

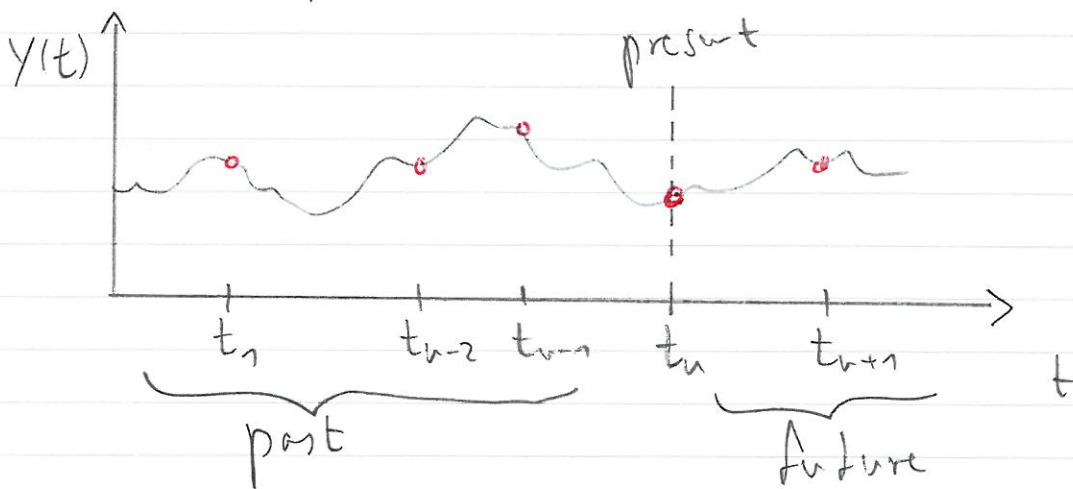
3° Markov processes

a) The Markov property

Def.: A stochastic process is Markovian if

$$\textcircled{M} \quad P_{1/n}(y_{n+1}, t_{n+1} | y_1, t_1; \dots; y_n, t_n) = P_{1/n}(y_{n+1}, t_{n+1} | y_n, t_n)$$

for all n , $\{y_i\}$, $\{t_i\}$. In words: Conditioned on the present (y_n, t_n) , the past and the future are independent.



Compared to complete independence

$$P_{1/n}(y_{n+1}, t_{n+1} | y_1, t_1; \dots; y_n, t_n) = P_n(y_{n+1}, t_{n+1})$$

which is not possible for "reasonable" (e.g., continuous) processes,

(M) implies that Markov processes have a minimal, 1-step memory.

A Markov process is completely determined by

- the 1-point distribution fct. $P_1(y, t)$
- the transition probability $P_{1n}(y, t | y', t')$

Using (M), all higher order distribution fct. can be constructed:

$$P_2(y_1, t_1; y_2, t_2) = P_{1n}(y_2, t_2 | y_1, t_1) P_1(y_1, t_1)$$

$$P_3(y_1, t_1; y_2, t_2; y_3, t_3) = P_{112}(y_3, t_3 | y_1, t_1; y_2, t_2) \times$$

$$\times P_2(y_1, t_1; y_2, t_2) \stackrel{(M)}{=} P_{1n}(y_3, t_3 | y_2, t_2) P_2(y_1, t_1; y_2, t_2) =$$

$$= P_{1n}(y_3, t_3 | y_2, t_2) P_{1n}(y_2, t_2 | y_1, t_1) P_1(y_1, t_1)$$

so that in general

$$P_n(y_1, t_1; \dots; y_n, t_n) = \left[\prod_{k=1}^{n-1} P_{1n}(y_{k+1}, t_{k+1} | y_k, t_k) \right] P_1(y_1, t_1)$$

Remarks: (i) First order ODE's are deterministic

Markov processes:

