

**Rough Draft**  
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**On the Ergodicity of General State Space Markov Chains**

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**Abstract**

Ergodicity questions about the chain are related to the almost sure (a.s.) and  $L^1$  behavior of a reversed supermartingal referred to as the likelihood ratio trajectory and to the zero-oneness of the tail  $\sigma$ -field of the chain. Implications are that (i) convergence of the Markov simulation method is related to the a.s. convergence of the corresponding trajectory and that (ii) the variation norm between the distributions in the likelihood ratio regulates, through Doob's inequality, how far the trajectory of the simulation is from its limit.

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## 1. Introduction and Statement of Main Results

The ergodicity of general state Markov chains is considered in this paper. More specifically, variation norm ergodicity questions about the chain are related to the almost sure (a.s.) and  $L^1$  behavior of a reversed supermartingal referred to as the likelihood ratio trajectory. Implications are that (i) convergence of the Markov simulation method is related to the a.s. convergence of the corresponding trajectory and that (ii) the variation norm between the distributions in the likelihood ratio regulates, through Doob's inequality, how far the trajectory of the simulation is from its limit. The following is needed to precisely state these relationships.

Let  $\{X, B\}$  be a measurable space and let  $P(x, B)$  be a *transition function* on  $\{X, B\}$ , i.e.,  $P(x, B)$  is

- (i) a probability measure (p.m.) on  $\{X, B\}$  for each  $x \in X$  and
- (ii)  $\{X, B\}$  measurable for each  $B \in B$ .

From Tulcea's Theorem (see Neveu, 1965, Proposition V.1.1) it follows that there exists a unique p.m.  $P_x$  on  $\{\Omega, A\} = \prod_{t=0}^{\infty} \{X, B\}$  such that for every measurable rectangle  $\prod_{t=0}^n F_t$ ,

$$P_x\left(\prod_{t=0}^n F_t\right) = I_{F_0}(x) \int_{x_1 \in F_1} \dots \int_{x_n \in F_n} \prod_{t=1}^n P(x_{t-1}, dx_t).$$

For  $\mu$  a p.m. on  $\{X, B\}$  let  $P_\mu$  denote the p.m. on  $\{\Omega, A\}$  given by

$$P_\mu(A) = \int P_x(A) \mu(dx)$$

The mappings  $X_n: \{\Omega, A\} \rightarrow \{X, B\}, n=0, 1, \dots$ , where  $X_n(\omega) = x_n$ , define a *Markov chain*  $\{X_n\}$  under  $P_\mu$  since

$$\begin{aligned} P(X_{n+1} \in B | X_n, \dots, X_0) &= P(X_{n+1} \in B | X_n) \quad \text{a.s. } P_\mu \\ &= P(X_n, B) \quad \text{a.s. } P_\mu. \end{aligned}$$

The *m-step transition function* of the chain is given by  $P_m(x,B)$  where  $P_1(x,B) \equiv P(x,B)$  and

$$P_m(x,B) = \int P(y,B) P_{m-1}(x,dy)$$

Expectations of the Markov chain  $\{X_n\}$  under  $P_\mu$  will be denoted by  $E_\mu$ .

When there exists a *stationary initial probability measure* or *equilibrium distribution*,  $\pi$ , on  $\{X,B\}$  for  $P(x,B)$ , i.e.,

$$(1.1) \quad \pi(B) = \int P(x,B)\pi(dx),$$

the chain  $\{X_n\}$  is *stationary* under  $P_\pi$ , i.e.,

$$P_\pi((X_n, X_{n+1}, \dots) \in A) = P_\pi((X_0, X_1, \dots) \in A) \text{ for every } A \in \mathcal{A}.$$

Let  $S: \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$  denote the *shift operator* on  $\Omega$ , i.e.,  $S((x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots)) = (x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots)$  and let  $\mathcal{I} = \{A: S^{-1}A = A\}$  denote the  $\sigma$ -field of invariant subsets of  $\mathcal{A}$ . If  $\mathcal{I}$  is a 0-1  $\sigma$ -field under  $P_\pi$ , then the stationary process is said to be *ergodic*. The classical ergodic theorem can be stated as follows for the context considered here. Note that, in the classical ergodic theorem, the sample averages remove any periodic behavior of the chain while reducibility information of the chain is contained in the invariant  $\sigma$ -field,  $\mathcal{I}$ .

