

COLLAPSED MARKOV CHAINS AND THE CHAPMAN-KOLMOGOROV EQUATION

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1. Introduction. Functions of a finite state Markov chain were considered by Burke and Rosenblatt in [2]. They obtained, as a result of these considerations, conditions under which the Chapman-Kolmogorov equation implies a process is Markovian. In [8] Rosenblatt considered functions of Markov chains in some generality but was not concerned with the Chapman-Kolmogorov equation and its implications. This paper extends some results obtained in [2] to a denumerable state space with the Chapman-Kolmogorov equation in mind. Also an example is given which shows limitations to this approach. The example is one more counter-example showing that the Chapman-Kolmogorov equation does not always imply a process is Markovian [5], [7], [10].

2. Collapsed Markov chains with any initial distribution. Let $X(t)$, $0 \leq t < \infty$ be a Markov chain having a stationary transition probability matrix $P(t) = (p_{ij}(t); i, j, = 1, 2, \dots)$, $P[X(t + \tau) = j | X(\tau) = i] = p_{ij}(t)$ with any initial distribution $w = (w_i > 0; i = 1, 2, \dots)$. The $p_{ij}(t)$, $i, j, = 1, 2, \dots$ are assumed to have the following properties

$$(1) \quad \begin{aligned} 0 \leq p_{ij}(t) \leq 1, \quad \sum_j p_{ij}(t) &= 1 \\ p_{ij}(t + \tau) &= \sum_{k=1} p_{ik}(t)p_{kj}(\tau) \end{aligned}$$

and $w = (w_i > 0)$ is such that $\sum_i w_i = 1$. Consider now a new process $Y(t) = f(X(t))$ (called herein the collapsed process), where f is a given function on the states $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. The function f is a many-one function on the state space of $X(t)$ onto the state space of $Y(t)$. The states i of $X(t)$ on which f assumes the same value are collapsed into a single state of the $Y(t)$ process. We label the states of $Y(t)$ S_α , $\alpha = 1, 2, \dots$, for convenience [2], [9].

THEOREM 1. *Let $X(t)$, $0 \leq t < \infty$ be a Markov chain having stationary transition mechanism $P(t) = (p_{ij}(t); i, j = 1, 2, \dots)$ such that $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} p_{ij}(t) = \delta_{ij}$ uniformly in i . (Note that this is equivalent to requiring that $g_i < M < \infty$ for all i , where $g_i = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} [1 - p_{ij}(t)/t]$, (see Doob, [3] p. 266).) Then $Y(t) = f(X(t))$ is Markovian, whatever the initial distribution $w = (w_i > 0)$ for $X(t)$, if and only if its transition probabilities satisfy the Chapman-Kolmogorov equation. The schema of proof follows that given by Burke and Rosenblatt in [2].*

PROOF. We need not consider the necessity. Assume then that $Y(t)$ satisfies the collapsed Chapman-Kolmogorov equations,

$$(2) \quad Q_w^{(t)} Q_w^{(\tau)} = Q_w^{(t+\tau)}$$

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where $Q_w^{(t)} = (B'D_w B)^{-1} B' D_w P(t) B$, B' being the transpose of B . B is defined as $B = (b_{ij})$,

$$b_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } i \in S_j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

and $D = \text{diag } (w_i)$ [2].

We carry out the following differentiations formally; the required justifications are easily verified using the results in [1] and standard techniques. Differentiating (2) with respect to τ and evaluating at $\tau = 0$ we obtain:

$$(3) \quad Q_w^{(t)} (B'D_{wP(t)} B)^{-1} B' D_{wP(t)} G B = (B'D_w B)^{-1} B' D_w P(t) G B,$$

where G is the infinitesimal generator having elements g_i and g_{ij} . Differentiating (3) with respect to t at $t = 0$ we have:

$$(4) \quad B'D_w G B (B'D_w B)^{-1} B' D_w G B - (B'D_w B)^{-1} B' D_w G B B' D_w G B + B'D_w G^2 B = B'D_w G^2 B.$$

