

# Stationary Distributions for Random Markov Chains

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## 1 Introduction

The purpose of this note is to have written down some (very preliminary) work on the following problem. Consider a finite state space  $[n] = \{1, \dots, n\}$  equipped with a random Markov transition kernel — that is, a random row-stochastic matrix  $P \in [0, 1]^{n \times n}$ . What can we say about the stationary distribution  $\pi$ ? That a unique  $\pi$  exists almost surely can be easily guaranteed by a natural choice of distribution on  $P$ , which I consider here. Namely, we let the rows of  $P$  be independently Dirichlet.<sup>1</sup>

The rest of this note is organized as follows. I present the model and some of its easily identifiable properties in Section 2, followed by the conjecture on the distribution of  $\pi$  in Section 3. Next, Section 4 is devoted to explicitly finding the distribution of  $\pi$  when the number of states is  $n = 2$ . For ease of exposition I relegate to Section 5 some discussion of the fraction of relevant literature I have encountered so far [TODO] .

## 2 Some basic calculations

I apologize in advance to any reader for the slightly cumbersome notation.

With that caveat, let's fully state the model. Considering fixed  $\alpha_{ij} > 0$  for  $i, j \in [n]$ , the rows of  $P$  are independently sampled as

$$P_i \sim \text{Dir}(\alpha_{i1}, \dots, \alpha_{in}), \forall i \in [n].$$

We'll let  $\nu$  denote the distribution of  $P$ , and  $\rho$  the distribution of any of its rows. Given an initial state  $X_0$  (possibly random), the process  $(X_t : t \geq 0)$  is given by

$$\mathbb{P}(X_t = j | X_{t-1} = i, P = p) = p_{ij}.$$

To save on space, I will write  $X_s^t$  for the sequence  $(X_s, \dots, X_t)$ .

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<sup>1</sup>I owe my thanks to Jim Pitman for suggesting this setup.

“The most basic question” might be: how are sequences of states distributed? It is known that in a mixture of Markov chains, the initial state  $X_0$  together with the set of transition counts between pairs of states is a sufficient statistic (Diaconis and Freedman 1980). Letting  $c_{ij}(x_s^t) = |\{r \in [s, t-1] : x_{r+1} = i, x_r = j\}|$  be the count of  $i$ -to- $j$  transitions in  $x_s^t$ , we see this fact in our answer to the most basic question.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(X_1^t = x_1^t | X_0 = x_0) &= \int \mathbb{P}(X_1^t = x_1^t | X_0 = x_0, P = p) \nu(dp) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \int \prod_{j=1}^n p_{ij}^{c_{ij}(x_0^t)} \rho(dp_i) \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{B(c_{i1}(x_0^t) + \alpha_{i1}, \dots, c_{in}(x_0^t) + \alpha_{in})}{B(\alpha_{i1}, \dots, \alpha_{in})} \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

Here, I’m using the following notation for the “multivariate Beta” function

$$B(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_m) = \frac{\Gamma(\alpha_1) \cdots \Gamma(\alpha_m)}{\Gamma(\alpha_1 + \cdots + \alpha_m)}.$$

From (1) we can derive other expressions of interest, such as the predictive distribution

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{t+1} = x_{t+1} | X_0^t = x_0^t) = \frac{c_{x_t x_{t+1}}(x_0^t) + \alpha_{x_t x_{t+1}}}{\sum_{j=1}^n c_{x_t j}(x_0^t) + \alpha_{x_t j}} \tag{2}$$

and the posterior density for  $P$  with respect to Lebesgue measure  $\lambda$  on the set  $\{p \in [0, 1]^{n \times n} : \sum_{j=1}^n p_{ij} = 1 \forall i \in [n]\}$  given an observed sequence  $x_0^t$ ,

$$\frac{d\nu(p|x_0^t)}{d\lambda} = \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{\prod_{j=1}^n p_{ij}^{c_{ij}(x_0^t) + \alpha_{ij} - 1}}{B(\sum_{k=1}^n c_{ik}(x_0^t) + \alpha_{ik})}. \tag{3}$$

(Actually, the posterior can of course be derived directly.)

Equation (2) shows that we can view  $(X_t : t \geq 0)$  as coming from an urn model. Namely, imagine we have  $n$  urns, each containing balls of  $n$  different colors: the  $i$ -th urn starts out with  $\alpha_{ij}$  balls of color  $j$ . (We allow fractional ball counts here.) Then (2) describes the sequence of colors drawn when, starting from urn  $X_0$ , we draw a ball at random of color  $X_1$  and replace two balls of that color in the urn, then move to the urn numbered  $X_1$  and repeat. Equivalently, we can also view this process as an *edge-reinforced* random walk on a directed graph of  $n$  vertices with initial weight  $\alpha_{ij}$  on edge  $(i, j)$ , where upon traversing any edge we increase its weight by one.

