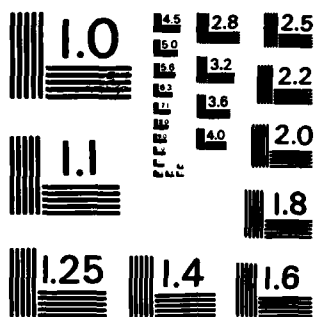


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(U) NORTH CAROLINA UNIV AT CHAPEL HILL CENTER FOR
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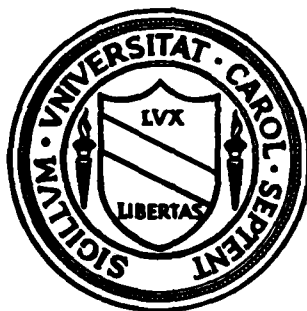


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Chapel Hill, North Carolina



Limiting Distributions of Functionals

of Markov Chains

by

Rajeeva L. Karandikar

and

Vidyadhar G. Kulkarni

Technical Report #74

August 1984

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SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE

1a. REPORT SECURITY CLASSIFICATION UNCLASSIFIED		1b. RESTRICTIVE MARKINGS	
2a. SECURITY CLASSIFICATION AUTHORITY		3. DISTRIBUTION/AVAILABILITY OF REPORT Approved for public release; distribution unlimited.	
2b. DECLASSIFICATION/DOWNGRADING SCHEDULE		5. MONITORING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER(S) AFOSR-TR- 84 - 0989	
4. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION REPORT NUMBER(S) TR #74		7a. NAME OF MONITORING ORGANIZATION Air Force Office of Scientific Research	
6a. NAME OF PERFORMING ORGANIZATION University of North Carolina	6b. OFFICE SYMBOL (If applicable)	7b. ADDRESS (City, State and ZIP Code) Directorate of Mathematical & Information Sciences, Bolling AFB DC 20332-6448	
6c. ADDRESS (City, State and ZIP Code) Statistics Department, Center for Stochastic Processes, Phillips Hall 039-A, Chapel Hill NC 27514		9. PROCUREMENT INSTRUMENT IDENTIFICATION NUMBER F49620-82-C-0009	
8a. NAME OF FUNDING/SPONSORING ORGANIZATION AFOSR	8b. OFFICE SYMBOL (If applicable) NM	10. SOURCE OF FUNDING NOS	
8c. ADDRESS (City, State and ZIP Code) Bolling AFB DC 20332-6448		PROGRAM ELEMENT NO 61102F	PROJECT NO 2304
		TASK NO A5	WORK UNIT NO
11. TITLE (Include Security Classification) LIMITING DISTRIBUTIONS OF FUNCTIONALS OF MARKOV CHAINS			
12. PERSONAL AUTHOR(S) Rajeeva L. Karandikar and Vidyadhar G. Kulkarni			
13a. TYPE OF REPORT Technical	13b. TIME COVERED FROM _____ TO _____	14. DATE OF REPORT (Yr., Mo., Day) AUG 84	15. PAGE COUNT 22
16. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTATION			
17. COSATI CODES		18. SUBJECT TERMS (Continue on reverse if necessary and identify by block number)	
FIELD	GROUP	SUB GR	
		Markov chains; limiting distributions; periodic nonhomogeneous Poisson processes.	
19. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse if necessary and identify by block number) Let $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ and $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ be two stochastic processes such that Y_n depends on X_n in a stationary manner, i.e. $P(Y_n \in A X_n)$ does not depend on n . Sufficient conditions are derived for Y_n to have a limiting distribution. If X_n is a Markov chain with stationary transition probabilities and $Y_n = f(X_n, \dots, X_{n+k})$ then Y_n depends on X_n in a stationary way. Two situations are considered: (i) $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ has a limiting distribution (ii) $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ does not have a limiting distribution and exits every finite set with probability 1. Several examples are considered including that of a nonhomogeneous Poisson process with periodic rate function where we obtain the limiting distribution of the interevent times.			
20. DISTRIBUTION AVAILABILITY OF ABSTRACT UNCLASSIFIED/UNLIMITED <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> SAME AS RPT <input type="checkbox"/> DTIC USERS <input type="checkbox"/>		21. ABSTRACT SECURITY CLASSIFICATION UNCLASSIFIED	
22a. NAME OF RESPONSIBLE INDIVIDUAL MAJ Brian W. Woodruff		22b. TELEPHONE NUMBER (Include Area Code) (202) 767- 5027	22c. OFFICE SYMBOL NM

