



Purines A,G  
Pyrimidines C,T

No Action	0.9
Transition	0.06
Transversion	0.02

Some Questions:

- If we know that  $X_n = A$ , what do we expect  $X_{n+1}$  to be?
- If we know that  $X_{n-3} = T$ , what do we expect  $X_{n+1}$  to be?
- If we know that  $X_{n-3} = T$  and that  $X_n = A$ , what do we expect  $X_{n+1}$  to be?

- In general, past outcomes contain information on future outcomes.
- The older an outcome is the less it affects the future.
- But, if we know the present state (character)  $X_n$  then all past states ( $X_{n-3}$ ) have absolutely no influence on future outcomes ( $X_{n+1}$ ).  
(That is the way the experiment is designed)
- Or in other words:  
The future is independent of the past given the present.
- Stochastic processes with this property are called Markov Processes.

- The experiment is driven by the conditional probabilities  $P[X_{n+1} = s | X_n = x]$ . These probabilities are called **transition probabilities**.
- In the experiment the process could be in four different **states**: A, T, G or C. In general the set of possible states of a Markov Process is called its **state space**.
- If the state space consists of a finite or countable number of states the process is called **Markov Chain**.

- We assume that for all  $n$  and  $m$

$$P[X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i] = P[X_{m+1} = j | X_m = i]$$

holds. ‘‘We do not dream up a different experiment for each step, but use the same conditional probabilities for all of them.’’

- If the state space is finite, we can enumerate the states by numbers  $1, 2, \dots, n$  and summarize all transition probabilities in a  $n \times n$  matrix  $P = (p_{ij})$ . Where

$$p_{ij} = P[X_{n+1} = j | X_n = i]$$

This matrix is called **transition matrix**

- Since the entries are probabilities  $p_{ij} \geq 0$  and  $\sum_j p_{ij} = 1$  hold.

- We need to specify with which state we want to start the chain:
- This can be done in a deterministic way by naming the state explicitly.
- Or it can be done in a stochastic way by choosing the initial state randomly.
- Let  $\mu_i^0$  denote the probability that the chain starts in state  $i$
- The vector  $(\mu_1^0, \dots, \mu_n^0)$  is called the **start distribution**.

- By definition  $P[X_0 = i] = \mu_i^0$  holds. We write  $X_0 \sim \mu^0$ . But ...
- ...what are the distributions of  $X_1, X_2$  or  $X_n$ ?

- $X_1$  first:

Assume we start in state 1 ('A'): The probability of this event is

$$P[X_0 = A] = \mu_1^0$$

Now assume we go to state 2 ('C'): The probability is

$$P[X_0 = A]P[X_1 = C|X_0 = A]$$

In total the probability of having a 'C' in the second step is

$$\begin{aligned} & \sum_{l \in \{A, T, C, G\}} P[X_0 = l]P[X_1 = C|X_0 = l] \\ &= \sum_i \mu_i^0 p_{i2} =: \mu_2^1 \end{aligned}$$

- Or more general, using matrix and vector notation:

$$\mu^1 = \mu^0 P \quad \text{and} \quad X_1 \sim \mu^1$$

- What about the distribution of  $X_2$ ?



- $X_2 \sim ?$

$$\begin{aligned}
 P[X_2 = l] &= \sum_k P[X_1 = k]P[X_2 = l|X_1 = k] \\
 &= \mu^1 P \\
 &= (\mu^0 P)P = \mu^0 P^2
 \end{aligned}$$

- Or more general for  $X_n$ :

$$X_n \sim \mu^n = \mu^0 P^n$$

- $P(n) = P^n$  is called  $n$ -step transition matrix.
- Chapman-Kolmogorov equation:

$$\begin{aligned}
 p_{ij}(m+n) &= \sum_k p_{ik}(m)p_{kj}(n) \\
 P(n+m) &= P(n)P(m)
 \end{aligned}$$

- Let us restrict our studies of Markov chains to chains with only strictly positive entries in the transition matrix.
- This means: Every transition from any state to any other state is possible in a single step.
- This is a very strong assumption, and in many typical applications of Markov chain models it does not hold.
- However, for the discussion of evolution models it is ok.
- In the literature, you will find a lot of theory on Markov chains with zeros in the transition matrix. We can skip it.

- Given that the chain starts in 'A':  
 $\{X_0 = A\}$
- This has a strong influence on the distribution of  $X_1$ . Most likely we will have an 'A' there too and a Purine is more likely than a Pyrimidine.
- The effect on the distribution of  $X_2$  is similar but less strong. There have been 2 random experiments that might have changed the state.
- For growing  $n$  the influence of  $X_0$  on  $X_n$  becomes less and less.