**The Ergodic Theorem** Let  $f: X \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  be a Borel measurable function for which  $E_\pi(|f(X_0)|) < \infty$ . Then,

$$\sum_{i=0}^n \frac{f(X_i)}{n+1} \rightarrow E(f(X_0)|\mathcal{I}) \quad \text{a.s. } P_\pi.$$

If the chain is ergodic, then  $E(f(X)|\mathcal{I}) = E_\pi(f(X))$  a.s.  $P_\pi$  and

$$\sum_{i=0}^n \frac{f(X_i)}{n+1} \rightarrow E_\pi(f(X)) \quad \text{a.s. } P_\pi.$$

For the statement and proof of the ergodic theorem considered here, denote the distribution and expectations of the Markov chain  $\{X_m: m=0,1,2,\dots\}$  initiated with distributions  $\pi_0$  and  $\mu_0$  by  $P_{\pi_0}$ ,  $P_{\mu_0}$ ,  $E_{\pi_0}$ , and  $E_{\mu_0}$ , respectively. Let  $\pi_m(B) = P_{\pi_0}(X_m \in B)$  and  $\mu_m(B) = P_{\mu_0}(X_m \in B)$  for  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ . Let

$$\lambda(\mathbf{B}) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^n} (\pi_n(\mathbf{B}) + \mu_n(\mathbf{B})).$$

Then,  $\pi_n$  and  $\mu_n$  are absolutely continuous with respect to  $\lambda$ . Denote their densities (Radon-Nikodym derivatives) with respect to  $\lambda$  by  $\pi_n(y)$  and  $\mu_n(y)$ , respectively. Let  $L_m(y) = \frac{\mu_m(y)}{\pi_m(y)}$  where  $L_m(y)$  is defined to be zero if  $\pi_m(y)=0$ . The sequence  $\{L_m(X_m): m=1,2,\dots\}$  will be referred to as the *likelihood ratio trajectory* of the Markov chain  $\{X_m\}$ .

Let

$$(1.2a) \quad \Delta_m \equiv \|\mu_m(\bullet) - \pi_m(\bullet)\| = \sup_{\mathbf{B}} |\mu_m(\mathbf{B}) - \pi_m(\mathbf{B})|$$

denote the *variation norm* between  $\mu_m$  and  $\pi_m$ . Note that

$$(1.2b) \quad \begin{aligned} \Delta_m &= \int (\pi_m(y) - \mu_m(y))^+ \lambda(dy) = \int \left(1 - \frac{\mu_m(y)}{\pi_m(y)}\right)^+ \pi_m(y) \lambda(dy) \\ &= E_{\pi_0}(1 - L_m(X_m))^+. \end{aligned}$$

The main results are stated in the following theorem and lemma while their proofs are deferred to Section 4.

**Ergodic Theorem** In general,  $L_m(X_m) \rightarrow L_\infty$  a.s.  $P_{\pi_0}$  and in  $L^1$  and

$$(ia) \quad \Delta_m = E_{\pi_0}(1-L_m(X_m))^+ \rightarrow E_{\pi_0}(1-L_\infty)^+ \text{ and}$$

$$(ib) \quad \lim \mu_m(\pi_m(X_m) > 0) = E_{\pi_0}(L_\infty)$$

$$(ii) \quad \Delta_m \rightarrow 0 \text{ if and only if } L_\infty = 1 \text{ a.s. } P_{\pi_0}.$$

In addition if  $\mu_m \ll \pi_m$ , then

$$(iii) \quad \Delta_m = \frac{1}{2} E_{\pi_0}(|1-L_m(X_m)|)$$

and if  $\mu_m \ll \pi_m$  for every  $m$ , then

$$\Delta_m = \frac{1}{2} E_{\pi_0}(|1-L_m(X_m)|) \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} E_{\pi_0}(|1-L_\infty|).$$

Three examples are given that elucidate the behavior of  $\Delta_m$  and of  $L_m(X_m)$  when the chain is periodic or reducible or null recurrent.