Limiting Distributions of Functionals
of Markov Chains

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Technical Report #74
August 1984

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DTIC TAB	<input type="checkbox"/>
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*Research Supported by AFOSR Contract No. F49620 82 C 0009.

Abstract

Let $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ and $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ be two stochastic processes such that Y_n depends on X_n in a stationary manner, i.e. $P(Y_n \in A | X_n)$ does not depend on n . Sufficient conditions are derived for Y_n to have a limiting distribution. If X_n is a Markov chain with stationary transition probabilities and $Y_n = f(X_n, \dots, X_{n+k})$ then Y_n depends on X_n in a stationary way. Two situations are considered: (i) $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ has a limiting distribution (ii) $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ does not have a limiting distribution and exits every finite set with probability 1. Several examples are considered including that of a non-homogeneous Poisson process with periodic rate function where we obtain the limiting distribution of the interevent times.

Key Words: Markov Chains, Limiting Distributions, Periodic Nonhomogeneous Poisson Processes.

§1. Let $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ be a discrete time Markov chain with stationary transition probabilities. Consider a process $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ defined by

$$(1.1) \quad Y_n = f(X_n, X_{n+1}, \dots, X_{n+k}) .$$

It should be emphasized that f and k do not depend upon n . In this paper we address the following question: under what conditions on the Markov chain $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ and the function f will $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ have a limiting distribution?

As a first example of the above situation, suppose $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ is a random walk, i.e. $X_0 = 0$ and $X_n = Z_1 + Z_2 + \dots + Z_n$ where $\{Z_n, n \geq 0\}$ is a sequence of i.i.d. random variables. Let $Y_n = f(X_n, X_{n+1}) = X_{n+1} - X_n$. Here $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ itself does not possess a limiting distribution (except in the trivial case where $Z_n = 0$ w.p.1 for all $n \geq 0$), but $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ does have a limiting distribution (in fact it is a sequence of i.i.d. r.v.)

As a second example consider a nonhomogeneous Poisson process with rate function $\lambda(t)$. Suppose that $\lambda(t)$ is a periodic function of t . Let X_n be the n -th event occurrence time and let $Y_n = f(X_n, X_{n+1}) = X_{n+1} - X_n$ be the n -th interevent time. Now, $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ is a transient Markov chain, but due to the periodic nature of $\lambda(t)$, one expects $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ to have a limiting distribution. This example is treated in detail in example 2 of section 3.

Though we have stated the problem for a Markov chain $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ and its functional process $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$, the theory that we develop in the next section, in fact, does not use the Markov property of $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ or the functional dependence of Y_n on X_n, \dots, X_{n+k} . The general structure that we assume is as follows:

Let $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ be a sequence of random variables and $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ be another

sequence of random variables with the property that

$$(1.2) \quad P(Y_n \in A | X_n) \text{ does not depend on } n.$$

We derive a sufficient condition under which $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ has a limiting distribution. Notice that if $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ is a Markov chain with stationary transition probabilities and Y_n is defined by eq.(1.1) then condition (1.2) is automatically satisfied.

In theorem 1 in the next section we state a sufficient condition for the existence of limiting distribution of $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$. We also show with an example that the condition is not necessary. In the general setting of the theorem it seems difficult to derive a useful necessary condition. Even though the condition stated in theorem 1 is only sufficient, it is nonetheless a powerful tool to unify several cases as is shown by the material in sections 3 and 4.

