

Continuous Time Markov Chains

Continuous time Markov chains have steady state probability solutions if and only if they are ergodic, just like discrete time Markov chains. Finding the steady state probability vector for a continuous time Markov chain is no more difficult than it is in the discrete time case, but the matrix equation that we use is, at least on the surface, significantly different from that used for discrete time chains. Ultimately, however, the methods come down to the same basic idea – for a Markov chain, discrete or continuous time, to have a steady state solution, the rate at which the chain makes transitions into any given state must equal the rate at which the chain makes transitions out of that same state. This notion, as we will see, is explicit in the matrix equation for continuous time chains.

Think of it in terms of pouring water into a bucket with a hole in the bottom. If we pour water into the bucket more slowly than it can drain through the hole, the bucket never has any water in it. If we pour faster than the water can drain, the level of the water in the bucket keeps getting higher and higher (until it finally starts flowing over the sides, but we'll assume we have an infinitely deep bucket). For a Markov chain, the "level of water in the bucket" is analogous to the probability of being in a state. A stable water level is analogous to the probability for that state having a steady state value.

One important distinction between discrete time and continuous time Markov chains is that the latter are, by definition, aperiodic. This is because the time between state changes is exponentially distributed, making it impossible to restrict state changes to occur only at regularly spaced intervals. However, the more important distinction has to do with how we deal with the state transition probabilities. The idea of a "single step transition probability" no longer makes sense, since we don't have the notion of a step.

Define

$$h_{jk}(t_1, t_2) \equiv \Pr[S(t_2) = k | S(t_1) = j], \quad t_2 \geq t_1.$$
$$\underline{H}(t_1, t_2) \equiv [h_{jk}(t_1, t_2)]$$

For a homogeneous Markov chain, the transition probabilities are functions only of the difference $t_2 - t_1$:

$$\underline{H}(t_1, t_2) = \underline{H}(0, t_2 - t_1) \quad \forall t_1, t_2 \text{ s.t. } t_2 \geq t_1 \geq 0.$$

All of the Markov chains we consider will be homogeneous, unless stated otherwise.

Assume that $t_2 - t_1 = \Delta t$ is small.

Recall that in a continuous time Markov chain, the time between state transitions is memoryless and hence is exponentially distributed. This implies that the transition times are generated by a Poisson process.

A Poisson process can be defined in several ways. We will use the following set of axioms:

1. $\Pr[1 \text{ event in an interval of length } \Delta t \rightarrow 0] = \lambda \Delta t.$
2. $\Pr[0 \text{ events in an interval of length } \Delta t \rightarrow 0] = 1 - \lambda \Delta t - o((\Delta t)^2).$
3. Events are independent.

The first axiom says that the probability of one event occurring in a very short interval is proportional to the length of the interval. The second axiom states that the probability of no Poisson events occurring during a very short interval is one minus the probability of one event minus a term which is $o((\Delta t)^2)$. The "little o" notation means that $\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} o((\Delta t)^2)/\Delta t = 0$. Note that λ has units of probability divided by time, or rate of change of probability.

Define $P_i(t) \equiv \Pr[i \text{ events in an interval of length } t]$. Here t may be arbitrarily large. We can determine these probabilities for all values of i by starting at $i = 0$ and working up.

$$\begin{aligned} P_0(t + \Delta t) &= P_0(t) \cdot P_0(\Delta t) \\ &= P_0(t) [1 - \lambda \Delta t - o((\Delta t)^2)] \end{aligned}$$

The last substitution relies on Δt being very small. Manipulating this equation and dividing both sides by Δt ,

$$\frac{P_0(t + \Delta t) - P_0(t)}{\Delta t} = -\lambda P_0(t) - \frac{o((\Delta t)^2)}{\Delta t} P_0(t)$$

Taking the limit of both sides of the equation as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$, we get

$$\frac{d}{dt} \{P_0(t)\} = -\lambda P_0(t)$$

The solution to this linear, first-order, time-invariant differential equation is

$$P_0(t) = ke^{-\lambda t}$$

for some constant k . To determine k , note that the probability of 0 events in 0 time is 1:

$$P_0(0) = 1 = ke^{-\lambda \cdot 0} = k$$

Now consider $i = 1$.

$$\begin{aligned} P_1(t + \Delta t) &= P_1(t) \cdot P_0(\Delta t) + P_0(t) \cdot P_1(\Delta t) \\ &= P_1(t)[1 - \lambda\Delta t] + e^{-\lambda t} \cdot \lambda\Delta t \end{aligned}$$

