

# Markov Chains and Stationary Distributions

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A collection of facts to show that any initial distribution will converge to a stationary distribution for irreducible, aperiodic, homogeneous Markov chains with a full set of linearly independent eigenvectors.

**Definition** Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  square matrix.  $A$  is *irreducible* if for every pair of indices  $i, j = 1, \dots, n$  there exists an  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $(A^m)_{ij} \neq 0$ .

**Remark** In the context of Markov chains, a Markov chain is said to be irreducible if the associated transition matrix is irreducible. Also in this context, a Markov chain is called irreducible if all its states *communicate*, which means exactly the definition for irreducible.

**Definition** Let  $A$  be a non-negative  $n \times n$  square matrix. The *period of index  $i$* ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ , is the GCD of all  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $(A^m)_{ii} > 0$ .

**Remark** If  $A$  is irreducible the period of each index is the same; hence we may speak of the *period of  $A$*  in such a case.

**Remark** If the period of  $A$  is 1, then  $A$  is called *aperiodic*.

**Theorem 0.1** (*Perron-Frobenius*) Let  $A$  be an irreducible, non-negative  $n \times n$  matrix with period  $\alpha$  and spectral radius  $\rho(A) = r$ . Then

1. The number  $r$  is a unique eigenvalue of  $A$  (it is a simple root of the characteristic equation of  $A$ ).
2.  $A$  has a left eigenvector  $z$  with associated eigenvalue  $r$ , and  $z$  has all positive entries.
3.  $A$  has exactly  $\alpha$  complex eigenvalues with modulus  $r$  and each is a simple root of the characteristic polynomial of  $A$ .

**Proposition 0.2** A row-stochastic square matrix has a largest eigenvalue of one.

**Proof** Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  row-stochastic matrix; i.e.,  $\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} = 1$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . Since

$$A\mathbf{1} = \mathbf{1},$$

the vector  $\mathbf{1} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a right eigenvector with eigenvalue 1. Hence 1 is an eigenvalue of  $A$ . To see this is also the largest eigenvalue, let  $z \in \mathbb{C}^n$  be an eigenvector of  $A$  with associated eigenvalue  $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ . That is,

$$Az = \lambda z.$$

Now let  $k$  be such that  $|z_i| \leq |z_k|$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . The  $k$ th entry of the equation above is

$$\sum_{j=1}^n a_{kj} z_j = \lambda z_k.$$

Hence

$$|\lambda z_k| = |\lambda| \cdot |z_k| = \left| \sum_{j=1}^n a_{kj} z_j \right| \leq \sum_{j=1}^n a_{kj} |z_j| \leq \sum_{j=1}^n a_{kj} |z_k| = |z_k|.$$

Therefore  $|\lambda| \leq 1$ . ■

**Remark** If  $\Pi$  is the transition matrix for a Markov chain then  $\Pi$  is row-stochastic, hence it has a largest right eigenvalue of 1. If  $\Pi$  is irreducible and aperiodic, then by P-F theorem the eigenvalue of 1 is unique and all other eigenvalues have moduli strictly less than 1.

**Proposition 0.3** *The right eigenvectors of  $A^T$  are the (transpose of the) left eigenvectors of  $A$ , and the corresponding eigenvalues are the same.*

**Proof** Let  $(\lambda, z)$  be an eigenpair of  $A^T$ . That is,  $A^T z = \lambda z$ . Then  $z^T A = \lambda z^T$ . So  $(\lambda, z^T)$  is a left eigenpair of  $A$ . ■

**Proposition 0.4** *A matrix and its transpose have the same set of eigenvalues.*

**Proof** Let  $A$  be a square matrix and note  $(A - \lambda I)^T = A^T - \lambda I$  since the identity matrix  $I$  is symmetric. Thus since  $\det(B) = \det(B^T)$  for any square matrix  $B$ ,

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \det((A - \lambda I)^T) = \det(A^T - \lambda I),$$

hence  $A$  and  $A^T$  have the same characteristic polynomials and therefore the same set of eigenvalues. ■

**Remark** The two propositions above mean that we can inspect the eigenvalues of a transition matrix  $\Pi$  and these will be the same as the left eigenvalues of  $\Pi$ . Furthermore, we may compute the eigenvectors for  $\Pi^T$  and those will be the left eigenvectors of  $\Pi$ .

**Remark** If  $\Pi$  is the transition matrix for a Markov chain then  $\Pi$  and  $\Pi^T$  have the same set of eigenvalues. We mentioned above that  $\Pi$  has a largest eigenvalue of 1, and hence  $\Pi^T$  has a largest eigenvalue of 1 as well. That is, there is an eigenvector  $z \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\Pi^T z = z$ , which is true iff

$$z^T \Pi = z^T.$$

If  $\Pi$  is irreducible then  $z$  has strictly positive entries by P-F theorem. Since we can normalize  $z$  so the entries sum to 1, we know that any irreducible Markov chain has a stationary distribution.

