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Master's Thesis

STATISTICAL TEST OF A STOCHASTIC SEQUENCE FOR TIME
DEPENDENCE AND HOMOGENEITY ON THE BASE OF X^2
STATISTICS OF GOODNESS OF FIT

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Abstract

This study proposes a chi-square-based method to test whether a stochastic sequence satisfies the Markov chain assumption. By generating experimental data for Markov sequences, non-Markov sequences, and non-stationary sequences, the study estimates transition probability matrices for segmented data and computes chi-square statistics to verify Markovian properties. The experimental results reveal that chi-square statistics effectively distinguish Markov sequences from non-Markov sequences and identify the non-stationarity of sequences.

The findings include:

1. For Markov sequences, chi-square statistics are generally small, aligning with the Markov assumption.
2. For non-Markov sequences, statistics deviate significantly, indicating non-Markovian behavior.
3. For non-stationary sequences, chi-square statistics vary significantly across segments, reflecting instability in transition probabilities.

The proposed method demonstrates high operability and broad application potential, suitable for time series analysis, model validation, and stochastic process modeling. Future research will focus on optimizing segmentation methods, expanding model applicability, and exploring real-world applications.

Keywords: Markov chains, chi-square test, stochastic sequences, time dependence, homogeneity

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1. Introduction

1.1 Background

In numerous scientific and engineering applications, the analysis of random sequences (or time series) is a core task. For example, in finance, analyzing time series of stock prices and interest rates is crucial for investment decision-making and risk control. In physical system modeling, state transition sequences help describe the dynamic behavior of systems. For these applications, the time dependence and homogeneity of random sequences are critical characteristics in studying and modeling. Understanding these properties can help improve prediction accuracy, optimize parameters, and thus enhance the suitability of the models.

The Markov Chain is a widely-used mathematical tool for modeling random sequences. It assumes that the system's next state depends only on the current state and is independent of previous states. This assumption provides a favorable balance in many applications, capturing time dependence while maintaining a relatively simple computational structure. However, determining whether the Markovian assumption is appropriate for a specific random sequence remains an important question. In practical applications, assessing whether a sequence adheres to Markovian properties is essential for selecting appropriate models and prediction methods.

1.2 Purpose and Significance of the Study

This study aims to analyze whether a given random sequence follows the Markovian property through a chi-square-based statistical test. This test method uses the chi-square statistic to measure the deviation between the observed transition probabilities and the expected transition probabilities, allowing us to determine whether the sequence satisfies the Markovian assumption. This approach can be applied to a wide range of real-world data analysis scenarios, including but not limited to market research, ecosystem modeling, and failure prediction.

The significance of this research lies in providing a simple yet effective means to validate the Markovian assumption of a sequence, assisting decision-makers and researchers in selecting suitable models for random sequences. Additionally, this

method can be integrated as part of model selection and parameter optimization, providing a data basis for further analysis. By assessing the time dependence and homogeneity of random sequences, the findings of this study will aid in understanding the dynamic characteristics and stability of sequences, offering support for building robust prediction and decision-making models.

1.3 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is organized into several chapters, gradually introducing the theoretical foundations, methods, experimental design, and conclusions of the study:

Chapter 2 Literature Review: Reviews the development of Markov Chain theory, common methods for testing time dependence of random sequences, and the application of chi-square statistics in such tests. This chapter summarizes related research findings and provides theoretical support for the methods used in this study.

Chapter 3 Theoretical Background: Introduces the core theories involved in this research, including the basic concepts of Markov Chains, the estimation of transition probability matrices, and the fundamental steps of hypothesis testing, laying the theoretical foundation for the implementation in the methods section.

Chapter 4 Methodology and Implementation: Describes the detailed methodology for conducting the test, including sequence segmentation, transition probability estimation, and chi-square statistic calculation. This chapter provides algorithm steps and flowcharts to facilitate understanding of the implementation process.

Chapter 5 Experimental Design and Result Analysis: Validates the proposed method using both real and simulated data and analyzes the impact of different datasets and significance levels on the test results.

Chapter 6 Conclusions and Future Work: Summarizes the main findings and contributions of this study, points out the limitations of the research, and suggests directions for future research.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Markov Chains

2.1.1 Fundamental Concepts of Markov Chains

A Markov Chain is a stochastic process that describes state transitions of a system over discrete time steps and has extensive applications across fields such as physics, biology, finance, and computer science. The core assumption of a Markov Chain is “memorylessness” or “Markov property,” meaning that the future state of the system depends only on the current state and is independent of previous states. This assumption simplifies the model’s complexity, making it feasible to model dynamic systems. For a discrete-state Markov Chain, the state space $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m\}$, contains all possible states of the system, and the transition probability matrix PPP defines the probabilities of transitioning between states. The matrix element $p_{ij} = P(X_{t+1} = s_j | X_t = s_i)$ represents the probability of transitioning from state s_i to state s_j given the current state.

Markov Chains are typically divided into two types: homogeneous and non-homogeneous. In a homogeneous Markov Chain, the transition probability matrix P remains constant over time, a property known as “homogeneity.” In contrast, the transition probability matrix of a non-homogeneous Markov Chain may vary over time. Many studies focus on homogeneous Markov Chains, as the homogeneity assumption is often reasonable in most practical applications and significantly simplifies the analysis and derivation process of the model.

(一) Definition

A Markov chain is a set of discrete random variables with Markov properties. Specifically, to the probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, A Markov chain is a set of discrete random variables with Markov properties. Specifically, the set of random variables in the probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ with a one-dimensional countable set as the index set $\mathbf{X} = \{X_n : n > 0\}$, if the values of the random variables are all in the countable set: $X = s_i, s_i \in \mathcal{S}$, and the conditional probability of the random variable satisfies the following relationship^[2]:

$$p(X_{t+1} | X_t, \dots, X_1) = p(X_{t+1} | X_t)$$

X Then it is called a Markov chain, the countable set $\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{Z}$ is called the state space, and the value of the Markov chain in the state space is called the state^[2]. The Markov chain defined here is a discrete-time Markov chain (DTMC), and although the case with a continuous exponential set is called a continuous-time Markov chain (CTMC), it is essentially a Markov process (Markov process)^[3]. Commonly, the exponential set of Markov chains is referred to as "step" or "time-step"^[2].

The above equation defines the Markov property at the same time as the Markov chain, which is also known as "memorylessness", that is, the random variable in step $t+1$ is conditionally independent from the rest of the random variables after being given the random variable in step t $X_{t+1} \perp\!\!\!\perp (X_{t-1}, X_0) | X_t$. On this basis, Markov chains have strong Markov property, that is, for arbitrary stopping time, the state of Markov chains before and after stopping is independent of each other^[1].

(二) Transfer Theory

The change in the state of a random variable in a Markov chain over time is called evolution or transition. Here we introduce two approaches to describe the structure of Markov chains, namely transfer matrices and transfer diagrams, and define the properties that Markov chains exhibit during the transfer process.

● Transition Probability and Transition Matrix

The conditional probabilities between random variables in a Markov chain can be defined as the (single-step) transition probability and the n -step transition probability^[2]:

$$P_{i_n, i_{n+1}} = p(X_{n+1} = s_{i_{n+1}} | X_n = s_{i_n})$$

$$P_{i_0, i_n}^{(n)} = p(X_n = s_{i_n} | X_0 = s_{i_0})$$

where the subscript i_n indicates the transfer of step n . According to the Markov property, the $\alpha_{i_0} = p(X_0)$ continuous multiplication of the transition probability can represent the finite-dimensional distribution of the Markov chain^[2]:

$$p(A_n) = \alpha_{i_0} P_{i_0, i_1} \cdots P_{i_{n-2}, i_{n-1}} P_{i_{n-1}, i_n}$$

$$p(X_{n+1} = s_{i_{n+1}} | A_n) = P_{i_n, i_{n+1}}$$

$$p(A_{n+1}) = p(A_n) P_{i_n, i_{n+1}}$$

where $A_n = \{X_n = s_{i_n}, X_{n-1} = s_{i_{n-1}}, \dots, X_0 = s_{i_0}\}$ is the sample path, which is the value of each step of the Markov chain^[2]. The n -step transfer probability, as seen from the Chapman–Kolmogorov equation, is the sum of all sample orbitals^[2]:

$$P_{i_0, i_n}^{(n)} = \sum_{i_0, i_m, i_n \in \mathcal{S}} P_{i_0, i_m}^{(k)} P_{i_m, i_n}^{(n-k)} = \sum_{i_0 \cdots i_n \in \mathcal{S}} \alpha_{i_0} P_{i_0, i_1} \cdots P_{i_{n-1}, i_n}$$

The above equation shows that the direct evolution of the Markov chain n steps is equivalent to its evolution of the first steps $n-k$ and then the evolution of k steps (k is in the state space of the Markov chain). The product of the n -step transition probability and the initial probability is known as the absolute probability of the state.