Let $w_i = u_i h$ for $i \in S_\alpha$ and let $h \rightarrow 0$. The first term on the left-hand side and the term on the right-hand side of equality (4) both go to zero. The element-wise expression of the remainder is:

$$(5) \quad - \sum_{i \notin S_\alpha} w_i g_{iS_\alpha} \cdot u_{S_\alpha}^{-1} \cdot \sum_{i \in S_\alpha} u_i g_{iS_\beta} + \sum_{i \notin S_\alpha} w_i \sum_{k \in S_\alpha} g_{ik} g_{kS_\beta} = 0$$

where $g_{iS_\alpha} = \sum_{j \in S_\alpha} g_{ij}$. This is valid, if and only if

$$(6) \quad g_{iS_\alpha} \cdot u_{S_\alpha}^{-1} \sum_{i \in S_\alpha} u_i g_{iS_\beta} = \sum_{k \in S_\alpha} g_{ik} g_{kS_\beta}$$

for all $i \notin S_\alpha$. The "if" portion of this remark is obvious; the "only if" portion follows from the fact that both terms of (5) converge and (5) holds for all w_i .

Since (6) holds for all u_i we have for all $j \in S_\alpha$ and $i \notin S_\alpha$

$$(7) \quad g_{iS_\alpha} g_{jS_\beta} = \sum_{k \in S_\alpha} g_{ik} g_{kS_\beta}.$$

Two cases must be considered

$$(i) \quad g_{iS_\alpha} = 0 \quad \text{for all } i \notin S_\alpha$$

or

$$(ii) \quad g_{iS_\alpha} \neq 0 \quad \text{for some } i \notin S_\alpha.$$

In the first case it is easily shown that $g_{iS}^{(v)} = 0$, $v = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, and for all $i \notin S_\alpha$, and hence $p_{iS_\alpha}(r) = 0$ for all $i \notin S_\alpha$. In case (ii) we see that $g_{jS_\beta} = K_{S_\alpha, S_\beta}$ for all $j \in S_\alpha$. Again one can show that $g_{jS}^{(v)} = K_{S_\alpha, S_\beta}$ for all $j \in S_\alpha$ and $\beta = 1, 2, \dots$, and we conclude in this case that $p_{iS_\beta}(t) = C_{S_\alpha, S_\beta}(t)$ for all $i \in S_\alpha$, $\beta = 1, 2, \dots$.

These conditions i.e., (1°) $p_{iS_\alpha}(t) \equiv 0$ for all $i \notin S_\alpha$

or (2°) $p_{iS_\beta}(t) = C_{S_\alpha, S_\beta}(t)$ for every $i \in S_\alpha$ and all $\beta = 1, 2, 3, \dots$, are sufficient to show that $Y(t)$ is Markovian. The proof of this remark is immediate; this concludes the proof of the theorem.

3. Example. In this section we show by counter example that one cannot relax the condition “... whatever the initial distribution of $X(t)$.” in Theorem 1. To construct the example we need the following result. The ideas are based on Feller [5], Rosenblatt [10] and Levy [7].

THEOREM 2. Let $X_m, m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ be a stationary, discrete parameter, denumerable state Markov chain with transition matrix $P = (p_{ij})$ and initial distribution vector $p = (p_i)$. Let $N(t)$ be a continuous parameter, denumerable state Markov chain, stochastically independent of X_m , and with a stationary transition mechanism $Q(t) = (q_{ij}(t))$ where

$$q_{ij}(t) = \begin{cases} f(t, j - i) & i \leq j \\ 0 & \end{cases}$$

otherwise $q = (q_i)$ is the initial vector for $N(t)$. Then $X(t) = X_{N(t)}$ is a continuous parameter Markov chain.

The proof is merely a verification of the Markov property in the form $P[X(t_1) = i_1, \dots, X(t_n) = i_n] = P[X(t_1) = i_1]P[X(t_2) = i_2 | X(t_1) = i_1] \dots P[X(t_n) = i_n | X(t_{n-1}) = i_{n-1}]$ and is omitted.