In section 3 we consider stochastic processes $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ having a limiting distribution. From theorem 1 we obtain proposition 1 which gives the limiting distribution of $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$. In section 4 we consider countable state space stochastic processes $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ which do not possess a limiting distribution and have the property that $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ exits every finite set with probability 1. In proposition 2 we state a sufficient condition for $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ to have a limiting distribution in this case. Several examples are given to illustrate both the propositions. Although the results are derived for general stochastic processes, the examples deal with Markov chains $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$. This is purely for the sake of computational ease.

Limit theorems have been studied in the literature for the case when $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ is a Markov chain and $Y_n = f(X_n)$. These limit theorems deal with the partial

sums $\sum_{i=1}^n Y_i$. (See [3]). We are not aware of any theorems for $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ itself. Another specific problem that has been addressed in the literature is : If $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ is a Markov chain, under what conditions is $Y_n = f(X_n)$ also a Markov chain? (See [4]). In this paper we are interested in the limiting behaviour and not the Markov nature of $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$.

2. Let (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) be a probability space and let (E, \mathcal{E}) be a measurable space. Let $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ be a sequence of (E, \mathcal{E}) valued random variables on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . Let S be a complete separable metric space and let $\mathcal{B}(S)$ be its Borel σ -field and $M(S)$ be the space of probability measures on $(S, \mathcal{B}(S))$. Let $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ be a sequence of $(S, \mathcal{B}(S))$ valued random variables on (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) such that

$$(2.1) \quad P(Y_n \in A | \sigma(X_n)) = p_{X_n}(A)$$

where $p(\cdot)$ is a mapping from $E \times \mathcal{B}(S) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$(2.2) \quad \text{for all } x \in E, p_x(\cdot) \in M(S)$$

$$(2.3) \quad \text{for all } A \in \mathcal{B}(S), p(\cdot, A) \text{ is a measurable function on } (E, \mathcal{E}).$$

Here, $\sigma(X_n)$ denotes the smallest σ -field on Ω with respect to which X_n is measurable.

Let $S^* = M(S)$ be equipped with the topology of weak convergence. (See [1], [6]). Recall that $\mu_n \rightarrow \mu$ in S^* iff for all bounded continuous functions f on S $\int f d\mu_n \rightarrow \int f d\mu$. S^* itself is a complete separable

metric space under this topology. (See [6]). Let $\mathcal{B}(S^*)$ and $M(S^*)$ denote the Borel σ -field on S^* and the space of probability measures on $(S^*, \mathcal{B}(S^*))$ respectively. $M(S^*)$ is also equipped with the topology of weak convergence.

Using eq.(2.2) and (2.3) it can be shown that $x \rightarrow p_x$ is a measurable mapping from (E, \mathcal{E}) into $(S^*, \mathcal{B}(S^*))$ and hence p_{X_n} is a $(S^*, \mathcal{B}(S^*))$ valued random variable. Let Γ_n denote the distribution of p_{X_n} , i.e. for $B \in \mathcal{B}(S^*)$

$$(2.4) \quad \Gamma_n(B) = P(p_{X_n}(\cdot) \in B) .$$

With these notations we have the following

Theorem 1: Suppose

$$(2.5) \quad \Gamma_n \rightarrow \Gamma \text{ (say) weakly in } M(S^*),$$

then Y_n converges in distribution to a measure $\nu \in S^*$ given by

$$(2.6) \quad \nu(A) = \int_{S^*} \mu(A) d\Gamma(\mu) \quad (A \in \mathcal{B}(S)).$$

Proof: Let f be a bounded continuous function on S and let $F: S^* \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be defined by

$$(2.7) \quad F(\mu) = \int f d\mu .$$

Then, by the definition of weak convergence, it follows that F is a bounded continuous function. Thus from eq. (2.5), we get

$$(2.8) \quad \int F(\mu) d\Gamma_n(\mu) \rightarrow \int F(\mu) d\Gamma(\mu) .$$

Now

$$(2.9) \quad \begin{aligned} \int F(\mu) d\Gamma_n(\mu) &= E[F(p_{X_n}(\cdot))] \\ &= E[\int f(z) p_{X_n}(dz)] . \end{aligned}$$