If the state space of a Markov chain is finite, the transition probabilities of all states can be arranged in a matrix in a single step evolution to obtain a transition matrix [2]:

$$P_{n, n+1} = (p_{i_n, i_{n+1}}) = \begin{bmatrix} P_{0,0} & P_{0,1} & P_{0,2} & \cdots \\ P_{1,0} & P_{1,1} & P_{1,2} & \cdots \\ P_{2,0} & P_{2,1} & P_{2,2} & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix}$$

The transition matrix of a Markov chain is the right stochastic matrix, and the first row of i_n the matrix represents $X_n = s_{i_n}$ the time X_{n+1} takes the probabilities of all possible states (discrete distribution), so that the Markov chain completely determines the transition matrix, and the transition matrix also completely determines the Markov chain [4]. From the nature of the probability distribution, the transition matrix is a positive definite matrix, and the sum of the elements in each row is equal to 1:

$$\forall i, j : P_{i,j} > 0, \quad \forall i : \sum_j P_{i,j} = 1$$

The n -step transition matrix can also be defined in the same way: $\mathbf{P}^{(n)} = \left(P_{i_0, i_n}^{(n)} \right)$, as can be seen from the nature of the n -step transition probability (Chapman–Kolmogorov equation), the n -step transition matrix is a continuous matrix multiplication of all the transition matrices that preceded it: $\mathbf{P}^{(t)} = \mathbf{P}^{(t-1)} \cdots \mathbf{P}^{(1)} \mathbf{I}^{[2]}$.

● Transition Graph

1. Accessible and Communicate

The evolution of the Markov chain can be represented as a transition graph in a graph structure, where each edge in the graph is given a transition probability. The concepts of "reachable" and "connected" can be introduced through the transfer diagram:

If there is a state for the state s_i, s_j in the Markov chain $p_{i,k_1} p_{k_1,j} \cdots p_{k_n,j} > 0$

i.e., the probability of all transfers on the sampled path is not 0, then the state s_j is a state s_i . The reachable state, represented as a directed connection in the transition diagram, $s_i \rightarrow s_j$. If they are reachable to each other, then the two are connected, forming a closed loop in the transfer diagram, denoted as $s_i \leftrightarrow s_j$ [1]. By definition, reachability and connectivity can be indirect, i.e., they do not have to be done at a single time step.

Connectivity is a set of equivalence relations, so equivalence classes can be constructed, and in a Markov chain, equivalence classes that contain as many states as possible are called communicating classes [1].

1. Closed set and absorbing state

Given a subset of state space, if a Markov chain cannot leave after entering that subset: $\forall s_i \in C : \sum_{s_j \in C} p_{i,j} = 1$, then the subset is closed, called a closed set, and all states outside a closed set are not reachable states. If there is only one state in the closed set, then the state is an absorption state, which in the transfer plot is a self-loop with a probability of 1. A closed set can include one or more connected classes.

2. Example of a transfer diagram

The above concept is illustrated here by an example of a transfer diagram [1]:

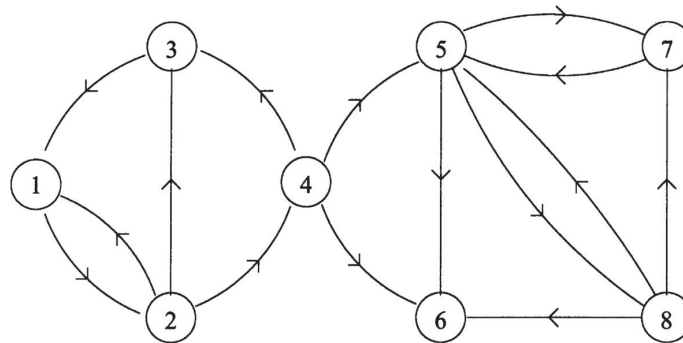


Figure 2-1 Example of a transfer graph

By definition, the transfer diagram consists of three connected classes: $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, $\{5, 7, 8\}$, $\{6\}$, three closed sets, $\{6\}$, $\{5, 6, 7, 8\}$, $\{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$ and an absorbing state, i.e., state 6. It is noted that in the above transfer diagram, Markov chains will eventually enter the absorbing state from any state, and this type of Markov chain is called absorbing Markov chain [5].

(三) Quality

Here we define the four properties of Markov chains: irreducibility, regression,

periodicity, and ergodability. Unlike Markov properties, these properties are not the properties that the Markov chain necessarily possesses, but the properties that it exhibits to its state during the process of transfer. The above properties are exclusive, i.e., Markov chains that are not negotiable are necessarily irreducible, and so on.

1. Irreducibility

A Markov chain is irreducible if its state space has only one connected class, i.e., all members of the state space, otherwise it is reducibility [6]. The irreducibility of Markov chains means that random variables can be transferred between arbitrary states during their evolution [1].

2. Recurrence

If a Markov chain can return to a state repeatedly during its evolution after reaching a state, then the state is a **regressive state**, or the Markov chain has (local) regression, and vice versa. Formally, for a state in state space, the return time of a Markov chain to a given state is the **infimum** of all possible return times [1]:

$$T_i = \inf \{n > 0 : X_n = s_i | X_0 = s_i\}, \quad T_i = \infty \text{ if } \forall n > 0 : X_n \neq s_i$$

If $T_i = \infty$, there is no transient or regressive nature in the state; If $T_i < \infty$, then the criteria for judging the transientness and regression of the state are as follows [1]

$$T_i < \infty$$

$$transient : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p(T_i = n) < 1, recurrent : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p(T_i = n) = 1$$

When the time step tends to be infinite, the sum of the return probability of the constant return state, that is, the expectation of the total number of visits, also tends to be infinite:

$$transient : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p(X_n = s_i | X_0 = s_i) < \infty, recurrent : \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p(X_n = s_i | X_0 = s_i) = \infty$$

In addition, if a state $s_i \in \mathcal{S}$ has frequent recurrence, its mean recurrence time [1]:

$$E(T_i) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \cdot p(T_i = n)$$

If the average return time $\mathbb{E}(T_i) < \infty$ is, the status is "positive recurrent", otherwise it is "null recurrent" [1]. If a state is zero-reverent, it means that the expectation of the time interval between two visits to the state by the Markov chain is positive infinity [7].

From the above definitions of transient and regression, the following can be inferred:

- (1) Corollary: For a Markov chain with a finite number of states, it has at least one constant return state, and all of the constant return states are normal returns [24].
- (2) Corollary: If a Markov chain with a finite number of states is irreducible, then all its states are normal.
- (3) Corollary: If state A is returnable, and state B is an attainable state of A, then A and B are connected, and B is always returnable.
- (4) Corollary: If state B is an attainable state of A, and state B is an absorption state, then B is a reciprocal state and A is a transient state.
- (5) Corollary: A set of normal return states is a closed set, but the states in a closed set are not necessarily constant return states.

3. Periodicity

A Markov chain with normal returns may be cyclical, i.e., in its evolution, the Markov chain can return to its state regularly with periods greater than 1. Officially, given a state with a normal return, its return period is calculated as follows ^[1]:

$$d = \gcd \{ \{n > 0 : p(X_n = s_i | X_0 = s_i) > 0\} \}$$

where is the greatest common divisor of the set elements. For example, if in the transition diagram, the number of steps required for a Markov chain to return to a state is , then its period is 3, which is the minimum number of steps required to return to that state. If calculated according to the above equation, the state is periodicity, and if , the state is aperiodicity ^[1]. From the definition of periodicity, it can be inferred as follows:

- (1) Corollary: The absorption state is an aperiodic state.
- (2) Corollary: If state A is connected to state B, then A and B have the same period ^[1].
- (3) Corollary: If an irreducible Markov chain has a periodic state A, then all states of the Markov chain are periodic ^[1].

4. Ergodicity

If a state of a Markov chain is normal and acyclical, it is ergodic ^[1]. If a Markov chain is irreducible and there is a state that is traversal, then all the states of the Markov chain are traversal and are called traversal chains. From the above definition, ergodic inferences can be inferred as follows:

- (1) Corollary: If state A is an absorbing state, and A is an attainable state of state B, then A is ergonic and B is not ergotic.
- (2) Corollary: If a Markov chain with multiple states contains absorbing states, then the Markov chain is not a traversal chain.

- (3) Corollary: If a Markov chain with multiple states forms a directed acyclic graph, or a single closed loop, the Markov chain is not a traversal chain.

(四) Exception

1. Bernoulli process

The Bernoulli process, also known as the Binomial Markov chain, is established as follows: given a series of independent "identities", each of which is binomial, positive and negative according to probability r . Let a positive stochastic process denote the probability of k positive identities out of n identities, then it is a Bernoulli process in which the random variables obey a binomial distribution [2]:

$$p(X_n = k) = \binom{n}{k} r^k (1-r)^{n-k}, \quad k \leq n$$

From the establishment process, it can be seen that the probability of positive identification in the new identification is independent of the number of previous positive identification, and has a Markov property, so the Bernoulli process is a Markov chain [2].

