# Density dependent Markov chains and their approximations

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# Outline

- 1. Markov chains
- 2. Density dependent Markov chains (DDMC)
- 3. Approximations of DDMCs
  - 3.1 Deterministic approximation with ODEs
  - 3.2 Stochastic approximation with SDEs
- 4. Conclusions

# 1. Continuous time Markov chains

- discrete state space
- continuous time process, Z(t)
- enjoys the Markov property

$$Pr(Z(s + t) = j | Z(s) = i, \{Z(u) : 0 \le u < s\}) =$$
  
 $Pr(Z(s + t) = j | Z(s) = i)$ 

 this memoryless property implies that holding times are exponential

## 1. Continuous time Markov chains

 a CTMC is usually specified through its infinitesimal generator

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} -q_1 & q_{1,2} & q_{1,3} & q_{1,n-1} & q_{1,n} \\ q_{2,1} & -q_2 & q_{2,3} & \dots & q_{2,n-1} & q_{2,n} \\ q_{3,1} & q_{3,2} & -q_3 & q_{3,n-1} & q_{3,n} \\ & & \ddots & \\ q_{n-1,1} & q_{n-1,2} & q_{n-1,3} & \dots & -q_{n-1} & q_{n-1,n} \\ q_{n,1} & q_{n,2} & q_{n,3} & \dots & q_{n-1,n} & -q_n \end{pmatrix}$$

with

$$q_i = \sum_j q_{i,j}$$

#### 1. M/M/1 queue

queue fed by Poisson process with exponential server

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} -\lambda & \lambda & 0 & \dots & \\ \mu & -\lambda - \mu & \lambda & 0 & \dots & \\ 0 & \mu & -\lambda - \mu & \lambda & 0 & \dots \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & \dots & 0 & \mu & -\lambda - \mu & \lambda \\ & & \dots & 0 & \mu & -\mu \end{pmatrix}$$

# 1. Analysis of CTMCs

- two ways of thinking what happens in a CTMC:
  - first choose sojourn time according to q<sub>i</sub> and then the next state according to q<sub>i,j</sub>/q<sub>i</sub>
  - generate exponential random variables according to q<sub>i,j</sub> and then select the smallest of them to specify the next state
- transient probabilities calculated through matrix exponential

$$P(t) = [Pr(X(t) = j | X(0) = i)] = e^{tQ} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{Q^n t^n}{n!}$$

steady state by linear system

$$\pi Q = 0, \quad \sum_i \pi_i = 1$$

# 1. Randomization

- several ways of calculating matrix exponential: Moler, C. and C. Van Loan. 2003. Nineteen dubious ways to compute the exponential of a matrix, twenty-five years later. SIAM Review 45, 3V49.
- randomization is best suited to CTMCs

$$P(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (I + Q/q)^n \frac{e^{-qt}(qt)^n}{n!}$$

with  $q > max_iq_i$ 

# 2. Density dependent Markov chains

- we consider the class of density dependent Markov chains
- describe the interaction of groups of identical objects
- informally: the intensities of the interactions can be expressed as a function of the density of the objects present in the considered area or volume
- (instead of expressed as a function of the number of objects itself)

## 2. Density dependent Markov chains

- formally a sequence of density dependent Markov chains is:
  - indexed by a parameter, denoted by N (area or volume or total number of objects)
  - has state space S<sup>[N]</sup> ⊆ Z<sup>k</sup> (k groups of identical objects)
  - the transition intensities are in the form:

$$q_{r,r+m}^{[N]} = N f\left(\frac{r}{N}, m\right)$$

 by relaxing the above form we obtain the class of nearly density dependent Markov chains with transition intensities in the form

$$q_{r,r+m}^{[N]} = N f\left(\frac{r}{N}, m\right) + N g\left(r/N, m, N\right)$$

with  $g(r/N, m, N) \in O(1/N)$ 

# 2. Example

- epidemic model with susceptible (S) and infected (I) individuals distributed over an area split into N equally sized cells
- a state is a pair (i, j)
- three kinds of transitions:
  - 1. susceptible individuals grows:

$$\emptyset 
ightarrow oldsymbol{\mathcal{S}}$$

with intensity

$$q_{(i,j),(i+1,j)}^{[N]} = N\lambda_1$$

because the larger the area the higher the intensity

# 2. Example

- three kinds of transitions:
  - 2. one susceptible individual becomes infected:

$$S+2I\rightarrow 3I$$

with intensity

$$q_{(i,j),(i-1,j+1)}^{[N]} = \frac{ij(j-1)}{2} \frac{1}{N^3} N\lambda_2 = N\left(\frac{\lambda_2}{2} \frac{i}{N} \left(\frac{j}{N}\right)^2\right) - N\left(\frac{1}{N} \frac{\lambda_2}{2} \frac{i}{N} \frac{j}{N}\right)$$

because

$$\frac{ij(j-1)}{2}\frac{1}{N^3}$$

is the probability that one S and 2I meet in a given cell

# 2. Example

- three kinds of transitions:
  - 3. infected individuals can become immune:

$$I \to \emptyset$$

with intensity

$$q_{(i,j),(i,j-1)}^{[N]} = j\lambda_3 = q_{(i,j),(i,j-1)}^{[N]} = N\lambda_3 \frac{j}{N}$$

because every I individually gets immune with intensity  $\lambda_{\rm 3}$ 

# 3. Fluid approximation

- the considered approximations are *fluid*
- in order to compare models with different values of N we work with the density process:

$$Z^{[N]}(t) = X^{[N]}(t)/N$$

#### 3.1 Deterministic approximation

• if the initial state that tends to  $z_0$  as *N* tends to infinity:

$$\lim_{N\to\infty}Z^{[N]}(0)=z_0$$

then the density process tends to the solution of

$$dz(t) = \sum_{l \in C} l f(z(t), l) dt, \ z(0) = z_0$$

## 3.1 Deterministic approximation

 difference between the deterministic approximation and the original stochastic behavior is characterized by

$$\sup_{t\leq T} \left| Z^{[N]}(t) - z(t) \right| = O\left( 1/\sqrt{N} \right) \quad a.s.$$

i.e., the error of the deterministic approximation decreases as  $1/\sqrt{N}$ 

• for any  $\epsilon$  there exists  $M_{\epsilon}$  such that

$$P\left(rac{\sup_{t\leq T}\left|Z^{[N]}(t)-z(t)
ight|}{1/\sqrt{N}}>M_{\epsilon}
ight)<\epsilon$$

# 3.1 Deterministic approximation

- the deterministic approximation provides a single trajectory
- usually considered as the approximate mean
- important characteristics, like significant variance or bimodality or non-deterministic cycle times, can be lost
- these can be present even with very large values of N

models predator pray interactions:

$$X \rightarrow 2X, X + Y \rightarrow 2Y, Y \rightarrow \emptyset$$

with initial state

(N, N)

and intensities

(10, 20/N, 10)

accordingly the density process starts from (1, 1)













Mean error as function of *N* and its best least square  $1/\sqrt{N}$  fit:



#### $M_{\epsilon}$ in function of N for which

$$P\left(\frac{\sup_{t\leq T}\left|Z^{[N]}(t)-z(t)\right|}{1/\sqrt{N}}>M_{\epsilon}\right)=\epsilon$$

for  $\epsilon = 0.05, 0.1, 0.15, 0.2, 0.25$ :



#### 3.2 Stochastic approximation with SDEs

approximation with stochastic differential equations:

$$dY^{[N]}(t) = \sum_{l \in \mathcal{C}} l f \left(Y^{[N]}(t), l\right) dt + \sum_{l \in \mathcal{C}} \frac{l}{\sqrt{N}} \sqrt{f \left(Y^{[N]}(t), l\right)} dW_l(t)$$

where  $W_l(t)$  with  $l \in C$  are independent standard one-dimensional Brownian motions

- maintains stochasticity: provides distributions
- ► explicitly uses N (in case of the deterministic approximation N = ∞)
- has better convergence:

$$\sup_{t\leq T} \left| Z^{[N]}(t) - Y^{[N]}(t) \right| = O\left(\log N/N\right) \quad a.s.$$

for corresponding pairs of trajectories













# 4. Conclusions

- exact simulation of CTMC becomes slower with increasing N
- for fixed step size, simulation of SDE becomes more accurate as N increases
- ranges of N:
  - small N: use an analytical approach (randomization)
  - Iarger N: simulate the Markov chain
  - even larger N but still important stochastic behavior: use diffusion approximation
  - huge N, no stochasticity: use deterministic approximation