Note that we have dropped the $o((\Delta t)^2)$ from the expression for $P_0(\Delta t)$. We are going to be playing the same game as before (dividing by Δt and taking the limit as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$), and the $o((\Delta t)^2)$ will disappear anyway.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{P_1(t + \Delta t) - P_1(t)}{\Delta t} &= \lambda e^{-\lambda t} - \lambda P_1(t) \\ \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{P_1(t + \Delta t) - P_1(t)}{\Delta t} &= \lambda e^{-\lambda t} - \lambda P_1(t) \\ \frac{d}{dt} \{P_1(t)\} &= \lambda e^{-\lambda t} - \lambda P_1(t) \end{aligned}$$

which has the solution

$$P_1(t) = \lambda t e^{-\lambda t}$$

In general, for $i \geq 1$,

$$\begin{aligned} P_i(t + \Delta t) &= P_i(t) \cdot P_0(\Delta t) + P_{i-1}(t) \cdot P_1(\Delta t) \\ &= P_i(t)[1 - \lambda\Delta t] + P_{i-1}(t) \cdot \lambda\Delta t \\ \frac{d}{dt} \{P_i(t)\} &= \lambda P_{i-1}(t) - \lambda P_i(t) \\ P_i(t) &= \frac{(\lambda t)^i e^{-\lambda t}}{i!} \end{aligned}$$

You can verify this solution by substituting in the differential equation.

This shows that the probability of i events in an interval of length t has a *Poisson distribution*, with λ the *rate* or *parameter* of the distribution. Accordingly, the probability of n events in Δt is proportional to $(\Delta t)^n$ for small Δt (just use a power series expansion for $e^{-\lambda\Delta t}$).

To show the connection between the Poisson process and the exponential distribution, we need to prove that the time between Poisson events is exponentially distributed. Let X be the random variable for the time between two consecutive events of a Poisson process.

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr[X \leq t] &= 1 - \Pr[X > t] \\ &= 1 - \Pr[0 \text{ events in } t] = 1 - P_0(t) = 1 - e^{-\lambda t} \\ &= F_X(t)\end{aligned}$$

$F_X(t)$ is the cumulative distribution function for an exponentially distributed random variable X .

Returning to the discussion of homogeneous Markov chains, let $\underline{p}(t)$ be the state probability vector at time t . Because the probability of n events in Δt is proportional to $(\Delta t)^n$ for small Δt , the probability of 1 as opposed to more than 1 event dominates as Δt gets close to 0 (not surprising - it is a Poisson process, after all). Hence, as $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$, $\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \underline{H}(t, t + \Delta t) = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \underline{H}(0, \Delta t)$ can be thought of as the single-step transition matrix for the continuous time Markov chain. Then

$$\begin{aligned}\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \underline{p}(t) \cdot \underline{H}(0, \Delta t) &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \underline{p}(t + \Delta t) \\ \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\underline{p}(t) \cdot \underline{H}(0, \Delta t) - \underline{p}(t)}{\Delta t} &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\underline{p}(t + \Delta t) - \underline{p}(t)}{\Delta t} \\ \underline{p}(t) \cdot \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\underline{H}(0, \Delta t) - \underline{I}}{\Delta t} &= \frac{d}{dt} \{ \underline{p}(t) \} \\ \underline{p}(t) \cdot \underline{Q} &= \frac{d}{dt} \{ \underline{p}(t) \}\end{aligned}$$

where $\underline{Q} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\underline{H}(0, \Delta t) - \underline{I}}{\Delta t}$ is the *transition rate matrix* or *rate generator matrix* or simply the *generator matrix* of the homogeneous continuous time Markov chain. The off-diagonal elements of \underline{Q} are

$$q_{jk} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{h_{jk}(0, \Delta t)}{\Delta t}, \quad j \neq k$$

As noted above, these are *not* probabilities; they are instantaneous rates of change in probability. Because the chain is homogeneous and must be memoryless,

$$\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} h_{jk}(0, \Delta t) = \lambda_{jk} \Delta t$$

and hence

$$q_{jk} = \lambda_{jk}$$

λ_{jk} is the rate of the Poisson process governing transitions from state j to state k . What are the q_{jj} s, the diagonal elements of the generator matrix?