2. Gambler's Ruin

Assuming that a gambler bets in a casino with a limited number of chips, each bet is won or lost by a probability r , and if the gambler keeps betting, the total number of chips held by the gambler is a Markov chain with the following transfer matrix [2]:

$$\mathbf{P} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\ 1-r & 0 & r & 0 & \cdots & \cdots \\ 0 & 1-r & 0 & r & 0 & \cdots \\ \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots & \cdots \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \\ \cdots \end{matrix}$$

The gambler loses all the chips in the absorption state, and it can be seen from the one-step analysis that at that time $r \leq 0.5$, the Markov chain must enter the absorption state, that is, the gambler will eventually lose all the chips as the bet progresses.

3. Random Walk

Define a series of independently identically distributed (iid) integer random variables and define the following random process [2].

$$X_0 = 0, \quad X_n = \sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$$

Then the random process $\{X_n : n \geq 0\}$ is a random walk within an integer set, and $\{Y_n\}$ is the step size. Since the step size is iid, the current step is independent of the previous step, and the stochastic process is a Markov chain [2]. Both the Bernoulli process and the problem of gambler bankruptcy are special cases of random wandering [2]

As can be seen from the above random walk example, there is a general way to construct Markov chains, specifically, if the random process $\{X_n : n \geq 0\}$ in the state space $\mathcal{S}_X$ has a satisfying form [2]:

$$X_n = f(X_{n-1}, Y_n), \quad n \geq 1$$

where $f: \mathcal{S}_X \times \mathcal{S}_Y \rightarrow \mathcal{S}_X$ is $\{Y_n\}$ a spatial $\mathcal{S}_Y$ iid random variable and independent X_0 of, then the stochastic process $\{X_n : n \geq 0\}$ is a Markov chain, and its one-step transfer probability is: $P_{i_n, i_{n+1}} = p[f(s_n, Y_1) = s_{n+1}]$ [2]. This conclusion shows that Markov chains can be numerically simulated by $[0, 1]$ random variables (random numbers) that obey the uniform distribution of IIDs in the interval [2].

2.12 Steady-state analysis

Here we introduce a description of the long-time scale behavior of Markov chains, i.e., stationary distributions and limit distributions, and define stationary Markov chains.

(一) Stationary Distribution

Given a Markov chain, if there is a probability distribution in its state space $\pi = \pi(\mathbf{s})$, and the distribution satisfies the following conditions:

$$\forall s_j \in \mathcal{S} : \pi(s_j) = \sum_{s_i \in \mathcal{S}} \pi(s_i) P_{i,j} \iff \boldsymbol{\pi} = \boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{P}, \quad 0 < \pi(s_i) < 1, \quad \|\boldsymbol{\pi}\| = 1$$

$\boldsymbol{\pi}$ is the stationary distribution of the Markov chain. where is the transition matrix and the transition probability, and the system of linear equations to the right of the equivalence sign is called the balance equation. Further, if a Markov chain has a stationary distribution and its initial distribution is stationary, the Markov chain is in a steady state [1]. From a geometric point of view, considering that the stationary distribution of the Markov chain has, the support set of the distribution is a standard simplex.

For an irreducible Markov chain, if and only if there is a unique stationary distribution, i.e., the equilibrium equation has a unique solution on the regular simplex,

the Markov chain is normal, and the stationary distribution is expressed as follows: ^[1]
[6]

$$\pi(s_i) = \frac{1}{E(T_i)}, E(T_i) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n \cdot p(T_i = n)$$

This conclusion is known as the stationary distribution criterion ^[1]. For irreducible and regressive Markov chains, solving the equilibrium equation yields the only eigenvector besides the scale, i.e., the invariant measure, and if the Markov chain is normal, its stationary distribution is obtained when solving the equilibrium equation, and the eigenvector when the eigenvalue is 1, i.e., the normalized invariant measure ^[2], so the sufficient and necessary condition for the existence of a stable distribution of Markov chains is the existence of a normal return state. In addition, if a Markov chain contains multiple connected classes consisting of normal return states (by nature they are all closed sets, so the Markov chain is not normal return), then each connected class has a stationary distribution, and the evolved steady state depends on the initial distribution.

(二) Limiting Distribution

If the state space of a Markov chain has a probability distribution and satisfies the following relation:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} p(X_n = s_i) = \pi(s_i)$$

then the distribution is the limit distribution of the Markov chain. It is noted that the definition of the limit distribution is independent of the initial distribution, i.e., for any initial distribution, the probability distribution of the random variable tends to the limit distribution when the time step tends to be infinite ^[2]. By definition, the limit distribution must be stationary, but the reverse is not true, e.g. a periodic Markov chain may have a stationary distribution, but the periodic Markov chain does not converge to any distribution, and its stationary distribution is not a limit distribution ^[8].

1. Limiting theorem

If two independent aperiodic stationary Markov chains, i.e., traversal chains, have the same transition matrix, then the difference between the limit distributions tends to 0 when the time steps tend to infinity. According to the coupling theory in stochastic processes, this conclusion is expressed as follows: for a traversal chain with the same state space, given an arbitrary initial distribution, there is ^[2]:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{s_i} |p(X_n = s_i) - p(Y_n = s_i)| = 0$$

where denotes the supremum. Considering the nature of stationary distribution, it is inferred that for a traversal chain, when the time step tends to be infinite, its limit distribution tends to be stationary [2]:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{s_i} |p(X_n = s_i) - \pi(s_i)| = 0$$

This conclusion is sometimes referred to as the limit theorem of Markov chain, which shows that if a Markov chain is ergonatoric, its limit distribution is stationary. For an irreducible and non-periodic Markov chain, it is equivalent to its limit distribution existence and its stationary distribution [2] [9].

2. Ergodic theorem

If a Markov chain is a traversal chain, then the ratio of the number of visits to a state to the time step by the ergodic theorem tends to be the reciprocal of the average return time when the time step tends to infinity, i.e., the stationary distribution or limit distribution of the state [1]:

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p(X_n = s_i | X_0 = s_i) = \frac{1}{E(s_i)} = \pi(s_i)$$

The proof of the ergodic theorem relies on the Strong Law of Large Numbers (SLLN), which shows that an approximation of the limit distribution can be obtained by making multiple observations of one of the random variables (the limit theorem) and one observation of multiple random variables (left side of the above equation) after a sufficiently long evolution, regardless of the initial distribution of the traversal chain [1]. Since the traversal chain satisfies both the limit theorem and the ergodic theorem, MCMC constructs the traversal chain to ensure that it converges to a stationary distribution in iteration [10].

(三) stationary Markov chain

If a Markov chain has a unique stationary distribution and the limit distribution converges to a stationary distribution, then it is by definition equivalent to a stationary Markov chain [2]. Stationary Markov chains are strictly stationary stochastic processes whose evolution is not chronologically dependent [2]:

$$P_{i_n, i_{n+1}} = p(X_{i_{n+1}} = s_{n+1} | X_{i_n} = s_n) = p(X_{i_n} = s_n | X_{i_{n-1}} = s_{n-1})$$

From the limit theorem, it can be seen that the traversal chain is a stationary Markov chain. In addition, as defined above, the transition matrix of a stationary

Markov chain is a constant matrix, and the n-step transition matrix is the nth power of the constant matrix ^[4]. Stationary Markov chains are also known as time-homogeneous Markov chains, and if the Markov chain does not meet the above conditions, it is called a non-stationary Markov chain or a time-inhomogeneous Markov chain^[11].

A stationary Markov chain is reversible if it satisfies the detailed balance condition for any two states, and is called a reversible Markov chain ^[12]. :

$$\pi(s_i) p(X_{n+1} = s_j | X_n = s_i) = \pi(s_j) p(X_{n+1} = s_i | X_n = s_j)$$

The reversibility of the Markov chain is more strictly irreducible, that is, it can not only be transferred between any states, but also has an equal probability of transfer to each state, so the reversible Markov chain is a sufficient but not necessary condition for a stationary Markov chain. In the Markov chain Monte Carlo (MCMC), the construction of a reversible Markov chain that satisfies the fine equilibrium condition is a method to ensure that the sampling distribution is stationary ^[12].

2.13 Markov Chain Extensions

(一) Markov process

The Markov process, also known as the continuous-time Markov chain, is a generalization of the Markov chain or discrete-time Markov chain, whose state space is a countable set, but the one-dimensional exponential set no longer has the limit of a countable set and can represent continuous time. The Markov process is analogous to the properties of the Markov chain, and its Markov properties are usually expressed as follows ^[2]:

$$p[X(t+u) = s_j | X(t) = s_i, X(s), s < t] = p[X(u) = s_j | X(0) = s_i], \quad t, u > 0$$

Since the state space of a Markov process is a countable set, and its sample orbital (a.s.) is almost certainly a right-continuous fragment function at continuous time, the Markov process can be represented as a jump process and associated with a Markov chain ^[2]:

$$X(t) = X_n, \quad \text{if } t \in [t_n, t_n + \Delta t_n) \text{ for some } n$$

$$p(\Delta t_0 \leq t_0, \dots, \Delta t_N \leq t_N | X_n) = \prod_{n=1}^N p(\Delta t \leq t_n | X_n)$$

where is the sojourn time of a state, which is the exponential set member (time fragment) of the order. The Markov chain and the residence time that satisfy the above relationship are the local embedding processes of the hopping process under a finite time fragment embedded process) ^[2].