Let’s turn our attention now to the main goal: the random stationary distribution  $\pi$ . Since  $P$  is almost surely irreducible, the ergodic theorem guarantees that as  $t \rightarrow \infty$

$$\frac{\sum_{j=1}^n c_{ij}(X_0^t)}{t} \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} \pi(i).$$

This motivates writing down one more expression: the probability of a given number of occurrences of a state  $k$  up to but not including time  $t$ , or equivalently, the number of transitions out of  $k$  up to time  $t$ . Let

$$\mathcal{P}_k(s, t) = \left\{ x_0^t \in [n]^{t+1} : \sum_{j=1}^n c_{ij}(X_0^t) = s \right\}$$

be the set of paths  $x_0^t$  for which out of the  $t$  total transitions,  $s$  were from state  $k$ . Then

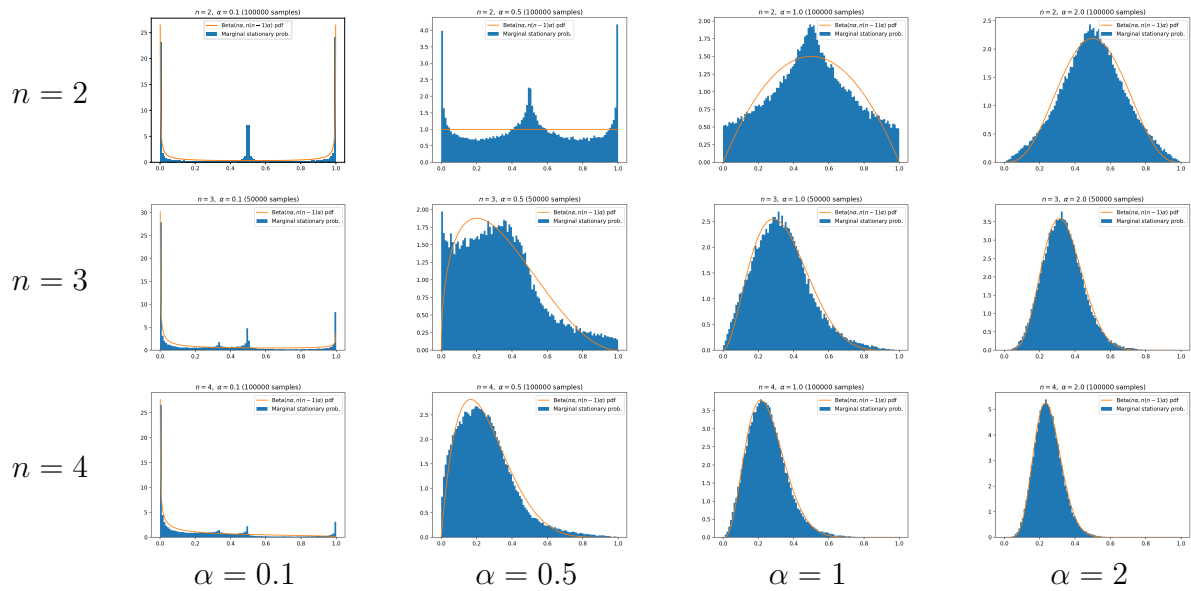
$$\mathbb{P} \left( \sum_{j=1}^n c_{kj}(X_0^t) = s \right) = \sum_{x_0^t \in \mathcal{P}_k(s, t)} \mathbb{P}(X_0 = x_0) \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{B(c_{i1}(x_0^t) + \alpha_{i1}, \dots, c_{in}(x_0^t) + \alpha_{in})}{B(\alpha_{i1}, \dots, \alpha_{in})} \quad (4)$$

follows from (1). We thus have a first characterization of the distribution of  $\pi$

$$\mathbb{P}(\pi(k) \leq r) = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{s=0}^{\lfloor rt \rfloor} \sum_{x_0^t \in \mathcal{P}_k(s, t)} \mathbb{P}(X_0 = x_0) \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{B(c_{i1}(x_0^t) + \alpha_{i1}, \dots, c_{in}(x_0^t) + \alpha_{in})}{B(\alpha_{i1}, \dots, \alpha_{in})}. \quad (5)$$

### 3 A conjecture

I think it's uncontroversial to call (5) unsatisfying. Fortunately, it's rather easy to investigate  $\pi$  directly through simulation. We don't even need to run the Markov chain; we just sample  $P$  and find its left eigenvector  $\pi$  of eigenvalue 1, and plot the histogram of values of  $\pi(1)$ , say. Below are these exact plots, where the Dirichlet distributions are identically symmetric, that is  $\alpha_{ij} = \alpha$  for all  $i, j$ .