Assume that a discrete parameter Markov chain $X_m = (Y_{m+1}, Y_m) m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ is given where the random variables Y_m assume values $i = 0, 1, 2, \dots, r - 1 (r < \infty)$. The transition probabilities are given by:

$$\begin{aligned} P[Y_{m+2} = u_2 | Y_{m+1} = u_1, Y_m = u_0] &= (1/r)[1 - \cos(2\pi/r)(2u_2 - u_1 - u_0)] \\ &= P[X_{m+1} = (u_2, u_1) | X_m = (u_1, u_0)] \end{aligned}$$

and initial distribution $P[Y_0 = u_0, Y_1 = u_1] = 1/r^2 = P[X_0 = (u_1, u_0)]$ where $u_0, u_1, u_2 = 0, 1, 2, \dots, r - 1$. This example was constructed by Rosenblatt [10] and he has shown that X_m is stationary and persistent in [9]. Moreover Rosenblatt has shown that Y_m as a function of X_m is not Markovian and yet the one-step transition probabilities

$$P[Y(\tau) = u_\tau | Y(\sigma) = u_\sigma] = 1/r \quad 1 \leq \sigma < \tau, \quad \sigma, \tau = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

satisfy the Chapman-Kolmogorov equation.

Choose $N(t), 0 \leq t < \infty$ to be a Poisson process, stochastically independent of X_m , with mean $\lambda = 1$. Consider the chain defined by $X_{N(t)} = X(N(t)) = [Y(N(t) + 1), Y(N(t))]$. Clearly $X_{N(t)}$ satisfies Theorem 2 by its very definition and hence must be Markovian.

$X_{N(t)} = (Y_{N(t)+1}, Y_{N(t)})$ defines the functional relation between $X_{N(t)}$ and $Y_{N(t)}$. We restrict our attention to $Y_{N(t)} = Y(t)$ and show that it is not Markovian; we will then show that the transition probabilities of $Y(t)$ satisfy the Chapman-Kolmogorov equation.

To show $Y(t)$ is not Markovian we show that

$$(8) \quad P[Y(\tau) = u_n | Y(t) = u_m, Y(s) = u_k] \neq P[Y(\tau) = u_n | Y(t) = u_m],$$

$$0 \leq s < t < \tau < \infty.$$

Consider then

$$\begin{aligned}
 &P[Y(\tau) = u_n, Y(t) = u_m, Y(s) = u_k] \\
 (9) \quad &= \sum_{k,m,n} \frac{e^{-s} s^k}{k!} \frac{e^{-(t-s)} (t-s)^{m-k}}{(m-k)!} \frac{e^{-(\tau-t)} (\tau-t)^{n-m}}{(n-m)!} \\
 &\quad \cdot P[Y_k = u_k, Y_m = u_m, Y_n = u_n].
 \end{aligned}$$

The computation of $P[Y_k = u_n, Y_m = u_m, Y_n = u_n]$ gives rise to seven distinct cases summarized here for brevity; k is taken equal to zero by stationarity of the Y_k process.

- I: $n = m = 0$; $P[Y_0 = u_0, Y_m = u_m, Y_n = u_n] = \delta_{u_0 u_m} \delta_{u_m u_n} / r$
- II: $m = 0, n \geq 1$; $P[Y_0 = u_0, Y_m = u_m, Y_n = u_n] = \delta_{u_0 u_m} / r^2$
- III: $m \geq 1, m = n$; $P[Y_0 = u_0, Y_m = u_m, Y_n = u_n] = \delta_{u_m u_n} / r^2$
- IV: $m = 1, n = 2$;
- $P[Y_0 = u_0, Y_m = u_m, Y_n = u_n] = (1/r^3)[1 - \cos(2\pi/r)(2u_2 - u_1 - u_0)]$
- V: $m = 2, n = 3$;
- $P[Y_0 = u_0, Y_m = u_m, Y_n = u_n] = (1/r^3)[1 + \frac{1}{2} \cos(2\pi/r)(-2u_3 + 3u_2 - u_0)]$
- VI: $m \geq 1, n \geq m + 2$; $P[Y_0 = u_0, Y_m = u_m, Y_n = u_n] = 1/r^3$
- VII: $m \geq 3, n = m + 1$; $P[Y_0 = u_0, Y_m = u_m, Y_n = u_n] = 1/r^3$