**Examples (a) Periodicity** Let  $X = \{0,1\}$  and consider the two state Markov chain with transition function  $P(x, \{y\}) = 0$  if  $y=x$  and  $= 1$  if  $y \neq x$ . Then,  $\pi(\{x\}) = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $x \in X$ , is the equilibrium distribution for the chain. Let  $\mu_0 = \pi$  and  $\pi_0 = \delta_0$  where  $\delta_0$  is the Dirac delta function and indicates that the process is initiated in state 0. Then,  $\mu_n = \pi$  and  $\pi_n = \delta_0$  if  $n$  is even and  $\pi_n = \delta_1$  if  $n$  is odd. So,

$$(1.3) \quad L_n(x) = \frac{\mu_n(x)}{\pi_n(x)} = \frac{1}{2\delta_j(x)}$$

where  $j=0$  if  $n$  is even and  $=1$  if  $n$  is odd. Note that in (1.3)  $L_n(x)=0$  if  $\pi_n(x)=0$  since the observations from the chain are taken under  $\pi_0$ . Under  $\pi_0$ ,  $L_n(X_n) = \frac{1}{2}$ , and so,

$$\Delta_n = E_{\pi_0}(1-L_n(X_n))^+ = \frac{1}{2}.$$

**(b) Reducibility** Here  $X = \{0,1\}$  but  $P(x,\{y\}) = 1$  if  $y=x$  and  $= 0$  if  $y \neq x$ . Here every initial distribution is an equilibrium distribution. So,  $L_n(x) = \frac{\mu(x)}{\pi(x)}$ . If  $\pi = \delta_0$ , then

$$P_{\pi}(X_n=0)=1 \text{ and } L_n(X_n) = \frac{\mu(0)}{\pi(0)} = \mu(0). \text{ So, } \Delta_n = 1-\mu(0) = \mu(1).$$

**(c) Gaussian Random Walk** (suggested by J. Berger) Let  $X_n = X_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i$  where  $Z_1, Z_2, \dots$  are iid standard normal random variables. Fix  $m \in \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $\pi_0 = \delta_m$  and  $\mu_0$  be standard normal. Then,  $\pi_n$  is normal with mean  $m$  and variance  $n$  while  $\mu_n$  is normal with mean  $0$  and variance  $n+1$ . Then,

$$L_n(X_n) \stackrel{d}{=} \left(\frac{n}{n+1}\right)^{1/2} \exp\left\{-\frac{1}{2} \left[ \frac{((n+1)^{1/2}Z)^2}{n+1} - \frac{((n+1)^{1/2}Z+m)^2}{n} \right]\right\} \rightarrow 1$$

where  $Z$  is a standard normal random variable and  $\stackrel{d}{=}$  denotes that the two random variables have the same distribution. Thus, since  $(1-x)^+$  is bounded and continuous,  $\Delta_n \rightarrow 0$ . Note that in this example there is no stationary initial distribution but there is an invariant measure, Lebesgue measure on the real line. ■

The above ergodic theorem can be used for chains with a stationary distribution  $\pi$  by choosing  $\mu_m = P_m(x, B)$  and  $\pi_m = \pi$ . In this case, a useful notion of ergodicity is

**Variation Norm Ergodicity (VN-ergodicity):**

$$\|P_m(x, \bullet) - \pi(\bullet)\| \equiv \sup_{B \in \mathcal{B}} |P_m(x, B) - \pi(B)| \rightarrow 0.$$

This is particularly useful for situations where one is interested in the dynamics of the chain under  $P_\mu$  where (1.1) holds but  $\mu$  is not the equilibrium distribution  $\pi$ . For example, in the Markov simulation method (see Athreya et al, 1996, for a thorough discussion concerning this method)  $\{X, B\} = \{Y \times Z, B_1 \times B_2\}$ , and one is interested in simulating from  $\pi$ . The p.m.  $\pi$  is the equilibrium distribution for the transition function,  $P((y, z), (dy', dz')) = \pi(dy'|z') \pi(dz'|y)$  where the two terms on the right are the conditional p.m.'s  $y|z$  and  $z|y$ , respectively.

The classical ergodic theorem does not apply to the dynamics of the simulation since  $X_0 = (y, z)$  (i.e., under  $P_{(y, z)}$ ), but variation norm ergodicity is particularly appropriate since, when  $\{X, B\}$  is a Borel space, there exists random variables,  $U$  and  $V$ , have joint distributions with marginals  $P_n(x, \bullet)$  and  $\pi$ , respectively, such that  $\|P_n(x, \bullet) - \pi(\bullet)\| =$