$\dot{x} = f(x, t) \Rightarrow$ solution with $x(t_0) = x_0$ is

$$x(t) = \phi(x_0, t_0, t)$$

$\Rightarrow$ transition probability,

$$P_{111}(x, t | x_0, t_0) = \delta(x - \phi(x_0, t_0, t))$$

(ii) The transition probability evolves the 1-step distribution function in time:

Suppose $P_1(y_1, t_1)$ is known, then for $t_2 > t_1$

$$P_1(y_2, t_2) = \int dy_1 P_2(y_1, t_1; y_2, t_2) =$$

$$= \int dy_1 P_{111}(y_2, t_2 | y_1, t_1) P_1(y_1, t_1)$$

which is not restricted to Markov processes.

Any pair of functions P_1, P_{11} that satisfy $\textcircled{T}$ and $\textcircled{CK}$ uniquely define a Markov process.

Examples: (i) Poisson process: The state space are the nonnegative integers, $Y(t) = N_{[0,t]} = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ and the transition probability is

$$P_{11}(N_2, t_2 | N_1, t_1) = \text{Prob}[N_2 - N_1 \text{ events in } (t_1, t_2)] \\ = e^{-p(t_2 - t_1)} \frac{[p(t_2 - t_1)]^{N_2 - N_1}}{(N_2 - N_1)!}$$

and the initial condition: $P_1(N, 0) = \delta_{N,0}$.

(ii) Wiener process: $[Y(t) \in \mathbb{R}, t \geq 0, Y(0) = 0]$

Transition probability:

$$\begin{cases} P_{11}(y_2, t_2 | y_1, t_1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(t_2 - t_1)}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y_2 - y_1)^2}{2(t_2 - t_1)}\right) \\ P_1(y, 0) = \delta(y) \end{cases}$$

Problem: Verify that these processes satisfy CK-equation

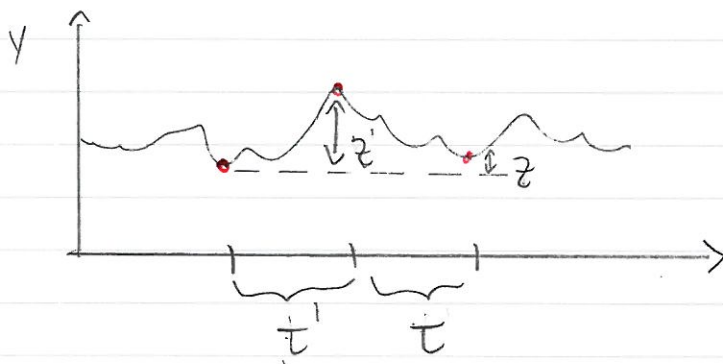
c) Markov processes with stationary increments

A Markov process is called homogeneous if $P_{11}(y, t | y', t')$ depends only on the time difference $t - t'$. The examples (i), (ii) above are in addition translationally invariant in y , i.e.

$$\underline{P_{11}(y, t | y', t') = \Phi(y - y', t - t')}$$

The CK-eq. then becomes a functional equation for Φ :

$$\Phi(z, \tau + \tau') = \int dz' \Phi(z', \tau') \Phi(z - z', \tau)$$



Introducing the generating fct.

$$G(k, \tau) = \int dz \Phi(z, \tau) e^{ikz}$$

the convolution becomes

$$\underline{G(k, \tau + \tau') = G(k, \tau) G(k, \tau')}$$

analogous to the addition of i.i.d. RV's.

The general solution is $G(k, \tau) = e^{-\tau \phi(k)}$.