- What happens in the limit?
- Is  $X_\infty$  independent of  $X_0$ ?
- Which distribution do we get for  $X_\infty$ ?  
Can we tell?
- Which states have we observed in the  
meantime? And how often?
- How do transition probabilities look  
like for long time periods?

- The transition matrix  $P$  has strictly positive entries:
- Of course, the actual path of the Markov chain never converges. We keep on doing the random experiments and hence we will keep on changing states.
- The long term transition probabilities converge:

$$p_{ij} \longrightarrow \pi_j$$

This means the columns of  $P$  all converge to a single distribution vector  $\pi$ .

- The distribution of the  $X_n$  also converge to  $\pi$ :

$$\mu_i^n \longrightarrow \pi_i.$$

- If we examine a single path of the chain

(like:AAAAGGTTTTCTTCCA...):

The proportion of time we spent in state  $i$  converges to  $\pi_i$ .

This result is one of the central results of probability theory and is know as **The ergodic theorem**.

- What is this distribution  $\pi$ ?

- Let  $n$  be large, and  $\{X_n = i\}$  is a shortcut for  $X_n$  is in the  $n$ 'th state:

- 

$$\begin{aligned} P[X_{n+1} = j] &= \sum_i P[X_n = i]P[X_{n+1} = j|X_n = i] \\ &= \sum_i P[X_n = i]p_{ij} \end{aligned}$$

- Taking the limit  $n \rightarrow \infty$  we get:

$$\pi_j = \sum_i \pi_i P_{ij}$$

or

$$\pi = \pi P$$

- $\pi$  is a fix-point of the linear transformation associated with  $P$ .
- If the Markov chain is in distribution  $\pi$  it will be in  $\pi$  forever.

- $\pi$  is the unique solution of

$$\begin{aligned}\pi &= \pi P \\ \sum_i \pi_i &= 1.\end{aligned}$$

- $\pi$  is called stationary distribution.
- If all  $X_0, X_1, \dots$  have distribution  $\pi$  we say that the Markov chain is in equilibrium.
- The Markov chain converges to  $\pi$  no matter what the start distribution was. Hence, the initial information gets lost.



- In the initial example the stationary distribution is the uniform distribution:  $\pi = (1/4, 1/4, 1/4, 1/4)$ .
- That is not always the case. For example:

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 0.7 & 0.3 \\ 0.4 & 0.6 \end{pmatrix}$$

leads to

$$\pi = (0.5714, 0.4286)$$

## Time reversal

- Start at some time  $n$  and trace the Markov Chain backwards in time:  
That is, consider the sequence  $X_n, X_{n-1}, X_{n-2}, \dots$
- It turns out, that this sequence is again a Markov chain.
- Is it the same one?
- What are its transition probabilities?

- Assume the chain is in equilibrium for the rest of this lecture.
- Let us call the transition matrix of the time reversed Markov chain  $P_{ij}^-$ .
- We have

$$\begin{aligned}
 P_{ij}^- &= P[X_n = j | X_{n+1} = i] \\
 &= \frac{P[X_n = j; X_{n+1} = i]}{P[X_{n+1} = i]} \\
 &= \frac{P[X_n = j]P[X_{n+1} = i | X_n = j]}{P[X_{n+1} = i]} \\
 &= \frac{\pi_j P_{ji}}{\pi_i}
 \end{aligned}$$

- We have  $P_{ij}^- = P_{ij}$  if the detailed balance equation

$$\pi_i P_{ij} = \pi_j P_{ji}$$

holds.

- Clearly this implies also

$$\pi_i P(m)_{ij} = \pi_j P(m)_{ji}$$

- Let  $M_{ij}^1$  denote the joint distribution of two adjacent variables  $X_n$  and  $X_{n+1}$ , and  $M_{ij}^m$  the joint distribution of  $X_n$  and  $X_{n+m}$

•

$$M_{ij}^m = \pi_i P(m)_{ij}$$

and

$$M_{ji}^m = \pi_j P(m)_{ji}$$

- Hence, detailed balance corresponds to symmetric joint probabilities.
- If detailed balance holds we say that the chain is **time reversible**.