The exact expression for (9) is now

$$\begin{aligned}
 (10) \quad &P[Y(s) = u_0, Y(t) = u_m, Y(\tau) = u_n] \\
 &= (1/r) \delta_{u_0 u_m} \delta_{u_m u_n} e^{-(\tau-s)} + (1/r^2) \delta_{u_0 u_m} e^{-(\tau-s)} [1 - e^{-(\tau-t)}] \\
 &\quad + (1/r^2) \delta_{u_m u_n} e^{-(\tau-s)} [1 - e^{-(t-s)}] \\
 &\quad + (1/r^3) [1 - \cos(2\pi/r)(2u_2 - u_1 - u_0)] e^{-(\tau-s)} (t-s)(\tau-t) \\
 &\quad + (1/r^3) [1 + \frac{1}{2} \cos(2\pi/r)(-2u_3 + 3u_2 - u_0)] e^{-(\tau-s)} [(t-s)^2/2!](\tau-t) \\
 &\quad + (1/r^3) e^{-(\tau-s)} [1 - e^{-(t-s)}] [1 - e^{-(\tau-t)} - (\tau-t)e^{-(\tau-t)}] \\
 &\quad + (1/r^3) e^{-(\tau-s)} (\tau-t) [1 - e^{-(t-s)} - (t-s)e^{-(t-s)} - [(t-s)^2/2!]e^{-(t-s)}].
 \end{aligned}$$

To compute the left-hand side of (8) we evaluate $P[Y(s) = u_0, Y(t) = u_m]$ and divide it into (10):

$$\begin{aligned}
 (11) \quad &P[Y(s) = u_0, Y(t) = u_m] = (1/r)e^{-t} + (1/r^2)[1 - e^{-t}] \quad \text{if } u_m = u_0 \\
 &= (1/r^2)[1 - e^{-t}] \quad \text{if } u_m \neq u_0.
 \end{aligned}$$

The right-hand side of (8) can be computed from

$$\begin{aligned}
 &P[Y(\tau) = u_n, Y(t) = u_m] = (e^{-\tau}/r^2) + (1/r^2)[1 - e^{-\tau}] \quad \text{if } u_m = u_n \\
 &= (1/r^2)[1 - e^{-\tau}] \quad \text{if } u_m \neq u_n
 \end{aligned}$$

and $P[Y(t) = u_m] = 1/r$, i.e.

$$\begin{aligned}
 (12) \quad &P[Y(\tau) = u_n | Y(t) = u_m] = (1/r)(1 - e^{-\tau}) \quad \text{if } u_m \neq u_n \\
 &= e^{-\tau} + (1/r)(1 - e^{-\tau}) \quad \text{if } u_m = u_n.
 \end{aligned}$$

A comparison of (12) and the ratio of (10) and (11) verifies the validity of (8); we conclude $Y(t)$ is not Markovian. However the transition mechanism of $Y(t)$ satisfies the Chapman-Kolmogorov equation.

Let $P[Y(\tau + t) = \lambda \mid Y(\tau) = v] = p_{v\lambda}(t)$, then the Chapman-Kolmogorov equation states

$$(13) \quad \sum_{\mu=0}^{r-1} p_{v\lambda}(s)p_{\lambda\mu}(t) = p_{v\mu}(s+t).$$

Consider the case when $v = \mu$, then

$$(13) \quad p_{vv}(s+t) = e^{-(s+t)} + (1/r^2)(1 - e^{-(s+t)}).$$

On the other hand for $v = \mu$,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{\lambda=0}^{r-1} p_{v\lambda}(s)p_{\lambda\mu}(t) &= p_{vv}(t)p_{vv}(s) + \sum_{\lambda \neq \mu} (1/r^2)(1 - e^{-t})(1 - e^{-s}) \\ &= e^{-(s+t)} + (1/r)(1 - e^{-(s+t)}), \end{aligned}$$

hence (13) is satisfied for the case $v = \mu$. A similar computation shows (13) to be satisfied for the case $v \neq \mu$.

This then is an example of a Markov chain with a specific initial distribution which is collapsed by a given function, where the transition probabilities of the collapsed chain satisfy the Chapman-Kolmogorov equation but the collapsed chain is not Markovian.

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