P] > 0$ be the transition matrix of a finite-state Markov chain and let $\alpha = \min_{i,j} P_{ij}$. Then for all states j and all $n \geq 1$:

$$\begin{aligned} \max_i P_{ij}^{n+1} - \min_i P_{ij}^{n+1} &\leq \left(\max_\ell P_{\ell j}^n - \min_\ell P_{\ell j}^n \right) (1 - 2\alpha). \\ \left(\max_\ell P_{\ell j}^n - \min_\ell P_{\ell j}^n \right) &\leq (1 - 2\alpha)^n. \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \max_\ell P_{\ell j}^n &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \min_\ell P_{\ell j}^n > 0. \end{aligned}$$

This shows that $\lim_n P_{\ell j}^n$ approaches a limit independent of ℓ , and approaches it exponentially for $[P] > 0$. The theorem (for ergodic $[P]$) follows by looking at $\lim_n P_{\ell j}^{nh}$ for $h = (M - 1)^2 + 1$.

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An ergodic unichain is a Markov chain with one ergodic recurrent class plus, perhaps, a set of transient states. The theorem for ergodic chains extends to unichains:

Thm: For an ergodic finite-state unichain, $\lim_n P_{ij}^n = \pi_j$, i.e., the limit exists for all i, j and is independent of i . $\{\pi_i; 1 \leq M\}$ satisfies $\sum_i \pi_i P_{ij} = \pi_j$ with $\sum_i \pi_i = 1$. Also $\pi_i > 0$ for i recurrent and $\pi_i = 0$ otherwise.

This can be restated in matrix form as $\lim_n [P^n] = \vec{e}\pi$ where $\vec{e} = (1, 1, \dots, 1)^T$ and π satisfies $\pi[P] = \pi$ and $\pi\vec{e} = 1$.

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We get more specific results by looking at the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of an arbitrary stochastic matrix (matrix of a Markov chain).

λ is an eigenvalue of $[P]$ iff $[P - \lambda I]$ is singular, iff $\det[P - \lambda I] = 0$, iff $[P]\nu = \lambda\nu$ for some $\nu \neq 0$, and iff $\pi[P] = \lambda\pi$ for some $\pi \neq 0$.

\vec{e} is always a right eigenvector of $[P]$ with eigenvalue 1, so there is always a left eigenvector π .

$\det[P - \lambda I]$ is an M th degree polynomial in λ . It has M roots, not necessarily distinct. The multiplicity of an eigenvalue is the number of roots of that value.

The multiplicity of $\lambda = 1$ is equal to the number of recurrent classes.

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For the special case where all M eigenvalues are distinct, the right eigenvectors are linearly independent and can be represented as the columns of an invertible matrix $[U]$. Thus

$$[P][U] = [U][\Lambda]; \quad [P] = [U][\Lambda][U^{-1}]$$

The matrix $[U^{-1}]$ turns out to have rows equal to the left eigenvectors.

This can be further broken up by expanding $[\Lambda]$ as a sum of eigenvalues, getting

$$[P] = \sum_{i=1}^M \lambda_i \vec{v}^{(i)} \vec{\pi}^{(i)}$$

$$[P^n] = [U][\Lambda^n][U^{-1}] = \sum_{i=1}^M \lambda_i^n \vec{v}^{(i)} \vec{\pi}^{(i)}$$

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Facts: All eigenvalues λ satisfy $|\lambda| \leq 1$.

For each recurrent class \mathcal{C} , there is one $\lambda = 1$ with a left eigenvector equal to steady state on that recurrent class and zero elsewhere. The right eigenvector ν satisfies $\lim_n \Pr\{X_n \in \mathcal{C} \mid X_0 = i\} = \nu_i$.

For each recurrent periodic class of period d , there are d eigenvalues equi-spaced on the unit circle. There are no other eigenvalues with $|\lambda| = 1$.

If the eigenvectors span \mathbb{R}^M , then P_{ij}^n converges to π_j as λ_2^n for a unichain where $|\lambda_2|$ is the second largest magnitude eigenvalue.

If the eigenvectors do not span \mathbb{R}^M , then $[P^n] = [U][J][U^{-1}]$ where $[J]$ is a Jordan form.

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Renewal processes

Thm: For a renewal process (RP) with mean inter-renewal interval $\bar{X} > 0$,

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{N(t)}{t} = \frac{1}{\bar{X}} \quad \text{W.P.1.}$$

This also holds if $\bar{X} = \infty$.