The orange lines are density functions of  $\text{Beta}(n\alpha, n(n-1)\alpha)$ . These would be the marginals  $\pi(1)$  if  $\pi \sim \text{Dir}(n\alpha\vec{1})$ . The empirical densities seem to match these orange lines both as  $n$  increases and as  $\alpha$  increases, giving us the following conjecture.

**Conjecture 1.** Let  $P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  with i.i.d. rows  $P_i \sim \text{Dir}(\alpha \vec{1})$  for some  $\alpha > 0$ . Then for  $\pi$  the unique probability distribution such that  $\pi = \pi P$ , we have

$$d(\mathcal{L}(\pi), \text{Dir}(n\alpha \vec{1})) \rightarrow 0$$

both as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and as  $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$ , for some distance between distributions  $d$ . Furthermore, this convergence happens “quickly.”

A couple notes on this conjecture. First, I believe it’s natural to consider a fixed symmetric Dirichlet as the distribution of i.i.d. rows of  $P$ , as a way to encode the idea that no state is “special.” Secondly, a restricted version of this conjecture, with  $\alpha = 1$  fixed, has been made by Bordenave, Caputo, and Chafai (2008), but as far as I know no work has been published towards its proof (or disproof).

## 4 The case of two states

In the case that  $n = 2$ , it’s straightforward to find the distribution of  $\pi(1)$  explicitly. We can write

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \theta_1 & \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 & 1 - \theta_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

where  $\theta_1 \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha_{11}, \alpha_{12})$  and  $\theta_2 \sim \text{Beta}(\alpha_{21}, \alpha_{22})$  are independent. Some linear algebra shows that

$$\pi(1) = \frac{\theta_2}{\theta_1 + \theta_2} \qquad \pi(2) = \frac{\theta_1}{\theta_1 + \theta_2}.$$

It can be shown (see Pham-Gia (2000)) that  $\pi(1)$  has density at  $t$  of

$$\frac{t^{\alpha_{21}-1}(1-t)^{\alpha_{21}+1} \text{B}(\alpha_{11} + \alpha_{21}, \alpha_{12}) {}_2F_1\left(\alpha_{11} + \alpha_{21}, 1 - \alpha_{22}; \alpha_{11} + \alpha_{21} + \alpha_{12}; \frac{t}{1-t}\right)}{\text{B}(\alpha_{11}, \alpha_{12}) \text{B}(\alpha_{21}, \alpha_{22})}$$

for  $t \in (0, 1/2]$  and

$$\frac{t^{-(\alpha_{11}+1)}(1-t)^{\alpha_{11}-1} \text{B}(\alpha_{11} + \alpha_{21}, \alpha_{22}) {}_2F_1\left(\alpha_{11} + \alpha_{21}, 1 - \alpha_{12}; \alpha_{11} + \alpha_{21} + \alpha_{22}; \frac{t}{1-t}\right)}{\text{B}(\alpha_{11}, \alpha_{12}) \text{B}(\alpha_{21}, \alpha_{22})}$$

for  $t \in [1/2, 1]$ , where

$${}_2F_1(a, b; c; x) = \sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{a^{(m)} b^{(m)} x^m}{c^{(m)} m!} = \int_0^1 \frac{u^{a-1} (1-u)^{c-a-1} (1-xu)^{-b}}{\text{B}(a, c-a)} du$$

is the ordinary hypergeometric function. (As is common, if not standard,  $a^{(m)}$  refers to the  $m$ -th rising factorial of  $a$ .)

At the moment, it is unclear to me whether the expression above is helpful in proving Conjecture 1 for fixed  $n = 2$  — probably in large part due to my unfamiliarity with the hypergeometric function. Furthermore, I don’t see how the above might generalize to  $n > 2$ .

## 5 Some relevant work and ideas

TODO

### References

- Bordenave, Charles, Pietro Caputo, and Djalil Chafai (2008). “Circular Law Theorem for Random Markov Matrices”. In: May 2010. DOI: 10.1007/s00440-010-0336-1. arXiv: 0808.1502. URL: <http://arxiv.org/abs/0808.1502%7B%5C%%7D0Ahttp://dx.doi.org/10.1007/s00440-010-0336-1>.
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