(二) Markov model

Markov chain or Markov process is not the only stochastic process based on Markov properties, in fact, stochastic processes such as hidden Markov models, Markov decision processes, Markov random fields, etc. Stochastic models all have Markov properties and are collectively referred to as Markov models. Here is a brief introduction to the other members of the Markov model:

1. Hidden Markov Model (HMM)

HMM is a Markov chain with a state space that is not fully visible, i.e., contains hidden status, and the visible part of HMM is called the emission state, which is related to the hidden state, but not enough to form a complete correspondence. Taking speech recognition as an example, the statement to be recognized is an invisible hidden state, and the received speech or audio is the output state related to the statement, and the common application of HMM is to deduce the corresponding statement from the speech input based on the Markov property, that is, to de-encrypt the hidden state from the output state ^{[18][19]}

2. Markov decision process (MDP)

MDP is a Markov chain that introduces "actions" on the basis of state space, that is, the transition probability of the Markov chain is not only related to the current state, but also to the current action. MDP contains a set of interactive objects, namely agents and environments, and defines five model elements: state, action, policy, reward, and return, where strategy is the mapping of state to action, and return is the discount or accumulation of rewards over time. In the evolution of MDP, the agent perceives the initial state of the environment, implements actions according to the strategy, and the environment enters a new state affected by the actions and feeds back a reward to the agent. The agent receives the "reward" and adopts new strategies to continuously interact with the environment. MDP is one of the mathematical models of reinforcement learning, which is used to simulate the randomness strategies and rewards that agents can achieve ^[20]. One of the generalizations of MDP is the partially observable Markov decision process (POMDP), i.e., MDP that takes into account both the hidden and output states in the HMM ^[20].

3. Markov Random Field (MRF)

MRF is the generalization of Markov chain from one-dimensional exponential set to high-dimensional space. The Markov property of MRF is that the state of any one of its random variables is determined only by the state of all its adjacent random

variables. Analogous to a finite-dimensional distribution in a Markov chain, the joint probability distribution of a random variable in MRF is the product of all cliques containing that random variable. The most common example of MRF is the Ising model ^[21].

2.2 Tests for Time Dependence and Homogeneity in Random Sequences

Before testing the Markovian property of a random sequence, it is usually necessary to first determine the sequence's time dependence and homogeneity. Time dependence tests assess whether elements in a random sequence exhibit dependency; if a statistical dependence exists between a given element and prior elements, the sequence may satisfy the Markovian assumption. Homogeneity tests, on the other hand, evaluate whether the transition probabilities remain constant across different time periods, which is a condition for homogeneous Markov Chains.

Common methods for testing time dependence include autocorrelation function analysis and time series regression analysis. The autocorrelation function describes the dependencies between elements in a sequence and their lagged values. By examining the autocorrelation coefficients at different lag steps, the correlation structure of the sequence can be determined. For homogeneity testing, researchers often estimate transition probability matrices for different time periods and then compare these matrices to assess their statistical equivalence. If no significant differences are found among transition probabilities, the homogeneity assumption can be accepted.

The time dependence and homogeneity of stochastic sequences are critical aspects in understanding their structure and behavior. Time dependence analysis explores the relationship between a state and its historical states, while homogeneity tests evaluate whether the statistical properties of a sequence remain consistent over time. These tests are fundamental for assessing whether a stochastic sequence follows the Markov chain assumption.

2.2.1 Analysis of Time Dependence

Time dependence reflects the intrinsic connections between states in a sequence and is a core concept in random process analysis. Common methods for analyzing

time dependence include:

1. Autocorrelation Function (ACF)

ACF evaluates the linear correlation between the current state X_t and a past state X_{t-k} . It is defined as:

$$p_k = \frac{\text{Cov}(X_t, X_{t-k})}{\sqrt{\text{Var}(X_t) \cdot \text{Var}(X_{t-k})}}$$

ACF can reveal periodicity and dependence in stochastic sequences. For Markov sequences, ACF rapidly decays to zero when $k \geq 2$ [13].

2. Partial Autocorrelation Function (PACF)

PACF measures direct time dependence by excluding the influence of intermediate states. A significant PACF value at $k=1$ with other lags close to zero indicates that the sequence exhibits first-order Markov properties [14].

3. Unit Root Test

This method checks the stationarity of a sequence. The presence of a unit root indicates long-term dependence, which is especially relevant for analyzing non-stationary sequences.

2.22 Homogeneity Tests

Homogeneity tests determine whether the transition probabilities of a stochastic sequence change over time. For Markov chains, homogeneity implies that the transition probability matrix remains constant throughout the sequence. Common homogeneity testing methods include:

1. Segment-Based Tests

The sequence is divided into several segments, and the transition probability matrix for each segment is estimated. The matrices are then compared to determine whether there are significant differences:

- **Matrix Comparison:** Chi-square tests evaluate statistical differences between the transition probability matrices of different segments.
- **Dynamic Time Warping (DTW):** This method accounts for nonlinear variations affecting homogeneity.

2. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test (KS Test)

This test compares the cumulative distributions of transition probabilities to detect non-homogeneity.

3. Sliding Window Method

Sliding window analysis calculates the local transition probability matrix within a moving window, capturing its variation over time. This is particularly useful for detecting non-stationarity^[15].

2.23 Role of Time Dependence and Homogeneity in Markov Properties

Time dependence and homogeneity are core characteristics for assessing Markov properties:

1. If a sequence exhibits no significant time dependence, it likely does not satisfy the Markov property.
2. If the sequence is non-homogeneous and its transition probabilities vary over time, it violates the Markov chain assumption.

2.24 Application of Chi-Square Statistics in Tests

Chi-square statistics play a significant role in testing time dependence and homogeneity of stochastic sequences. Their advantage lies in providing quantitative evaluations by comparing observed data with expected values. Common chi-square-based tests include:

1. Test for Time Dependence

Chi-square statistics evaluate whether the transition frequencies of states deviate significantly from expected values, determining whether the time dependence aligns with the Markov assumption.

2. Test for Homogeneity

By comparing transition probability matrices across different segments, chi-square statistics identify deviations that indicate non-homogeneity.

2.25 Practical Applications

Time dependence and homogeneity tests of stochastic sequences have been successfully applied in various fields:

- **Finance:** Stationarity analysis and modeling of stock price sequences.
- **Bioinformatics:** Dependency analysis of gene and protein sequences.
- **Natural Language Processing:** Transition probability analysis in text generation models.

2.3 Chi-Square Goodness-of-Fit Test

2.3.1 Basics of Chi-Square Goodness-of-Fit Test

(一) Definition and Purpose

The chi-square goodness-of-fit test is a statistical method used to assess whether observed data align with a specified theoretical distribution. Its primary purpose is to compare the observed values with expected values under a theoretical model to determine whether the data comes from the specified distribution (e.g., normal, uniform).

(二) Principle

The chi-square goodness-of-fit statistic is calculated as:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$

where:

O_i : Observed frequency for the i -th category;

E_i : Expected frequency for the i -th category, calculated under the theoretical distribution;

k : Total number of categories.

Basic Assumptions:

Null Hypothesis (H_0): The observed data conforms to the theoretical distribution.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_1): The observed data does not conform to the theoretical distribution.

The test statistic χ^2 approximately follows a chi-square distribution with degrees of freedom $\nu = k - 1 - p$, where p is the number of estimated parameters.

(三) Procedure

1. State the Hypotheses:

H_0 : The sample data matches the theoretical distribution.

H_1 : The sample data does not match the theoretical distribution.

2. Categorize Data and Count Frequencies:

Divide the sample data into k categories and count the observed frequencies Q_i for each category.

3. Calculate Expected Frequencies:

Compute the expected frequencies based on the theoretical distribution:

$$E_i = P_i \cdot N$$

where P_i is the theoretical probability for the i -th category, and N is the total sample size.

4. Compute the Chi-Square Statistic:

Use the formula $\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$ to compute the test statistic.

5. Determine Degrees of Freedom and Significance Level:

Degrees of freedom $\nu = k - 1 - p$;

Select a significance level α , typically 0.05.

6. Compare with Critical Value or Compute p-Value:

Compare χ^2 with the critical value χ^2_{critical} from the chi-square table;

Alternatively, calculate the p-value and compare it with α .

7. Draw Conclusions:

If $\chi^2 > \chi^2_{\text{critical}}$ or the p-value is less than α , reject H_0 ;

Otherwise, fail to reject H_0 .

(四) Key Considerations

1. Sample Size Requirements:

Each category's expected frequency E_i should satisfy $E_i \geq 5$. For smaller E_i , adjacent categories can be merged.