A particular class of processes are the Lévy processes

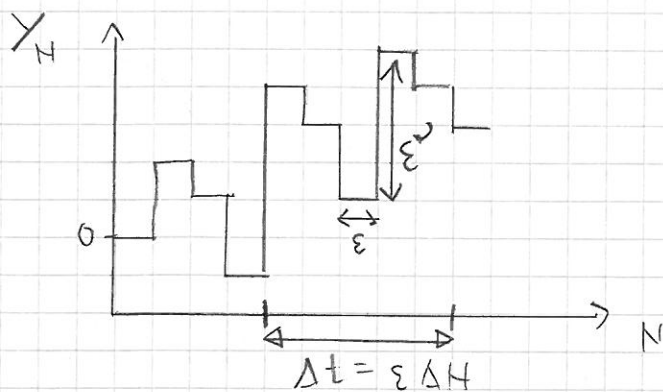
$$\left. \begin{aligned} \Phi_\alpha(z, \tau) &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int dk e^{-ikz} e^{-(\tau|k|)^\alpha} \\ G_\alpha(k, \tau) &= e^{-(\tau|k|)^\alpha} \end{aligned} \right\}$$

which arise as a continuous limit of the Lévy flights defined in I.2°.

Special cases: $\alpha = 2 \Rightarrow$ Wiener process

$$\alpha = 1: \quad F_1(z, \tau) = \frac{C\tau}{\pi} \frac{1}{C^2\tau^2 + z^2} \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Cauchy} \\ \text{process} \end{array} \right\}$$

The continuous limit requires a rescaling
of time and "space" y :



$$\begin{cases} Y_N = \sum_{i=1}^N X_i \\ f(x) \sim |x|^{-(\alpha+1)}, \text{ symmetric} \end{cases}$$

Continuous limit : $\epsilon \rightarrow 0, N \rightarrow \infty$ at fixed $t = N\epsilon$

To obtain a non-degenerate limit, define the stochastic process

$$Y(t) := \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \epsilon^\nu Y_{t/\epsilon} = t^\nu \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} N^{-\nu} Y_N$$

We know that $\nu = \max[1/2, 1/\alpha]$. For $\alpha < 2$

$$\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} N^{-1/\alpha} Y_N = Z \quad \text{Lévy RV with pdf}$$

$$f_\alpha(z) = \frac{1}{2i\pi} \int dk e^{-ikz} e^{-c|k|^\alpha}$$

$$= L_{\alpha,0}(z) \quad \text{Lévy stable law}$$

Since $\Phi_\alpha(y,t)$ is the pdf of the rescaled increments of the process, it follows that

$$\Phi_\alpha(y,t) = t^{-1/\alpha} L_{\alpha,0}(y/t^{1/\alpha}) =$$

$$= t^{-1/\alpha} \cdot \frac{1}{2i\pi} \int dk e^{-iky/t^{1/\alpha}} e^{-c|k|^\alpha} =$$

$$= \frac{1}{2i\pi} \int dk e^{-iky} e^{-ct|k|^\alpha}. \quad \square$$

d) Stationary Markov processes

In the stationary case we have

$$\left. \begin{aligned} P_1(y, t) &= P_1(y), \\ P_{11}(y, t | y', t') &= T_{t-t'}(y | y') \end{aligned} \right\}$$

and the relations $\textcircled{T}$ and $\textcircled{CK}$ reduce to

$$\textcircled{CK} \quad T_{t+\tau}(y | y') = \int dy'' T_\tau(y | y'') T_t(y'' | y')$$

$$\textcircled{T} \quad \underline{P_1(y) = \int dy' T_\tau(y | y') P_1(y')}$$

$\Rightarrow P_1$ is the right eigenfunction of the time evolution operator with eigenvalue 1.

Moreover

$$\begin{aligned} \int dy T_\tau(y | y') &= \int dy \frac{P_2(y, t; y', t+\tau)}{P_1(y', t+\tau)} = \\ &= P_1(y') / P_1(y') = 1 \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow$ the left eigenfunction of $T_\tau(y | y')$ is the constant function.

Example: Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process

$$P_1(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-y^2/2}$$

$$T_\tau(y|y') = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(1-e^{-2\tau})}} \exp\left[-\frac{(y - e^{-\tau}y')^2}{2(1-e^{-2\tau})}\right]$$

e) Markov chains

A Markov chain is a homogeneous Markov process with

- discrete state space (finite or infinite)
- discrete time $t \in \mathbb{Z}$.