From eqs. (2.1), (2.2) and (2.3) it follows that

$$E(f(Y_n) | \sigma(X_n)) = \int f(z) p_{X_n}(dz)$$

and hence by eq. (2.9)

$$(2.10) \quad \begin{aligned} \int F(\mu) d\Gamma_n(\mu) &= E[E[f(Y_n) | \sigma(X_n)]] \\ &= E[f(Y_n)] \end{aligned}$$

Also,

$$(2.11) \quad \begin{aligned} \int F(\mu) d\Gamma(\mu) &= \int_{S^*} \left\{ \int_S f(z) d\mu(z) \right\} d\Gamma(\mu) \\ &= \int_S f(z) d\nu(z) \end{aligned}$$

The last equality in eq. (2.11) follows from the definition of ν for a simple function f and then, by the usual arguments for a general function f .

Thus from eqs. (2.8), (2.10) and (2.11) we have, for all bounded continuous functions f on S ,

$$(2.12) \quad E(f(Y_n)) \rightarrow \int f(z) d\nu(z)$$

and hence, Y_n converges in distribution to ν . \square

Remark: The condition (2.5) is not necessary as is shown by the following example. Let $E = \{0, \frac{1}{2}, 1\}$ and let $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ be such that, for $n \geq 0$,

$$P(X_{2n} = 0) = P(X_{2n} = 1) = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$P(X_{2n+1} = \frac{1}{2}) = 1.$$

Let $S = \{0, 1\}$ and define $p_x(\cdot)$ as follows:

$$p_x(\{0\}) = x = 1 - p_x(\{1\}) \quad (x \in E).$$

Let $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ be S valued random variables satisfying eq. (2.1). Then, for all $n \geq 0$,

$$P(Y_n = 0) = EX_n = \frac{1}{2}$$

and hence, trivially, Y_n converges in distribution. However, it is easy to see that Γ_n does not converge weakly.

The above theorem provides a general framework to study the problems mentioned in the introduction. In later sections, we discuss several special problems and obtain sufficient conditions for convergence in distribution of $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$. In each of these cases, the results could be proved by alternate techniques, but the above theorem, whose proof is simple, provides a unified view of the problem.

§3. In this section we restrict ourselves to the class of stochastic processes $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ which possess limiting distributions, i.e. X_n converges in distribution to some measure π as $n \rightarrow \infty$. In the framework of section 2, suppose that E is a metric space and \mathcal{E} is its Borel σ -field. The following is an easy consequence of theorem 1:

Proposition 2: Suppose that

(3.1) $x \rightarrow p_x$ is a continuous function from E into S^* and

(3.2) X_n converges in distribution to some measure π on (E, \mathcal{E}) .

Then Y_n converges in distribution to a measure ν on $(S, \mathcal{B}(S))$ defined by

$$(3.3) \quad \nu(A) = \int_E p_x(A) d\pi(x) \quad (A \in \mathcal{B}(S)) .$$

Proof: Eqs. (3.1) and (3.2) imply that p_{X_n} converges in distribution to

$\Gamma = \pi o(p_\cdot)^{-1}$, which is the same as $\Gamma_n \rightarrow \Gamma$ weakly. Hence Y_n converges in distribution to ν given by, for $A \in \mathcal{B}(S)$,

$$\begin{aligned} \nu(A) &= \int_{S^*} \mu(A) d\Gamma(\mu) \\ &= \int_{S^*} \mu(A) d\pi o(p_\cdot)^{-1}(\mu) \\ &= \int_E p_x(A) d\pi(x). \quad \square \end{aligned}$$

We now give two examples illustrating the above result. In the remaining paper, all finite or countable sets will be equipped with the discrete topology. Our first example is that of a positive recurrent Markov chain.