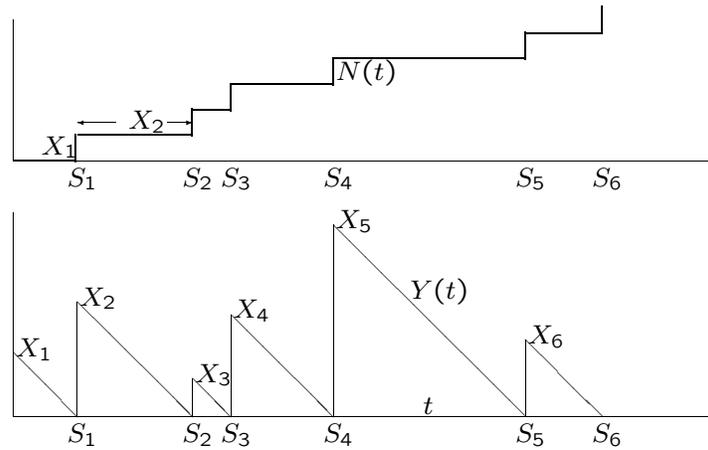
In both cases, $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} N(t) = \infty$ with probability 1.

There is also the elementary renewal theorem, which says that

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} E \left[\frac{N(t)}{t} \right] = \frac{1}{\bar{X}}$$

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Residual life



The integral of $Y(t)$ over t is a sum of terms $X_n^2/2$.

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The time average value of $Y(t)$ is

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\int_{\tau=0}^t Y(\tau) d\tau}{t} = \frac{E[X^2]}{2E[X]} \quad \text{W.P.1}$$

The time average duration is

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\int_{\tau=0}^t X(\tau) d\tau}{t} = \frac{E[X^2]}{E[X]} \quad \text{W.P.1}$$

For PP, this is twice $E[X]$. Big intervals contribute in two ways to duration.

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Residual life and duration are examples of renewal reward functions.

In general $\mathcal{R}(Z(t), X(t))$ specifies reward as function of location in the local renewal interval.

Thus reward over a renewal interval is

$$R_n = \int_{S_{n-1}}^{S_n} \mathcal{R}(\tau - S_{n-1}, X_n) d\tau = \int_{z=0}^{X_n} \mathcal{R}(z, X_n) dz$$

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{t} \int_{\tau=0}^t R(\tau) d\tau = \frac{E[R_n]}{\bar{X}} \quad \text{W.P.1}$$

This also works for ensemble averages.

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Def: A stopping trial (or stopping time) J for a sequence $\{X_n; n \geq 1\}$ of rv's is a positive integer-valued rv such that for each $n \geq 1$, the indicator rv $\mathbb{I}_{\{J=n\}}$ is a function of $\{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$.

A possibly defective stopping trial is the same except that J might be a defective rv. For many applications of stopping trials, it is not initially obvious whether J is defective.

Theorem (Wald's equality) Let $\{X_n; n \geq 1\}$ be a sequence of IID rv's, each of mean \bar{X} . If J is a stopping trial for $\{X_n; n \geq 1\}$ and if $E[J] < \infty$, then the sum $S_J = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_J$ at the stopping trial J satisfies

$$E[S_J] = \bar{X}E[J].$$

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Wald: Let $\{X_n; n \geq 1\}$ be IID rv's, each of mean \bar{X} . If J is a stopping time for $\{X_n; n \geq 1\}$, $E[J] < \infty$, and $S_J = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_J$, then

$$E[S_J] = \bar{X}E[J]$$

In many applications, where X_n and S_n are nonnegative rv's, the restriction $E[J] < \infty$ is not necessary.

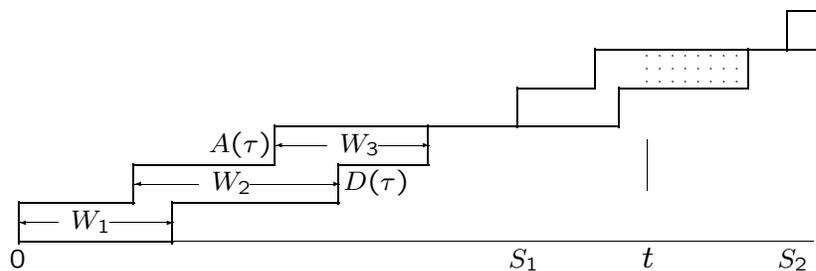
For cases where X is positive or negative, it is necessary as shown by 'stop when you're ahead.'

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Little's theorem

This is little more than an accounting trick. Consider an queueing system with arrivals and departures where renewals occur on arrivals to an empty system.

Consider $L(t) = A(t) - D(t)$ as a renewal reward function. Then $L_n = \sum W_i$ also.



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Let \bar{L} be the time average number in system,

$$\bar{L} = \frac{1}{t} \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t L(\tau) d\tau$$

$$\lambda = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{t} A(t)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \bar{W} &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{A(t)} \sum_{i=1}^{A(t)} W_i \\ &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{t}{A(t)} \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{t} \sum_{i=1}^{A(t)} W_i \\ &= \bar{L}/\lambda \end{aligned}$$

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