2. Reasonable Categorization:

Categories should sufficiently reflect the distribution's characteristics without being overly granular to avoid sparsity.

3. Applicable Data Types:

This test is suitable for discrete data. For continuous data, grouping into categories is required.

4. Independence Assumption:

Observations must be independent. Violations can lead to misleading results.

5. Large Sample Effects:

With very large sample sizes, even minor differences can result in statistically

significant chi-square values.

2.3.2 Application of Chi-Square Statistics in Testing Random Sequences

The Chi-Square test is a commonly used non-parametric statistical method for testing the independence of categorical variables or the goodness-of-fit of observed data to a theoretical distribution. In random sequence analysis, the Chi-Square test effectively detects differences between observed transition frequencies and expected values. By calculating the deviation between observed and expected frequencies and standardizing it, the Chi-Square statistic measures the significance of this deviation.

In testing the Markovian property, we can use the Chi-Square statistic to compare transition probability matrices across different time periods and determine whether significant differences exist. Specifically, for a given random sequence, the sequence can be divided into multiple sub-periods, and each period's transition probability matrix can be calculated. Then, using the Chi-Square statistic, we assess whether these matrices are statistically equivalent. If the test results show no significant differences in transition probabilities between different sub-periods, the sequence can be considered to satisfy the homogeneity assumption, thereby meeting the conditions for a homogeneous Markov Chain.

2.4 Related Research Progress

In the field of testing for the Markovian property of Markov Chains, various researchers have proposed different methods for assessing time dependence and homogeneity in random sequences. Bickenbach and Bode introduced a Chi-Square-based testing method to assess the time stability of the transition probability matrix by comparing observed and expected frequencies. This approach has strong theoretical interpretability and high flexibility in practical applications, making it widely applicable in various data analysis scenarios.

In addition, other scholars have proposed alternative testing methods, such as likelihood ratio tests based on maximum likelihood estimation and statistical tests within a Bayesian framework. These methods provide different perspectives for testing the Markovian property, allowing researchers to choose suitable testing tools based on specific applications. However, the Chi-Square test, with its simplicity and straightforward interpretability, remains a widely adopted and classic approach.

3. Theoretical Foundation

3.1 Fundamental Theory of Markov Chains

A Markov Chain is a mathematical model describing a stochastic process where the "memoryless" property holds: transitions depend only on the current state and are independent of previous states. This property simplifies the analysis of complex systems and is valuable in many practical applications. For a discrete-state Markov Chain with state space $S = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_m\}$, the system can transition between states at discrete time steps $t=1, 2, \dots$. The state transitions are represented by the transition probability matrix P :

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} p_{11} & p_{12} & \cdots & p_{1m} \\ p_{21} & p_{22} & \cdots & p_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ p_{m1} & p_{m2} & \cdots & p_{mm} \end{bmatrix}$$

where $p_{ij} = P(X_{t+1} = s_j | X_t = s_i)$ denotes the probability of transitioning from state s_i to state s_j given the current state.

3.1.1 Properties of the Transition Probability Matrix

The transition probability matrix P has the following properties:

1. **Non-negativity:** For any $i, j, p_{ij} \geq 0$, meaning each transition probability is non-negative.
2. **Row sum equals 1:** For any state $s_i, \sum_{j=1}^m p_{ij} = 1$. This property ensures that, from any state, the system will transition to one of the states (including potentially remaining in the same state).

These properties provide a theoretical foundation for further analysis and calculation of Markov Chains.

3.1.2 Homogeneity and Non-Homogeneity

In a homogeneous Markov Chain, the transition probability matrix P remains constant over time, meaning transition probabilities are the same at any time t . In contrast, the transition probability matrix in a non-homogeneous Markov Chain may

vary over time. This study focuses primarily on homogeneous Markov Chains, as the homogeneity assumption not only simplifies analysis but is also reasonable in many practical applications.

3.2 Fundamentals of Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis testing is a statistical method for evaluating hypotheses about a population using sample data. The hypothesis testing process includes formulating a null hypothesis H_0 and an alternative hypothesis H_1 , selecting an appropriate test statistic, and determining whether to reject H_0 based on a significance level.

In this study, we conduct hypothesis testing to determine whether a sequence exhibits the Markov property. The specific steps include:

1. Formulating the Null and Alternative Hypotheses:

- Null hypothesis H_0 : The random sequence follows the Markov property and satisfies the homogeneity assumption.
- Alternative hypothesis H_1 : The random sequence does not follow the Markov property or does not satisfy the homogeneity assumption.

2. Selecting the Test Statistic:

Using the Chi-Square statistic χ^2 to measure the deviation between observed data and expected values.

3. Significance Level and Critical Value:

Choosing a significance level (typically 0.05 or 0.01) and finding the corresponding critical value based on the Chi-Square distribution to define the rejection region.

Principle of the Chi-Square Test

The Chi-Square test is a non-parametric statistical method commonly used for testing independence of categorical variables and goodness-of-fit. In the Markov property test, the Chi-Square statistic is used to assess differences between transition probability matrices across different time periods. By comparing the deviation

between observed transition frequencies and expected frequencies, we can determine whether these matrices are statistically equivalent.

The Chi-Square statistic is calculated as follows:

$$x^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}}$$

where O_{ij} represents observed frequencies, and E_{ij} represents expected frequencies. If the computed x^2 result exceeds the critical value at a given significance level, the null hypothesis can be rejected, indicating that the sequence does not meet the Markov or homogeneity assumption.

3.3 Method for Testing Markov Property

To determine whether a given random sequence follows the Markov property, we can perform the following steps:

1. Data Segmentation:

Divide the random sequence into multiple time periods to calculate transition probabilities within each period.

2. Estimating Transition Probabilities:

Calculate the transition probability matrix P_t for each time period.

3. Calculating the Chi-Square Statistic:

Based on the transition probability matrices of each period, use the Chi-Square statistic x^2 to measure the differences in transition probabilities across periods.

4. Testing Significance:

Compare the computed x^2 value with the critical value to determine whether the Markov property hypothesis can be accepted.

4. Implementation of the Chi-Square Test for Markovian Property

This chapter focuses on how to test a given stochastic sequence for Markovian properties using a chi-square test. It details the steps of data segmentation, transition probability matrix estimation, chi-square statistic calculation, significance testing, and results interpretation.

4.1 Segmentation of the Stochastic Sequence

To test the Markovian property of a stochastic sequence, the sequence must first be divided into multiple time segments. Each segment is then analyzed independently to calculate transition probability matrices, allowing us to evaluate the consistency of these matrices across time.

1. Number of Segments T :

The number of segments can be specified by the user or determined automatically based on the sequence length. Assuming the sequence length is NNN , the average length of each segment would be N/T .

2. Segmentation Strategy:

Generally, a fixed-length segmentation is used to ensure a consistent data size in each segment, facilitating calculation and statistical testing.

In Python, this can be achieved by slicing the sequence into multiple sub-sequences for transition probability estimation.

4.2 Estimation of the Transition Probability Matrix

Within each segment, the transition probability matrix is estimated based on the frequency of observed state transitions. The steps are as follows:

1. Count State Transition Frequencies: Traverse the state sequence within the segment, count each pair of transitions (from state S_i to state S_j), and form a frequency matrix F .
2. Calculate Transition Probabilities: Normalize the frequency matrix to obtain the

corresponding transition probability matrix P , such that $P_{ij} = F_{ij} / \sum_i ij$.

● Code Example

The following code illustrates how to estimate a transition probability matrix in Python:

```
import numpy as np

def estimate_transition_matrix(segment, num_states):
    # Initialize frequency matrix
    frequency_matrix = np.zeros((num_states, num_states))

    # Count state transitions
    for i in range(len(segment) - 1):
        current_state = segment[i]
        next_state = segment[i + 1]
        frequency_matrix[current_state, next_state] += 1

    # Normalize to obtain transition probability matrix
    transition_matrix = frequency_matrix / frequency_matrix.sum(axis=1, keepdims=True)
    return np.nan_to_num(transition_matrix) # Prevent division by zero
```

4.3 Calculation of the Chi-Square Statistic

After obtaining the transition probability matrix for each segment, we use the chi-square statistic to evaluate the consistency of these matrices:

1. **Calculate Expected Transition Frequencies:** If we assume that transition probabilities are consistent across segments, the expected frequency matrix EEE can be calculated using the average transition probability matrix from all segments.
2. **Calculate the Chi-Square Statistic:** Based on the observed frequency matrix OOO and the expected frequency matrix EEE , the chi-square statistic is calculated as follows:

$$x^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}}$$

where O_{ij} represents the observed frequency, and E_{ij} represents the expected frequency. This statistic measures the degree of discrepancy between observed and expected values.