Example 1. Let $E = \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ and let $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ be an E -valued Markov chain with stationary transition probabilities given by

$$P(X_1 = k+1 | X_0 = k) = \beta \quad (k \geq 1),$$

$$P(X_1 = k-1 | X_0 = k) = \alpha = 1 - \beta \quad (k \geq 1),$$

$$P(X_1 = 1 | X_0 = 0) = 1.$$

Let $S = \{-1, 1\}$ and $Y_n = X_{n+1} - X_n$. Then eq. (2.1) is satisfied with

$$p_k(\{1\}) = \beta \quad (k \geq 1),$$

$$p_k(\{-1\}) = \alpha \quad (k \geq 1),$$

$$p_0(\{1\}) = 1.$$

Since the sets E and S are equipped with discrete topology, conditions (2.3) and (3.1) are trivially satisfied. Now suppose $\alpha > \beta > 0$. Then $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ is positive recurrent and its stationary distribution is given by

$$\pi_0 = \frac{\alpha - \beta}{2\alpha}$$

$$\pi_k = \frac{\alpha - \beta}{2\alpha\beta} \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha}\right)^k \quad (k \geq 1).$$

Hence $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ converges in distribution to π . Hence, by proposition 2, Y_n converges in distribution to ν where

$$\nu(\{1\}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(Y_n = 1) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_k(\{1\}) \pi_k = \frac{1}{2}$$

and

$$\nu(\{0\}) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(Y_n = -1) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Thus, Y_n converges in distribution to $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$. Note that Y_n , the increment of the $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ process, has a stationary distribution independent of α !

Our next example is that of a non-homogeneous Poisson process.

Example 2. Let $\{N(t), t \geq 0\}$ be a non-homogeneous Poisson process with strictly positive rate function $\lambda(t)$. Assume that $\lambda(t)$ is periodic with period τ , i.e.,

$$\lambda(t + \tau) = \lambda(t) \quad \text{for all } t \geq 0.$$

Let $Z_0 = 0$ and Z_n be the time that the n -th event occurs, i.e.

$$Z_{n+1} = \inf \{t \geq Z_n : N(t) > N(Z_n)\} \quad n \geq 0.$$

and let $Y_n = Z_{n+1} - Z_n$ be the n th interevent time. Now, for $0 \leq v_1 \leq v_2 \leq \dots \leq v_n \leq u$,

$$\begin{aligned} P(Z_{n+1} > u \mid Z_1 = v_1, \dots, Z_n = v_n) \\ &= P(N(u) = n \mid N(s) : 0 \leq s \leq v_n, N(v_n) = n) \\ &= \exp \left(- \int_{v_n}^u \lambda(s) ds \right). \end{aligned}$$

Hence $\{Z_n, n \geq 0\}$ is a Markov chain. As Z_n increases with n , it is a transient Markov chain.

Let $[x]$ denote the largest integer $\leq x$ and define

$$X_n = Z_n - [Z_n/\tau]\tau.$$

Also, for $t \geq 0$ define

$$\Lambda(t) = \int_0^t \lambda(s) ds.$$

Now for $0 \leq y < \infty$,

$$\begin{aligned} P(Y_n > y | Z_n) &= P(Z_{n+1} > Z_n + y | Z_n) \\ &= \exp(-(\Lambda(Z_n + y) - \Lambda(Z_n))) \\ &= \exp(-(\Lambda(X_n + y) - \Lambda(X_n))) \end{aligned}$$

For $0 < x < \tau$, let p_x denote the probability measure on $(\mathbb{R}^+, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^+))$ given by

$$(3.4) \quad p_x((y, \infty)) = \exp(-(\Lambda(x + y) - \Lambda(x))).$$

Then for $A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^+)$, we have

$$P(Y_n \in A | Z_n) = P(Y_n \in A | X_n) = p_{X_n}(A).$$

Let $E = [0, \tau)$. Equip E with a topology which makes the mapping $x \mapsto \exp(i2\pi x/\tau)$ a homeomorphism from E onto the unit circle in the complex plane. Thus

$$x_n \rightarrow x \quad \text{iff} \quad \exp(i2\pi x_n/\tau) \rightarrow \exp(i2\pi x/\tau).$$

Under this topology E is a complete separable metric space and it can be easily checked that the mapping $x \mapsto p_x$ in eq. (3.4) from $E \rightarrow M(\mathbb{R})$ is continuous.