If  $\Pi$  is irreducible and aperiodic then this stationary distribution is unique, by P-F theorem. More specifically, all other eigenvalues of  $\Pi$  are strictly less than 1 in modulus, so there is only one eigenvector  $z$  such that  $z^T \Pi = z^T$ , where  $z^T$  is the unique stationary distribution. Thus we state the following important result.

**Theorem 0.5** *An irreducible, aperiodic, homogeneous Markov chain on a finite state space has a unique stationary distribution. Furthermore, if  $\Pi$  is diagonalizable, i.e.,  $\Pi$  has  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors, then the marginal distribution will converge to this unique stationary distribution as time tends to infinity regardless of the initial distribution.*

Before we prove this, note the following lemmas.

**Lemma 0.6** *Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix. Then  $A$  is diagonalizable iff  $A$  has  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors.*

*In fact,  $A = PDP^{-1}$  with  $D$  a diagonal matrix iff the columns of  $P$  are  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors of  $A$ , and in this case the diagonal elements of  $D$  are the eigenvalues of  $A$  that correspond, respectively, to the eigenvectors in  $P$ .*

**Proof** Let  $P$  be any  $n \times n$  matrix with columns  $z_1, \dots, z_n$  and let  $D$  be an  $n \times n$  diagonal matrix with diagonal entries  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ . Then

$$AP = A \begin{bmatrix} z_1 & z_2 & \cdots & z_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} Az_1 & Az_2 & \cdots & Az_n \end{bmatrix},$$

and

$$PD = P \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 z_1 & \lambda_2 z_2 & \cdots & \lambda_n z_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

Assume  $A$  is diagonalizable and  $A = PDP^{-1}$ . Then  $AP = PD$ , which from above gives

$$\begin{bmatrix} Az_1 & Az_2 & \cdots & Az_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 z_1 & \lambda_2 z_2 & \cdots & \lambda_n z_n \end{bmatrix},$$

or

$$Az_1 = \lambda_1 z_1, Az_2 = \lambda_2 z_2, \dots, Az_n = \lambda_n z_n.$$

Since  $P$  is invertible its columns are linearly independent. Since these columns are nonzero (otherwise they wouldn't be linearly independent), the above relations show that  $(\lambda_i, z_i)$  are eigenpairs for  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . So, a diagonalizable matrix has  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors, where the columns of  $P$  are these eigenvectors and the diagonal of  $D$  are the eigenvalues.

Now assume  $A$  has  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors  $z_1, \dots, z_n$  with eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ . Construct a matrix  $P = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 & z_2 & \cdots & z_n \end{bmatrix}$  and a diagonal matrix  $D = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ . Then from above we see that  $AP = PD$ , which is true without the eigenvectors being linearly independent. Since the eigenvectors are linearly independent,  $P$  is invertible and so  $A = PDP^{-1}$ . ■

**Lemma 0.7** *If  $A$  has  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors, then so does  $A^T$ .*

**Proof** Since  $A$  has  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors,  $A$  may be diagonalized as  $A = PDP^{-1}$ , where the columns of  $P$  are the linearly independent eigenvectors of  $A$  and the diagonal elements of  $D$  are the eigenvalues of  $A$ . Then  $A^T = (P^{-1})^T D P^T$ . By the above lemma, the columns of  $(P^{-1})^T$  are the  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors of  $A^T$ . ■

**Remark** The decomposition  $A^T = (P^{-1})^T D P^T$  is another way of showing  $A$  and  $A^T$  have the same set of eigenvalues, but relies on the fact that  $A$  has a full set of linearly independent eigenvectors.

**Proof** We have already argued the existence of a unique stationary distribution. For the convergence, note if  $\Pi$  has  $n$  linearly independent eigenvectors  $z_1, \dots, z_n$  then any element of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  may be written as a linear combination of eigenvectors. In particular, any initial probability mass function  $q_0$  may be written

$$q_0 = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i z_i,$$

where  $c_i \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, n$ . The pmf at time  $t = k$  is given by

$$q_k = \Pi q_{k-1}.$$

Note we can write  $q_k$  as

$$\begin{aligned} q_k &= \Pi q_{k-1} \\ &= \Pi^k q_0 \\ &= \Pi^k \sum_{i=1}^m c_i z_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m c_i \Pi^k z_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m c_i \lambda_i^k z_i. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\Pi$  is irreducible and aperiodic there is only one eigenvalue, say  $\lambda_1$ , with modulus 1, and all other have modulus strictly less than one. Hence

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} q_k = \sum_{i=1}^m c_i \lambda_i^k z_i = c_1 z_1.$$

Thus  $q := c_1 z_1$  is the unique stationary distribution that any initial distribution converges to. In particular since  $q$  is a pmf, the scaling factor  $c_1$  is simply the normalizing constant making the sum of the entries in  $z_1$  to be 1.  $\blacksquare$