$$q_{jj} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{h_{jj}(0, \Delta t) - 1}{\Delta t}$$

$h_{jj}(0, \Delta t)$ is the probability that the Markov chain is in state j at time Δt , given that it was in state j at time 0 (or, since this is a homogeneous chain, it is the probability that the Markov chain is in state j at time $t + \Delta t$, given that it was in state j at time t). Since the chain must be in *some* state at time Δt , given that it was in state j at time 0,

$$h_{jj}(0, \Delta t) = 1 - \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^n h_{jk}(0, \Delta t)$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} h_{jj}(0, \Delta t) &= 1 - \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^n h_{jk}(0, \Delta t) \\ &= 1 - \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^n \lambda_{jk} \Delta t = 1 - \lambda_j \Delta t \end{aligned}$$

where $\lambda_j = \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq k}}^n \lambda_{jk}$ is the sum of the rates of the Poisson processes governing the

transitions *out* of state j . Substituting this into the expression for q_{jj} and again using the homogeneity of the Markov chain, we get

$$q_{jj} = \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \lambda_j \Delta t - 1}{\Delta t} = -\lambda_j$$

Take a moment to consider λ_j . Let $\{X_1, K, X_n\}$ be a set of independent, exponentially distributed random variables with rates λ_1, K, λ_n , and let $X \equiv \min\{X_1, K, X_n\}$.

$$\begin{aligned}
\Pr[X > t] &= \Pr[X_1 > t \& X_2 > t \& K \& X_n > t] \\
&= \Pr[X_1 > t] \cdot \Pr[X_2 > t] \cdot K \cdot \Pr[X_n > t] \\
&= e^{-\lambda_1 t} \cdot e^{-\lambda_2 t} \cdot K \cdot e^{-\lambda_n t} = e^{-\lambda t}
\end{aligned}$$

where $\lambda = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + K + \lambda_n$. Hence X is also exponentially distributed, with parameter (rate) λ . This says that λ_j is the rate of an exponentially distributed random variable that is the minimum of the random variables representing the times until transitions from state j to all other states. That is, λ_j is the rate of an exponentially distributed random variable that represents the time spent in state j . One way to look at it is that λ_j is the rate at which probability mass "leaves" state j .

We're almost there. So far, we have

$$\underline{p}(t) \cdot \underline{Q} = \frac{d}{dt} \{ \underline{p}(t) \}$$

We are interested in the steady-state probability vector $\underline{\pi} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \underline{p}(t)$.

$$\underline{\pi} \cdot \underline{Q} = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{d}{dt} \{ \underline{p}(t) \} = \frac{d}{dt} \left\{ \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \underline{p}(t) \right\} = \frac{d}{dt} \{ \underline{\pi} \} = \underline{0}$$

since the derivative of the steady-state probability vector is by definition the 0 vector.

The matrix equation $\underline{\pi} \cdot \underline{Q} = \underline{0}$ for continuous time Markov chains is the analog of $\underline{\pi} \cdot \underline{P} = \underline{\pi}$ for discrete time Markov chains. The two matrices are quite different. The elements of \underline{P} are probabilities; the elements of \underline{Q} are rates of change in probability. However, both matrices are singular, since each row of \underline{P} sums to 1 and each row of \underline{Q} sums to 0.

In the discrete case, $\underline{\pi} \cdot \underline{P} = \underline{\pi}$ can be interpreted as meaning that the rate at which the chain makes transitions "into" each state i is equal to the rate at which the chain makes transitions "out of" state i . The quotes are because we are including transitions from state i to state i in both cases. That is, another way of looking at the Chapman-Kolmogorov equation for state i is to rewrite it as:

$$p_{1i} \cdot \pi_1 + p_{2i} \cdot \pi_2 + p_{3i} \cdot \pi_3 + K = (p_{i1} + p_{i2} + p_{i3} + K) \pi_i$$

where the expression in parentheses on the right hand side includes p_{ii} and the sum on the left hand side includes the term $p_{ii} \cdot \pi_i$. The expression in parentheses on the right hand side sums to 1, giving us the standard form of the

Chapman-Kolmogorov equation for this state. Since in the discrete case, the chain makes a transition on every step, even if it is a transition back to the same state, $\underline{\pi} \cdot \underline{P} = \underline{\pi}$ can also be interpreted as a rate balance equation. It equates the rate at which transitions are made into state i with the rate at which transitions are made out of state i .