The CK-equation then implies

$$T_{\tau+1}(y|y') = \sum_{y''} T_\tau(y|y'') T_1(y''|y')$$

matrix multiplication

$$\Rightarrow \underline{T_\tau(y|y') = (T_1)^\tau(y|y')}$$

where the 1-step transition matrix T_1 satisfies

- $T_1(y|y') \geq 0$
- $\sum_y T_1(y|y') = 1$

} In the finite dimensional case such matrices are called stochastic.

The stationary distribution $P_s(y)$ is the right eigenvector of T_1

$$\sum_{y'} T_1(y|y') P_s(y') = P_s(y)$$

and is guaranteed to exist = the finite-dim. case. Moreover the Pontryagin-Frobenius theorem implies uniqueness of P_s and convergence,

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} (T_1)^t P_1(y, 0) = P_s(y)$$

for any $P_1(y, 0)$, provided T_1 is irreducible (= every state is connected to every other state).

f.) Stationary, Gaussian Markov processes

Recall the following facts:

- A Gaussian process is uniquely specified by $K(t_1, t_2)$ and $\langle Y(t) \rangle$
- For a stationary process $\langle Y(t) \rangle = \bar{Y} = \text{const.}$ and $K(t_1, t_2) = K(|t_1 - t_2|)$
- By shifting and rescaling $Y(t)$ we can achieve that $\bar{Y} = 0$, $\sigma^2 = K(0) = 1$

$\Rightarrow$ a stationary Gaussian process is uniquely determined by a single, symmetric function $K(\tau)$ with $K(0) = 1$.

Under what condition a $K(\tau)$ is a stationary, Gaussian process also Markovian?

Theorem (Doob): The Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process is the unique stationary, Gaussian Markov process.

Sketch of proof: For a stationary, Gaussian process with $\bar{y} = 0$, $\sigma^2 = 1$ we have

$$P_1(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-y^2/2}$$

and the most general ansatz for the transition probability, reads

$$\underline{T_\tau(y|y') = D \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(Ay^2 + 2Byy' + Cy'^2)\right]}$$

with τ -dependent coefficients A, B, C, D .

Using the condition

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy \, T_\tau(y|y') &= 1 \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy' \, T_\tau(y|y') P_1(y') &= P_1(y) \end{aligned} \right\}$$

one finds that

$$\underline{T_{\tau}(y|y') = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi(1-\kappa^2)}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y-\kappa y')^2}{2(1-\kappa^2)}\right)}$$

with a single parameter $\kappa = \kappa(\tau)$. Inserting this into the CK-equation yields

$$\kappa(\tau + \tau') = \kappa(\tau) \kappa(\tau') \quad \forall \tau, \tau'$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{\kappa(\tau) = e^{-\lambda|\tau|}}, \quad \lambda > 0.$$

For $\lambda=1$ this is the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process. □

4° Continuity, differentiability and zero crossings

a) Notions of continuity for stochastic processes

A. Every realization $Y_x(t)$ is everywhere continuous

B. Almost sure continuity (cont. in probability)

$$\text{"Prob}[Y_x(t) \text{ is discontinuous}] = 0 \text{"}$$

For Markov processes this can be quantified by the Lindeberg condition

$$\lim_{\tau \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\tau} \int_{|y_2 - y_1| \geq \epsilon} dy_2 P_{1n}(y_2, t+\tau | y_1, t) = 0 \quad \forall \epsilon > 0$$

$\Rightarrow$ probability of a jump in an interval of size τ vanishes faster than τ .