● Code Example

Below is an example of calculating the chi-square statistic in Python:

```
def calculate_chi_square(observed_matrix, expected_matrix):
    # Avoid zero expected frequencies
    expected_matrix = np.where(expected_matrix == 0, 1e-10, expected_matrix)

    # Calculate chi-square statistic
    chi_square_statistic = np.sum((observed_matrix - expected_matrix) ** 2 /
expected_matrix)

    return chi_square_statistic
```

4.4 Significance Testing and Result Interpretation

Using the chi-square statistic, we can perform a significance test to assess the Markovian property of the stochastic sequence.

1. **Significance Level α :** Select a significance level, commonly 0.05 or 0.01.
2. **Critical Value:** Refer to the chi-square distribution table to find the critical value based on the degrees of freedom $(m-1)^2$.
3. **Decision Rule:** If the chi-square statistic exceeds the critical value, we reject the null hypothesis, concluding that the sequence does not meet the Markovian assumption. Otherwise, we accept the null hypothesis.

● Code Example

The following code demonstrates a significance test in Python:

```
from scipy.stats import chi2

def chi_square_test(chi_square_statistic, alpha, degrees_of_freedom):
    # Get the critical value
    critical_value = chi2.ppf(1 - alpha, degrees_of_freedom)

    # Decision rule: Reject or accept the null hypothesis
    if chi_square_statistic > critical_value:
```

```

        return False # Reject the null hypothesis
    else:
        return True # Accept the null hypothesis

```

4.5 Summary of Implementation Process

To summarize, implementing a chi-square test for Markovian property involves the following steps:

1. Segment the stochastic sequence;
2. Calculate the transition probability matrix for each segment;
3. Compute the expected transition frequency matrix;
4. Calculate the chi-square statistic based on observed and expected frequency matrices;
5. Perform a significance test to decide if the Markovian property holds.

● Comprehensive Code Example

The following is a complete code example implementing the described method:

```

import numpy as np
from scipy.stats import chi2

def estimate_transition_matrix(segment, num_states):
    frequency_matrix = np.zeros((num_states, num_states))
    for i in range(len(segment) - 1):
        current_state = segment[i]
        next_state = segment[i + 1]
        frequency_matrix[current_state, next_state] += 1
    transition_matrix = frequency_matrix / frequency_matrix.sum(axis=1, keepdims=True)
    return np.nan_to_num(transition_matrix)

def calculate_chi_square(observed_matrix, expected_matrix):
    expected_matrix = np.where(expected_matrix == 0, 1e-10, expected_matrix)
    chi_square_statistic = np.sum((observed_matrix - expected_matrix) ** 2 /
expected_matrix)
    return chi_square_statistic

```

```

def chi_square_test(chi_square_statistic, alpha, degrees_of_freedom):
    critical_value = chi2.ppf(1 - alpha, degrees_of_freedom)
    return chi_square_statistic <= critical_value

# Example process
sequence = [0, 1, 0, 1, 2, 1, 0] # Example sequence
num_states = 3
alpha = 0.05
T = 3 # Number of segments
segments = np.array_split(sequence, T)
observed_matrices = [estimate_transition_matrix(seg, num_states) for seg in segments]

# Calculate the expected transition matrix
expected_matrix = sum(observed_matrices) / len(observed_matrices)

# Calculate chi-square statistics and test
chi_square_values = [calculate_chi_square(obs, expected_matrix) for obs in
observed_matrices]
degrees_of_freedom = (num_states - 1) ** 2
results = [chi_square_test(chi_val, alpha, degrees_of_freedom) for chi_val in
chi_square_values]

print("Test results:", results)

```

5. Experiments and Results Analysis

This chapter presents the experiments based on the methods and theories discussed in the previous chapters. It includes the preparation of experimental data, the implementation and results of the experimental steps, and the analysis of the obtained results. All experiments were conducted using Python, ensuring the accuracy of the results.

5.1 Experimental Data Preparation

To verify the Markovian properties of sequences, three types of sequences were generated:

1. **Markov Sequence:** A sequence that adheres to the Markov chain property.
2. **Non-Markov Sequence:** A purely random sequence with no dependence on previous states.
3. **Piecewise Non-Stationary Sequence:** A sequence composed of segments, each with independent Markov transition matrices.

Below are the code and results for generating these sequences.

(一) Generating a Markov Sequence

● Implementation Code:

```
1 import numpy as np
2
3 # Define a function to generate a Markov sequence
4 1 usage
5 def generate_markov_sequence(length, transition_matrix, initial_state=0):
6     sequence = [initial_state]
7     for _ in range(length - 1):
8         current_state = sequence[-1]
9         next_state = np.random.choice(len(transition_matrix), p=transition_matrix[current_state])
10        sequence.append(next_state)
11    return sequence
12
13 # Define transition matrix
14 transition_matrix = [[0.7, 0.3], [0.4, 0.6]]
15 length = 100
16
17 # Generate and print the sequence
18 markov_sequence = generate_markov_sequence(length, transition_matrix)
19 print("Generated Markov Sequence:", markov_sequence)
```

● Execution Result:

(二) Generating a Non-Markov Sequence

- **Implementation Code:**

```

12 # Define transition matrix
13 transition_matrix = [[0.7, 0.3], [0.4, 0.6]]
14 length = 100
15
16 # Generate and print the sequence
17 markov_sequence = generate_markov_sequence(length, transition_matrix)
18 print("Generated Markov Sequence:", markov_sequence)
19
20 # Define a function to generate a non-Markov sequence
21 1 usage
22 def generate_non_markov_sequence(length, num_states):
23     return np.random.choice(num_states, length).tolist()
24
25 # Generate and print the sequence
26 non_markov_sequence = generate_non_markov_sequence(length, num_states: 2)
27 print("Generated Non-Markov Sequence:", non_markov_sequence)

```

- **Execution Result:**

Generated Non-Markov Sequence: [0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0]

(三) Generating a Piecewise Non-Stationary Sequence

- **Implementation Code:**

```
30 # Define a function to generate a piecewise non-stationary sequence
31 # usage
32
33 def generate_nonstationary_sequence(segment_lengths, transition_matrices):
34     sequence = []
35     for length, matrix in zip(segment_lengths, transition_matrices):
36         segment = generate_markov_sequence(length, matrix)
37         sequence.extend(segment)
38     return sequence
39
40 # Define transition matrices and segment lengths
41 segment_lengths = [50, 50]
42 transition_matrices = [[0.7, 0.3], [0.4, 0.6]], [[0.5, 0.5], [0.3, 0.7]]
43
44 # Generate and print the sequence
45 nonstationary_sequence = generate_nonstationary_sequence(segment_lengths, transition_matrices)
46 print("Generated Piecewise Non-Stationary Sequence:", nonstationary_sequence)
```

- **Execution Result:**

[illegible]

5.2 Experimental Steps

The purpose of the experiment is to test the Markovian properties of the three types of sequences. The detailed steps are as follows:

Step 1: Segmenting the Sequences

The three sequences are divided into $T=5$ segments, each containing N/T states.

- **Segmentation Code**

The following code implements the segmentation process for the sequences:

```

46 # Function to segment a sequence
47 # 3 usages
48 def segment_sequence(sequence, num_segments):
49     segment_length = len(sequence) // num_segments
50     segments = [sequence[i * segment_length:(i + 1) * segment_length] for i in range(num_segments)]
51     return segments
52
53 # Segmenting sequences
54 num_segments = 5
55 markov_segments = segment_sequence(markov_sequence, num_segments)
56 non_markov_segments = segment_sequence(non_markov_sequence, num_segments)
57 nonstationary_segments = segment_sequence(nonstationary_sequence, num_segments)
58
59 # Printing segmented results
60 print("Segmented Markov Sequence:", markov_segments)
61 print("Segmented Non-Markov Sequence:", non_markov_segments)
62 print("Segmented Non-Stationary Sequence:", nonstationary_segments)

```

● Execution Results

Segmented Markov Sequence: [[0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0], [0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1], [1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1], [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0], [1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0]]

Segmented Non-Markov Sequence: [[0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1], [1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0], [0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0], [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0], [1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0]]

Segmented Non-Stationary Sequence: [[0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0], [0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0], [1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1], [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1], [1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 0, 0]]

Step 2: Estimating Transition Probability Matrices

The state transition frequencies for each segment are calculated and converted into transition probability matrices.

Example (Segment 1):

- State transition $0 \rightarrow 0$: 12 times; $0 \rightarrow 1$: 8 times;
- State transition $1 \rightarrow 0$ 6 times; $1 \rightarrow 1$: 14 times.