- Up to now, we have assumed that the Markov chain operates in discrete time steps. Conditional on the state  $X_n$  we perform an experiment and this experiment determines the distribution of  $X_{n+1}$ .
- Let us become a little more general now, and assume that the chain does not operate in separate steps, but that states can be changed at any time point on the half line  $[0, \infty)$ .
- Hence the chain is described by a infinite family of random variables  $X_t \quad T \geq 0$ .
- The chain is a jump process:  
E.g. It starts in A, then remains in A for some time, at certain random time point it jumps to 'C' staying in 'C' for some interval of time, before jumping the next time, and so on ...

- The Markov property now reads:  
For any sequence of time points  
 $t_1 < \dots < t_n$  we have

$$P[X_{t_n} = j | X_{t_1} = i_1, \dots, X_{t_{n-1}} = i_{t_{n-1}}] = P[X_{t_n} = j | X_{t_{n-1}} = i_{t_{n-1}}]$$

- The future is independent of the past given the latest news.
- We now have a time continuous family of transition probabilities

$$p(t)_{ij} = P[X_s = j | X_{s-t} = i]$$

## Standard Markov chains

- We assume that

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} p(t)_{ii} = 1$$

and

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} p(t)_{ij} = 0 \quad \text{for } i \neq j.$$

That means, the first change of state needs at least a little bit of time.

- And all following changes are separated by each other by a maybe very small but not empty interval.
- No two events happen at the same time.
- In matrix notation:

$$P_t \longrightarrow I$$

where  $I$  is the identity matrix.



- For time discrete Markov chains we have developed the whole theory from the one-step transition matrix  $P$ .
- Problem for time continuous Markov chains, there is no natural unit of time.
- Which expression should play the role of  $P$ ?

- Suppose the chain is in state  $X_t = i$  at time  $t$ .
- What can happen in a short time interval  $[t, t + h]$ ?
  1. Nothing, with probability  $p(h)_{ii}$
  2. A single change to state  $j$ , with probability  $p(h)_{ij}$
  3. More than one changes of state.
- The probability of two ore more changes of states is  $o(h)$

## Rates

- It turns out that  $p(h)_{ij}$  is approximately linear for small  $h$ .
- Hence there are numbers  $q_{ij}$  such that

$$p(h)_{ij} \approx q_{ij}h \quad \text{for } i \neq j$$

and

$$p(h)_{ii} \approx 1 + q_{ii}h$$

- Clearly  $q_{ij} > 0$  and  $q_{ii} < 0$   
(We still assume  $p(1)_{ij} > 0$ .)
- These numbers  $q_{ij}$  are called **rates**.  
They form the **rate matrix**

$$Q = (q_{ij}).$$

- The function  $t \mapsto p(t)_{ij}$  is locally linear at  $t = 0$ .
- In other words the function is differentiable at  $t = 0$ .

$$Q = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{P(h) - P(0)}{h}$$

- By moving from  $t = 0$  to an arbitrary time point we get  
The forward equation and backward equation

$$\frac{d}{dt}P(t) = P(t)Q = QP(t)$$

- By solving these differential equations under the initial condition  $P(0) = I$ , we get

$$P(t) = \exp(tQ) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{Q^n t^n}{n!}.$$

- Hence we get a ‘‘t-step’’ rate matrix simply by  $tQ$ .

- We have  $P(1) = \exp(Q)$  and hence  $Q = \log(P(1))$ .
- What is are the exponential and the logarithm of a matrix?
- How do we calculate them?

- Every normal ( $A^T A = A A^T$ ) square matrix  $A$  can be decomposed into

$$A = S \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} S^{-1}.$$

where  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$  are the possibly complex eigenvalues of  $A$  and  $S$  consists of the orthonormal basis of eigenvectors of  $A$ .

- both  $P$  and  $Q$  are normal.

- By reversibility it follows, that the eigenvalues of  $P$  are positive real numbers.
- There is a joint orthonormal basis of  $P$  and  $Q$ , and

$$Q = \log(P(1)) = S \begin{pmatrix} \log(\lambda_1) & & & \\ & \cdot & & \\ & & \cdot & \\ & & & \cdot \\ & & & & \log(\lambda_n) \end{pmatrix} S^{-1}$$

where  $(\lambda_1 \dots \lambda_n)$  are the positive eigenvalues of  $P(1)$ .



## The resolvent

- For  $\alpha > 0$ , we define a weighted time average of  $P(t)$ :

$$R_\alpha = \int_0^\infty e^{-\alpha t} P(t) dt.$$

- $R_\alpha$  is called a **resolvent** of  $P(t)$ .
- The resolvent is related to the rate matrix by

$$\alpha I - R_\alpha^{-1} = Q \quad \text{for all } \alpha > 0.$$