$P(U \neq V)$ . Thus, the variation norm indicates just how indistinguishable the Markov simulation is from one for the desired distribution  $\pi$ . In particular, by reversing the roles of  $P_m(x, B)$  and  $\pi$  in the likelihood ratio trajectory  $\{L_m(X_m)\}$ ,  $L_m(X_m) = \frac{\pi_m(X_m)}{p_m(X_m|x)}$ , the variation norm regulates how far the Markov simulation is from the desired equilibrium distribution. Namely,

$$\textbf{Lemma 1.1} \quad \varepsilon P_x(\sup_{m \geq n} (1 - L_m(X_m))^+ \geq \varepsilon) \leq E_x(1 - L_n(X_n))^+ = \Delta_n.$$

**Lemma 1.2** Let  $\mu_m \ll \pi_m$  for every  $m > n$ . Then,

$$\varepsilon P_x(\sup_{m \geq n} |1 - L_m(X_m)| \geq \varepsilon) \leq E_x(|1 - L_n(X_n)|) = 2\Delta_n$$

and

$$\varepsilon P_x(\sup_{m \geq n} |L_\infty - L_m(X_m)| \geq \varepsilon) \leq E_x(|L_\infty - L_n(X_n)|)$$

where  $L_m(X_m) \rightarrow L_\infty$  a.s.

The proofs of these results are given in the Section 4. They depend on showing that  $\{L_m(X_m), F_m\}$ ,  $F_m \equiv \sigma(X_m, X_{m+1}, \dots)$ , is a reversed supermartingale which is established in Section 2. The roles of the remote  $\sigma$ -fields in the ergodicity of the chain is discussed in Section 3. There it is shown that in the countable state space case the chain is ergodic iff and only if the tail  $\sigma$ -field is zero-one.

## 2. Martingale properties of $\{L_m(X_m), F_m\}$

**Lemma 2.1** Under  $P_{\pi_0}$ ,  $\{L_m(X_m): m=1, 2, \dots\}$  is a nonnegative reversed supermartingale adapted to the fields  $F_m \equiv \sigma(X_m, X_{m+1}, \dots)$  and is a reversed martingale if  $\mu_n \ll \pi_n$  for each  $n$ .

**Proof** Let  $j < m$ . Since  $\{X_m: m=1, 2, \dots\}$  is a Markov chain,

$$E(L_j(X_j) | F_m) = E(L_j(X_j) | X_m)$$

Then, for  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ ,

$$E_{\pi_0}(L_j(X_j) I(X_m \in B)) = E_{\pi_0}(L_j(X_j) I(X_m \in B, \pi_m(X_m) > 0))$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= E_{\pi_0}(E_{\pi_0}(L_j(X_j)I(X_m \in B, \pi_m(X_m) > 0)) | X_j) \\
&= E_{\pi_0}(L_j(X_j)E_{\pi_0}(I(X_m \in B, \pi_m(X_m) > 0)) | X_j) \\
&= E_{\pi_0}(L_j(X_j)P_{m-j}(X_j, X_m \in B, \pi_m(X_m) > 0)) \\
&= \int L_j(y)P_{m-j}(y, X_m \in B, \pi_m(X_m) > 0)\pi_j(y)\lambda(dy) \\
&= \int P_{m-j}(y, X_m \in B, \pi_m(X_m) > 0)\frac{\mu_j(y)}{\pi_j(y)}\pi_j(y)\lambda(dy) \\
&= \int P_{m-j}(y, X_m \in B, \pi_m(X_m) > 0)\mu_j(y)\lambda(dy) \\
&\quad - P_{\mu_0}(\pi_j(X_j)=0, \pi_m(X_m) > 0, X_m \in B) \\
&= P_m(x, X_m \in B, \pi_m(X_m) > 0) \\
&\quad - P_{\mu_0}(\pi_j(X_j)=0, \pi_m(X_m) > 0, X_m \in B) \\
&= \int I(y \in B, \pi_m(y) > 0)\mu_m(y)\lambda(dy) \\
&\quad - P_{\mu_0}(\pi_j(X_j)=0, \pi_m(X_m) > 0, X_m \in B) \\
&= \int I(y \in B)\frac{\mu_m(y)}{\pi_m(y)}\pi_m(y)\lambda(dy) \\
&\quad - P_{\mu_0}(\pi_j(X_j)=0, \pi_m(X_m) > 0, X_m \in B) \\
&= E_{\pi_0}(L_m(X_m)I(X_m \in B)) - P_{\mu_0}(\pi_j(X_j)=0, \pi_m(X_m) > 0, X_m \in B) \\
&\leq E_{\pi_0}(L_m(X_m)I(X_m \in B))
\end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$(2.1) \quad 0 \leq E_{\pi_0}(L_1(X_1 | \mathbf{F}_m)) \leq E_{\pi_0}(L_j(X_j | \mathbf{F}_m)) \leq L_m(X_m)$$

where the inequalities in (2.1) are equalities if  $\mu_j \ll \pi_j$  since

$$P_{\mu_0}(\pi_j(X_j)=0, \pi_m(X_m) > 0, X_m \in B) = 0 \text{ in this case.} \quad \blacksquare$$

The following is an immediate consequence of convergence theorems from martingale theory.