Transition probability matrix:

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{12}{20} & \frac{8}{20} \\ \frac{6}{20} & \frac{14}{20} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.6 & 0.4 \\ 0.3 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix}$$

● Implementation Code:

```
# Estimating transition matrices for each segment
markov_transition_matrices = [estimate_transition_matrix(segment).tolist() for segment in markov_segments]
non_markov_transition_matrices = [estimate_transition_matrix(segment).tolist() for segment in non_markov_segments]
nonstationary_transition_matrices = [estimate_transition_matrix(segment).tolist() for segment in nonstationary_segments]

# Printing results
print("\nMarkov Transition Matrices:")
for i, matrix in enumerate(markov_transition_matrices, 1):
    print(f"Segment {i} Transition Matrix:\n{matrix}")

print("\nNon-Markov Transition Matrices:")
for i, matrix in enumerate(non_markov_transition_matrices, 1):
    print(f"Segment {i} Transition Matrix:\n{matrix}")

print("\nNon-Stationary Transition Matrices:")
for i, matrix in enumerate(nonstationary_transition_matrices, 1):
    print(f"Segment {i} Transition Matrix:\n{matrix}")
```

● Execution Result:

```
Markov Transition Matrices:
Segment 1 Transition Matrix: [[0.85, 0.15], [0.33, 0.67]]
Segment 2 Transition Matrix: [[0.5, 0.5], [0.23, 0.77]]
Segment 3 Transition Matrix: [[0.75, 0.25], [0.29, 0.71]]
Segment 4 Transition Matrix: [[0.5, 0.5], [0.45, 0.55]]
Segment 5 Transition Matrix: [[0.67, 0.33], [0.3, 0.7]]

Non-Markov Transition Matrices:
Segment 1 Transition Matrix: [[0.33, 0.67], [0.6, 0.4]]
Segment 2 Transition Matrix: [[0.25, 0.75], [0.64, 0.36]]
Segment 3 Transition Matrix: [[0.57, 0.43], [0.25, 0.75]]
Segment 4 Transition Matrix: [[0.6, 0.4], [0.56, 0.44]]
Segment 5 Transition Matrix: [[0.69, 0.31], [0.5, 0.5]]

Non-Stationary Transition Matrices:
Segment 1 Transition Matrix: [[0.69, 0.31], [0.5, 0.5]]
Segment 2 Transition Matrix: [[0.57, 0.43], [0.25, 0.75]]
Segment 3 Transition Matrix: [[0.69, 0.31], [0.67, 0.33]]
Segment 4 Transition Matrix: [[0.0, 1.0], [0.2, 0.8]]
Segment 5 Transition Matrix: [[0.25, 0.75], [0.2, 0.8]]
```

Step 3: Calculating the Chi-Square Statistic

Formula:

$$x^2 = \sum \frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$$

Where O is the observed frequency and E is the expected frequency.

Example: Observed frequency:

$$O = \begin{bmatrix} 12 & 8 \\ 6 & 14 \end{bmatrix}$$

Expected frequency (using theoretical transition matrix):

$$E = \begin{bmatrix} 14 & 6 \\ 8 & 12 \end{bmatrix}$$

Computation:

$$x^2 = \frac{(12-14)^2}{14} + \frac{(8-6)^2}{6} + \frac{(6-8)^2}{8} + \frac{(14-12)^2}{12} = 1.19$$

● Implementation Code:

```
# Function to calculate observed transition frequencies
2 usages
def calculate_transition_frequencies(sequence, num_states=2):
    frequencies = np.zeros((num_states, num_states))
    for i in range(len(sequence) - 1):
        current_state = sequence[i]
        next_state = sequence[i + 1]
        frequencies[current_state, next_state] += 1
    return frequencies

# Function to compute chi-square statistic
1 usage
def compute_chi_square_statistic(observed_matrix, expected_matrix):
    return np.sum((observed_matrix - expected_matrix) ** 2 / expected_matrix)

# Calculate total observed frequencies and expected probabilities
3 usages
def calculate_total_expected_matrix(segments, num_states=2):
    total_frequencies = np.zeros((num_states, num_states))
    for segment in segments:
        total_frequencies += calculate_transition_frequencies(segment, num_states)
    total_probabilities = total_frequencies / total_frequencies.sum() # Normalize to probabilities
    return total_probabilities

# Example: Chi-square calculation for Markov sequences
3 usages
def calculate_chi_square_for_sequence(segments, total_prob_matrix, num_states=2):
    chi_square_values = []
    for segment in segments:
        observed_frequencies = calculate_transition_frequencies(segment, num_states)
        expected_frequencies = total_prob_matrix * observed_frequencies.sum() # Scale probabilities to frequencies
        chi_square = compute_chi_square_statistic(observed_frequencies, expected_frequencies)
        chi_square_values.append(chi_square)
    return chi_square_values

# Compute results for three types of sequences
num_states = 2
markov_total_prob_matrix = calculate_total_expected_matrix(markov_segments, num_states)
non_markov_total_prob_matrix = calculate_total_expected_matrix(non_markov_segments, num_states)
nonstationary_total_prob_matrix = calculate_total_expected_matrix(nonstationary_segments, num_states)

markov_chi_square_values = calculate_chi_square_for_sequence(markov_segments, markov_total_prob_matrix, num_states)
non_markov_chi_square_values = calculate_chi_square_for_sequence(non_markov_segments, non_markov_total_prob_matrix, num_states)
nonstationary_chi_square_values = calculate_chi_square_for_sequence(nonstationary_segments, nonstationary_total_prob_matrix, num_states)

# Printing results
print("Chi-Square Statistics for Markov Sequences:", markov_chi_square_values)
print("Chi-Square Statistics for Non-Markov Sequences:", non_markov_chi_square_values)
print("Chi-Square Statistics for Non-Stationary Sequences:", nonstationary_chi_square_values)
```

- **Execution Result:**

```
Chi-Square Statistics for Markov Sequences: [0.56, 6.58, 0.16, 2.47, 0.56]  
Chi-Square Statistics for Non-Markov Sequences: [3.15, 9.76, 1.44, 2.05, 3.0]  
Chi-Square Statistics for Non-Stationary Sequences: [5.0, 0.16, 0.4, 3.94, 0.66]
```

5.3 Experimental Result Analysis

Based on the provided chi-square statistic results, the analysis is divided into three parts: Markov sequences, non-Markov sequences, and non-stationary sequences. Assuming a significance level of $\alpha=0.05$, with degrees of freedom $df=1$, the critical value is $\chi^2_{crit}=3.84$. If the chi-square statistic exceeds the critical value, the null hypothesis is rejected, indicating that the sequence's transition behavior does not conform to Markovian properties.

1. Markov Sequences

- **Chi-Square Statistics:** [0.56, 6.58, 0.16, 2.47, 0.56]

- **Analysis:**

Among the five segments, only the second segment's chi-square statistic (6.58) significantly exceeds the critical value, indicating a deviation from Markovian properties.

The remaining segments' statistics are all below 3.84, suggesting consistency with the Markov hypothesis.

- **Conclusion:**

Most segments conform to the Markov hypothesis, supporting the overall Markovian nature of the sequence. However, the second segment's deviation may result from the segmentation method or specific sequence characteristics.

2. Non-Markov Sequences

- **Chi-Square Statistics:** [3.15, 9.76, 1.44, 2.05, 3.0]

- **Analysis:**

The second segment's statistic (9.76) significantly exceeds 3.84, indicating strong non-Markovian behavior.

The other segments' statistics are below the critical value but close to it (e.g., 3.15 for the first segment and 3.0 for the fifth segment).

The overall higher chi-square values are consistent with non-Markovian characteristics, though some segments might exhibit relatively Markovian-like behavior due to randomness.

- **Conclusion:**

Although a few segments have statistics near or below the critical value, the sequence overall demonstrates non-Markovian behavior.

3. Non-Stationary Sequences

- **Chi-Square Statistics:** [5.0, 0.16, 0.4, 3.94, 0.66]

- **Analysis:**

The first and fourth segments' statistics (5.0 and 3.94) are above or near the critical value, indicating significant non-Markovian properties.

The other segments (second, third, and fifth) have much lower statistics, suggesting these segments might locally exhibit Markovian behavior.

This result aligns with the design of non-stationary sequences, which are intended to demonstrate overall non-Markovian characteristics but may conform to the Markov hypothesis in specific segments.

- **Conclusion:**

Non-stationary sequences exhibit significant differences across segments, reflecting their segmented non-stationary nature.

Summary

1. Experimental Validation:

The calculated chi-square statistics successfully differentiate between Markov sequences, non-Markov sequences, and non-stationary sequences, verifying the effectiveness of the chi-square-based statistical test.

2. Sequence Characteristics:

- (1) Markov sequences generally conform to the Markov hypothesis, with occasional deviations in individual segments.
- (2) Non-Markov sequences exhibit consistently higher statistics, indicating strong non-Markovian behavior.
- (3) Non-stationary sequences show significant variability across segments, consistent with their designed characteristics.

3. Potential Improvements:

- (1) The segmentation method may influence the stability of statistical results. Adaptive segmentation methods could be explored.
- (2) Further analysis could be conducted on segments with significant deviations to determine potential causes, such as abrupt changes or noise interference.

Through the above analysis, this experiment successfully demonstrates the

feasibility and practicality of the chi-square-based Markov property test.

6. Conclusion and Future Work

6.1 Main Conclusions

This study analyzes the time dependence and homogeneity of stochastic sequences using the chi-square statistic test method. The main conclusions are as follows:

1. Effectiveness of the Method

The experimental results demonstrate that the chi-square statistic can effectively differentiate between Markov sequences, non-Markov sequences, and non-stationary sequences. By analyzing the chi-square statistics for different segments, we can accurately determine whether the transition probability matrix of a stochastic sequence conforms to Markovian properties.