We shall now show that $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ converges in distribution to some measure on E . In fact, it can be shown that $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ is a Markov chain on E with stationary transition probabilities given by

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_{n+1} > y | X_n = x) &= e^{\Lambda(x)} (e^{-\Lambda(y)} - B) / (1 - B) \text{ if } 0 \leq x < y < \tau \\ (3.5) \qquad \qquad \qquad &= 1 - B e^{\Lambda(x)} (1 - e^{-\Lambda(y)}) / (1 - B) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{if } 0 \leq y \leq x < \tau.$$

where $B = \exp(-\Lambda(\tau))$.

Let $f(\cdot, x)$ be the conditional density of X_{n+1} given $X_n = x$. Then from eq. (3.5) we get

$$(3.6) \quad f(y, x) = \begin{cases} \lambda(y) \exp(\Lambda(x) - \Lambda(y)) / (1 - B) & \text{if } 0 \leq x < y < \tau \\ B \lambda(y) \exp(\Lambda(x) - \Lambda(y)) / (1 - B) & \text{if } 0 \leq y \leq x < \tau. \end{cases}$$

By a slight modification of the arguments in Example (b) of VII.7 of Feller Vol 2 [2], one can show that $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ has a limiting distribution. Let $g(\cdot)$ be the limiting density of X_n . Then $g(\cdot)$ satisfies

$$g(y) = \int_0^\tau f(y, x) g(x) dx.$$

Thus

$$g(y) = \frac{\lambda(y) \exp(-\Lambda(y))}{1 - B} \left[\int_0^y e^{\Lambda(x)} g(x) dx + B \int_y^\tau e^{\Lambda(x)} g(x) dx \right]$$

Now let $h(y) = g(y) \exp(\Lambda(y))$. Then

$$h(y) = \frac{\lambda(y)}{1-B} \left[\int_0^y h(x) dx + B \int_y^\tau h(x) dx \right] .$$

Differentiating the above equation we get

$$h'(y) = \left(\frac{\lambda'(y)}{\lambda(y)} + \lambda(y) \right) h(y)$$

which has a unique solution

$$h(y) = \lambda(y) \exp(\Lambda(y)) .$$

Hence we get $g(y) = C\lambda(y)$, the constant of integration C is found by using

$$\int_0^\tau g(y) dy = 1$$

Thus $g(y) = \lambda(y)/\Lambda(\tau)$ ($0 \leq y < \tau$) is the limiting density of X_n .

Now, using proposition 2, we get the following: $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ has a limiting distribution given by

$$\begin{aligned} (3.7) \quad & \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(Y_n > y) \\ &= \int_0^\tau \exp(-(\Lambda(x+y) - \Lambda(x))) \lambda(x) dx / \Lambda(\tau) . \end{aligned}$$

§4. In this section we consider the case in which $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ does not converge in distribution, but $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ does. First we give a general result and then consider some specific examples.

Suppose that E is a countable set and that

$$(4.1) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n \in B) = 0$$

for all finite subsets B of E . Furthermore, suppose that there exists a partition $\{E_j, j \in J\}$ of E , where either $J = \{1, 2, \dots, k\}$ or $J = \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$, and each E_j is a countable set such that

$$(4.2) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n \in E_j) = \alpha_j \text{ exists}$$

and

$$(4.3) \quad \sum_{j \in J} \alpha_j = 1$$

Now, let $\{x_{ij}\} \ i \geq 0$ be an enumeration of E_j and suppose that

$$(4.4) \quad \lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} p_{x_{ij}} = \mu_j$$

exists. (Recall that $M(S)$ is equipped with the topology of weak convergence.)

With this structure we get the following

Proposition 3: Let eqs. (4.1) - (4.4) hold. Then $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ converges in distribution to ν given by

$$(4.5) \quad \nu(A) = \sum_{j \in J} \mu_j(A) \alpha_j \quad (A \in \mathcal{B}(S)).$$

Proof: The desired conclusion will follow from Theorem 1 if we show that

$$(4.6) \quad \Gamma_n \rightarrow \Gamma \text{ in } M(S^*)$$

where Γ is given by

$$\Gamma(B) = \sum_{j \in J} 1_B(\mu_j) \alpha_j \quad (B \in \mathcal{B}(S^*)).$$