C. Continuity in the mean:

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \langle (Y(t+\varepsilon) - Y(t))^2 \rangle = 0$$

For a stationary process we have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle (Y(t+\varepsilon) - Y(t))^2 \rangle &= 2 \langle Y^2 \rangle - 2 \langle Y(t+\varepsilon)Y(t) \rangle \\ &= 2(K(0) - K(\varepsilon)) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow$ continuity in the mean implies that $K(\tau)$ is continuous at $\tau=0$.

The three notions of continuity are clearly different, with $A. \Rightarrow B. \Rightarrow C.$

Examples:

(i) Telegraph process: $K(\tau) = e^{-2g(\tau)}$

$\Rightarrow$ process is continuous in the mean, because the discontinuities form a set of zero measure.

On the other hand

$$\text{Prob} [|Y(t+\tau) - Y(t)| > \varepsilon] =$$

$$= \text{Prob} [\text{odd number of jumps in } (t, t+\tau)] =$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (1 - e^{-2g\tau})$$

Problem

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{\tau \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\tau} \text{Pr}[\lvert Y(t+\tau) - Y(t) \rvert > \varepsilon] = \rho > 0$$

$\Rightarrow$ process is discontinuous in the sense of B.

(ii) Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process: $X(\tau) = X(0) e^{-\lambda \tau}$

$\Rightarrow$ continuity in the mean holds as in (i).

On the other hand, the transition probability for $\tau \rightarrow 0$ is

$$T_{\tau}(y \mid y') = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi\tau}} e^{-\frac{(y-y')^2}{4\tau}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Pr}[\lvert Y(t+\tau) - Y(t) \rvert > \varepsilon] =$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi\tau}} \int_{\varepsilon}^{\infty} dy e^{-y^2/4\tau} = \left[x = \frac{y}{2\sqrt{\tau}} \right]$$

$$= \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{\varepsilon/2\sqrt{\tau}}^{\infty} dx e^{-x^2} \underset{\tau \rightarrow 0}{\approx} \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{\sqrt{\tau}}{\varepsilon} e^{-\varepsilon^2/4\tau}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{\tau \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\tau} \text{Pr}[\lvert Y(t+\tau) - Y(t) \rvert > \varepsilon] =$$

$$= \lim_{\tau \rightarrow 0} \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{1}{\varepsilon\sqrt{\tau}} e^{-\varepsilon^2/4\tau} = 0$$

$\Rightarrow$ process is continuous in the sense of B.

The same argument holds for the Wiener process (Brownian motion).

(iii) Lévy - processes :

In this case $P_{1n}(y, t+\tau | y', t) = \Phi_\alpha(y-y', \tau)$
with

$$\Phi_\alpha(y, \tau) = \tau^{-1/\alpha} L_{\alpha,0}(y/\tau^{1/\alpha})$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \text{Prob}[|Y(t+\tau) - Y(t)| > \varepsilon] &= \\ &= 2 \int_{\varepsilon}^{\infty} dy \Phi_\alpha(y, \tau) = 2 \int_{\varepsilon/\tau^{1/\alpha}}^{\infty} dx L_{\alpha,0}(x) \end{aligned}$$

For large arguments the Lévy stable pdf behaves as

$$L_{\alpha,0}(x) \sim |x|^{-(\alpha+1)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Prob}[|Y(t+\tau) - Y(t)| > \varepsilon] \sim \int_{\varepsilon/\tau^{1/\alpha}}^{\infty} dx x^{-(\alpha+1)}$$

$$\sim \left(\frac{\varepsilon}{\tau^{1/\alpha}} \right)^{-\alpha} = \frac{\tau}{\varepsilon^\alpha}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim_{\tau \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\tau} \text{Prob}[|Y(t+\tau) - Y(t)| > \varepsilon] \sim \varepsilon^{-\alpha} > 0$$

$\Rightarrow$ Lévy process is discontinuous in the sense of R., and jumps of size $> \varepsilon$ occur with probability $\sim \varepsilon^{-\alpha}$.

Continuity in the mean cannot be applied, because $\chi(\tau)$ does not exist.