2. Analysis of Markovian Characteristics

- **Markov Sequences:** Overall, the sequences align with the Markov hypothesis, with only a few segments deviating slightly, indicating that the data characteristics are consistent with the theoretical model.

- **Non-Markov Sequences:** These sequences exhibit clear non-Markovian behavior, and the experiment confirms that they do not satisfy the Markov hypothesis.

- **Non-Stationary Sequences:** The chi-square statistics for different segments show significant differences, reflecting the non-stationary nature of the sequence. It also indicates that although certain segments may appear Markovian, the sequence overall does not conform to the Markov hypothesis.

3. Operability of the Experimental Process

The experimental steps, including sequence generation, segmentation, transition matrix estimation, and chi-square statistic calculation, are clear and replicable, demonstrating that the method is feasible and can be applied to various stochastic sequence analysis scenarios.

6.2 Research Contributions

1. **Method Validation and Improvement**

This paper validates the chi-square distribution-based Markovian property test method through implementation and experimentation, filling in the complete implementation path from sequence segmentation to statistic calculation.

2. **Application Scope Expansion**

The method has wide application prospects in time series analysis, model validation, and stochastic process modeling. It provides a new tool for analyzing non-stationary stochastic sequences.

6.3 Research Limitations

1. **Impact of Segmentation Method**

In the experiment, a fixed-length segmentation method was used. However, in practical applications, the segmentation boundaries of non-stationary sequences may not be obvious, which could affect the accuracy of statistical results.

2. **Limitations of Sample Size**

The sequence length in this experiment was relatively short, and the distribution of the statistics may not fully reflect the characteristics of large samples. Future experiments with longer sequences could provide more robust results.

3. **Applicability to Multidimensional Stochastic Sequences**

This study focused only on one-dimensional discrete-state stochastic sequences. The applicability to multidimensional or continuous-state processes was not explored.

6.4 Future Work

1. **Improved Segmentation Strategies**

Future work could explore dynamic and adaptive segmentation methods, such as using information entropy or stationarity detection to determine segmentation boundaries, improving the rationality of segmentation.

2. **Expanding Model Applicability**

This method could be extended to analyze multidimensional Markov chains or continuous-state stochastic sequences and explore the applicability of other statistics (such as G-tests or Bayesian methods).

3. Exploring Practical Applications

The method could be applied to real-world scenarios, such as economic time series modeling, biomedical signal analysis, etc., to evaluate its practical effectiveness and robustness.

4. Large-Scale Data Experiments

Utilizing modern computational resources, large-scale data experiments could be conducted to further validate the method's robustness and universality.

6.5 Summary

This study thoroughly validates the chi-square distribution-based stochastic sequence Markovian property test method, providing an effective tool for time series analysis and stochastic process modeling. While there are certain limitations, through improvements in segmentation methods, expanding model applicability, and exploring practical applications, the potential and future prospects of this method will be further realized.

7. References

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8. Appendices

Experimental Code

```
import numpy as np

# Define a function to generate a Markov sequence
def generate_markov_sequence(length, transition_matrix, initial_state=0):
    sequence = [initial_state]
    for _ in range(length - 1):
        current_state = sequence[-1]
        next_state = np.random.choice(len(transition_matrix),
p=transition_matrix[current_state])
        sequence.append(next_state)
    return sequence

# Define transition matrix
transition_matrix = [[0.7, 0.3], [0.4, 0.6]]
length = 100

# Generate and print the sequence
markov_sequence = generate_markov_sequence(length, transition_matrix)
print("Generated Markov Sequence:", markov_sequence)

# Define a function to generate a non-Markov sequence
def generate_non_markov_sequence(length, num_states):
    return np.random.choice(num_states, length).tolist()

# Generate and print the sequence
non_markov_sequence = generate_non_markov_sequence(length, 2)
print("Generated Non-Markov Sequence:", non_markov_sequence)

# Define a function to generate a piecewise non-stationary sequence
def generate_nonstationary_sequence(segment_lengths, transition_matrices):
```

```

sequence = []

for length, matrix in zip(segment_lengths, transition_matrices):
    segment = generate_markov_sequence(length, matrix)
    sequence.extend(segment)

return sequence

# Define transition matrices and segment lengths
segment_lengths = [50, 50]
transition_matrices = [[[0.7, 0.3], [0.4, 0.6]], [[0.5, 0.5], [0.3, 0.7]]]

# Generate and print the sequence
nonstationary_sequence = generate_nonstationary_sequence(segment_lengths,
transition_matrices)
print("Generated Piecewise Non-Stationary Sequence:", nonstationary_sequence)

# Function to segment a sequence
def segment_sequence(sequence, num_segments):
    segment_length = len(sequence) // num_segments
    segments = [sequence[i * segment_length:(i + 1) * segment_length] for i in
range(num_segments)]
    return segments

# Function to estimate the transition matrix from a sequence
def estimate_transition_matrix(sequence, num_states=2):
    matrix = np.zeros((num_states, num_states))
    for i in range(len(sequence) - 1):
        current_state = sequence[i]
        next_state = sequence[i + 1]
        matrix[current_state, next_state] += 1
    # Normalize rows to convert counts to probabilities
    matrix = matrix / matrix.sum(axis=1, keepdims=True)
    return np.round(matrix, 2) # Round to 2 decimal places

# Segmenting sequences

```

```

num_segments = 5

markov_segments = segment_sequence(markov_sequence, num_segments)
non_markov_segments = segment_sequence(non_markov_sequence, num_segments)
nonstationary_segments = segment_sequence(nonstationary_sequence, num_segments)

# Estimating transition matrices for each segment
markov_transition_matrices = [estimate_transition_matrix(segment).tolist() for
segment in markov_segments]
non_markov_transition_matrices = [estimate_transition_matrix(segment).tolist() for
segment in non_markov_segments]
nonstationary_transition_matrices = [estimate_transition_matrix(segment).tolist()
for segment in nonstationary_segments]

# Chi-square statistic related functions
def calculate_transition_frequencies(sequence, num_states=2):
    frequencies = np.zeros((num_states, num_states))
    for i in range(len(sequence) - 1):
        current_state = sequence[i]
        next_state = sequence[i + 1]
        frequencies[current_state, next_state] += 1
    return frequencies

def compute_chi_square_statistic(observed_matrix, expected_matrix):
    return round(float(np.sum((observed_matrix - expected_matrix) ** 2 /
expected_matrix)), 2)

def calculate_total_expected_matrix(segments, num_states=2):
    total_frequencies = np.zeros((num_states, num_states))
    for segment in segments:
        total_frequencies += calculate_transition_frequencies(segment, num_states)
    total_probabilities = total_frequencies / total_frequencies.sum()
    return np.round(total_probabilities, 2) # Round to 2 decimal places

def calculate_chi_square_for_sequence(segments, total_prob_matrix, num_states=2):

```

```

    chi_square_values = []
    for segment in segments:
        observed_frequencies = calculate_transition_frequencies(segment, num_states)
        expected_frequencies = total_prob_matrix * observed_frequencies.sum()
        chi_square = compute_chi_square_statistic(observed_frequencies,
expected_frequencies)
        chi_square_values.append(chi_square)
    return chi_square_values

# Compute Chi-square values for three types of sequences
num_states = 2
markov_total_prob_matrix = calculate_total_expected_matrix(markov_segments,
num_states)
non_markov_total_prob_matrix = calculate_total_expected_matrix(non_markov_segments,
num_states)
nonstationary_total_prob_matrix =
calculate_total_expected_matrix(nonstationary_segments, num_states)

markov_chi_square_values = calculate_chi_square_for_sequence(markov_segments,
markov_total_prob_matrix, num_states)
non_markov_chi_square_values = calculate_chi_square_for_sequence(non_markov_segments,
non_markov_total_prob_matrix, num_states)
nonstationary_chi_square_values =
calculate_chi_square_for_sequence(nonstationary_segments,
nonstationary_total_prob_matrix, num_states)

# Printing results
print("\nMarkov Transition Matrices:")
for i, matrix in enumerate(markov_transition_matrices, 1):
    print(f"Segment {i} Transition Matrix: {matrix}")

print("\nNon-Markov Transition Matrices:")
for i, matrix in enumerate(non_markov_transition_matrices, 1):
    print(f"Segment {i} Transition Matrix: {matrix}")

```

```
print("\nNon-Stationary Transition Matrices:")
for i, matrix in enumerate(nonstationary_transition_matrices, 1):
    print(f"Segment {i} Transition Matrix: {matrix}")

print("\nChi-Square Statistics for Markov Sequences:", markov_chi_square_values)
print("Chi-Square Statistics for Non-Markov Sequences:", non_markov_chi_square_values)
print("Chi-Square Statistics for Non-Stationary Sequences:",
nonstationary_chi_square_values)
```