Let f be a bounded continuous function on S^* . Then

$$\begin{aligned} (4.7) \quad & |\int f d\Gamma_n - \int f d\Gamma| = |E(f(p_{X_n})) - \sum_{j \in J} f(\mu_j) \alpha_j| \\ & < \sum_{j \in J} |E(f(p_{X_n}) 1_{\{X_n \in E_j\}}) - f(\mu_j) \alpha_j| \\ & < \sum_{j \in J} |E(f(p_{X_n}) - f(\mu_j)) 1_{\{X_n \in E_j\}}| \\ & + \sum_{j \in J} |f(\mu_j)| |P(X_n \in E_j) - \alpha_j| \\ & = \sum_{j \in J} U_j^n + \sum_{j \in J} V_j^n \quad (\text{say}) \quad . \end{aligned}$$

Let $\alpha_j^n = P(X_n \in E_j)$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 (4.9) \quad \sum_{j \in J} |\alpha_j^n - \alpha_j| &= \sum_{j \in J} \alpha_j^n + \sum_{j \in J} \alpha_j - 2 \sum_{j \in J} \alpha_j^n \wedge \alpha_j \\
 &= 2 - 2 \sum_{j \in J} \alpha_j^n \wedge \alpha_j \\
 &\rightarrow 2 - 2 \sum_{j \in J} \alpha_j = 0.
 \end{aligned}$$

(By dominated convergence theorem.) Since f is bounded eq.(4.9) implies that

$$(4.10) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j \in J} V_j^n = 0.$$

Eq. (4.9) also implies that, given $\epsilon_0 > 0$, there exists a finite subset J_0 of J such that,

$$(4.11) \quad \sup_n \sum_{j \in J_1} \alpha_j^n < \epsilon_0$$

where $J_1 = J \setminus J_0$. Eq. (4.11) is actually the assertion that L^1 -convergence implies uniform integrability.

Next we show that, for $j \in J$

$$(4.12) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} U_j^n = 0.$$

Recall that $p_{x_{ij}} \rightarrow \mu_j$ as $i \rightarrow \infty$ and f is continuous on S^* , so that $f(p_{x_{ij}}) \rightarrow f(\mu_j)$.

Thus, given $\epsilon > 0$, there is an i_0 such that, for all $i > i_0$,

$$(4.13) \quad |f(p_{x_{ij}}) - f(\mu_j)| < \epsilon/2.$$

Let $B = \{x_{ij} : 1 \leq i \leq i_0\}$. Then in view of (4.1), there is an n_0 such that for $n \geq n_0$,

$$(4.14) \quad P\{X_n \in B\} \leq \epsilon/4K$$

where K is such that $|f| \leq K$. Then for $n \geq n_0$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} U_j^n &= E\{|f(p_{X_n}) - f(\mu_j)| 1_{\{X_n \in E_j\}}\} \\ &= E\{|f(p_{X_n}) - f(\mu_j)| \{1_{\{X_n \in B\}} + 1_{\{X_n \in E_j \setminus B\}}\}\} \\ &\leq 2KP(X_n \in B) + \frac{\epsilon}{2} P(X_n \in E_j \setminus B) \\ &\leq \epsilon/2 + \epsilon/2 \quad (\text{by eqs. (4.13) and (4.14)}) \\ &= \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

This proves eq. (4.12). Now, for a given $\epsilon > 0$, define $\epsilon_0 = \epsilon/2K$. For this ϵ_0 get J_0 and J_1 as above, so that eq. (4.11) holds. Then

$$(4.15) \quad \sum_{j \in J} U_j^n \leq \sum_{j \in J_0} U_j^n + \epsilon_0.$$

Since J_0 is finite, we have, using eq. (4.12) and (4.15)

$$(4.16) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{j \in J} \sum_{j \in J} U_j^n \leq \epsilon.$$

Since $\epsilon > 0$ is arbitrary, this shows that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j \in J} U_j^n = 0.$$

In view of eq. (4.8), (4.9) and (4.10) we get

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |\int f d\Gamma_n - \int f d\Gamma| = 0$$

which implies $\Gamma_n \rightarrow \Gamma$ weakly, and this completes the proof. \square

We now take two examples illustrating the above proposition.

Example 3. Consider the same Markov chain $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ from example 1, and suppose $\alpha < \beta$. Then $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ is a transient Markov chain and hence eq. (4.1) holds.

Since $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} p_k = \mu_1$ where $\mu_1(\{1\}) = \beta$ and $\mu_1(\{-1\}) = \alpha$, the conditions of proposition 3 are satisfied if we take $E_1 = E$ and $X_{i1} = i$ ($i \geq 0$). Then $Y_n = X_{n+1} - X_n$ converges in distribution to μ_1 , i.e.

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(Y_n = 1) = \alpha, \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(Y_n = -1) = \beta.$$

Example 4. Let $E = \{(j,i) : j,i \text{ integers}, 0 \leq j \leq i < \infty\}$. Let $\{X_n\}$ be a Markov chain with state space E and stationary transition probabilities given by

$$P\{X_{n+1} = (1, i+1) | X_n = (0, i)\} = 1 \quad i \geq 0.$$

$$P\{X_{n+1} = (j+1, i+1) | X_n = (j, i)\} = \beta \quad 0 < j \leq i < \infty$$

$$P\{X_{n+1} = (j-1, i) | X_n = (j, i)\} = \alpha \quad 0 < j \leq i < \infty.$$

Where $\alpha + \beta = 1$, $0 < \beta < \alpha < 1$. For this chain all states are inessential, as $(j,i) \succ (j+1, i+1)$ but $(j+1, i+1) \not\prec (j,i)$. Hence $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ is transient and eq. (4.1) is satisfied.

Let $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ be a real valued process such that the conditional distribution of Y_n given $X_n = (j,i)$ is normal with mean $j + \frac{1}{i+1}$ and variance $\frac{1}{j+1} + 2^{-i}$. Thus

$$p_{(j,i)} = N\left(j + \frac{1}{i+1}, \frac{1}{j+1} + 2^{-i}\right)$$

where $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ denotes the normal distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 on $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$.

Now let $J = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \dots\}$ and

$$E_j = \{(j,i) : i \geq j\}.$$

Also let $x_{ij} = (j, j+i)$ be an enumeration of E_j . Then from the properties of the normal distribution it follows that

$$\lim_{i \rightarrow \infty} p_{x_{ij}} = N(j, \frac{1}{j+1}) .$$

Now let $Z_n = j$ if $X_n \in E_j$. It is easily seen that Z_n itself is a Markov chain with stationary transition probabilities as described in example 1.

Thus

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(X_n \in E_j) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(Z_n = j) = \pi_j$$

where

$$\pi_0 = \frac{\alpha - \beta}{2\alpha} , \quad \pi_j = \frac{\alpha - \beta}{2\alpha\beta} \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha}\right)^j \quad (j \geq 1) .$$

Thus $\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \pi_j = 1$ and hence eq. (4.2) and (4.3) hold. Hence, by proposition 3,

$\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ converges in distribution to a measure ν given by

$$\nu = \frac{\alpha - \beta}{2\alpha} N(0, 1) + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \frac{\alpha - \beta}{2\alpha\beta} \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha}\right)^j N(j, \frac{1}{j+1}) .$$

§5. The results in sections 2,3 and 4 can be extended to continuous time stochastic processes in a straight forward manner. Extension of the results in section 4 to more general state spaces seems possible but presents many technical difficulties. The results in section 4 also suggest a relationship between our approach and the boundary theory for Markov chains, but at this stage we have not been able to make it precise. It should be mentioned that the result in section 3 about the periodic non-homogeneous Poisson processes is of interest in itself.

The problem considered in this paper is of interest in the theory of partially observable processes. In this context one can think of $\{X_n, n \geq 0\}$ as the core process and $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ as the observation process. (See [4]). For example X_n may represent the "state" of the internal components of a machine at time n while Y_n may represent its "performance", which may be the only observable quantity about the machine. The limiting behaviour of the observation process $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$ is obviously of importance in the design of the machine.

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