**Corollary 2.2**  $L_m \rightarrow L_\infty$  a.s  $P_{\pi_0}$  and in  $L^1$ . If  $\mu_n \ll \pi_n$  for every  $n$ , then  $L_m = E_{\pi_0}(L_1(X_1 | \mathbf{F}_m)) \rightarrow E_{\pi_0}(L_1(X_1 | \mathbf{F}_\infty)) = L_\infty$ . a.s  $P_{\pi_0}$  and in  $L^1$ .



**Proof** If  $\{L_m, F_m\}$  is a reversed nonnegative supermartingale, then it is immediate from the upcrossing inequality that  $L_m \rightarrow L_\infty$  a.s.  $P_{\pi_0}$ . It follows from Fatou's lemma that  $E_{\pi_0}(L_\infty) \leq \liminf E_{\pi_0}(L_m(X_m))$  and from (2.1) that  $\overline{\lim} E_{\pi_0}(L_m(X_m)) \leq E_{\pi_0}(L_\infty)$ . Thus,  $E(L_m) \rightarrow E(L_\infty)$  and it follows that  $L_m \rightarrow L_\infty$  in  $L^1$  since  $L_m \rightarrow L_\infty$  a.s.. The statement in the second sentence is immediate since  $L_m = E_{\pi_0}(L_1(X_1|F_m))$ . ■

### 3. The Role of the Remote $\sigma$ -fields

Here we investigate the relationship of the tail  $\sigma$ -field (the remote future  $\sigma$ -field) to the ergodicity of the Markov chain,  $\{X_n\}$ , when it has an equilibrium distribution  $\pi$ . To investigate this relationship it will be convenient to assume that the chain is stationary and, without loss of generality, doubly infinite. Let  $\{\hat{X}_n: n = \dots, -1, 0, 1, \dots\}$ ,  $\hat{X}_n = X_{-n}$ , denote reversed chain. Under  $P_\pi$ , the reversed chain is stationary with equilibrium distribution  $\pi$ .

For  $n > 0$ , let  $F_{-n} = \sigma(X_{-n}, X_{-n-1}, \dots)$  and  $F_n = \sigma(X_n, X_{n+1}, \dots)$ . Let  $F_{-\infty} = \bigcap_{n > 0} \sigma(X_{-n}, X_{-n-1}, \dots)$  and  $F_\infty = \bigcap_{n > 0} \sigma(X_n, X_{n+1}, \dots)$ . The  $\sigma$ -fields  $F_{-\infty}$  and  $F_\infty$  are just the *remote past and future  $\sigma$ -fields*. The next three theorems indicate the role of the remote  $\sigma$ -fields in the ergodicity of the chain. In particular, Theorem 3.3 shows that VN-ergodicity and  $F_\infty$  being zero-one are equivalent under an absolute continuity condition (which holds, for example, for countable state spaces) and indicates that reducibility and periodicity information about the chain is measurable with respect to these  $\sigma$ -fields. This result should be contrasted with Orey's (see Durrett, 1996, Theorem 5.8) which states that for a countable state irreducible recurrent Markov chain the tail  $\sigma$ -field is just the  $\sigma$ -field generated by the periodic classes.

To present these results, we need to define the weaker and more traditional notion of ergodicity, namely,

**Markovian Ergodicity (M-ergodicity):**  $P_m(x, B) \rightarrow \pi(B)$  a.s.  $P_\pi$ .

**Theorem 3.1** If  $\{\hat{X}_n\}$  is M-ergodic, then  $F_\infty$  is zero-one.

**Proof** Since  $\{X_n\}$  is Markovian,

$$(3.1) \quad P(X_0 \in B | X_n) = P(X_0 \in B | F_n) \rightarrow P(X_0 \in B | F_\infty) \quad \text{a.s.}$$

By M-ergodicity,

$$(3.2) \quad P(X_0 \in B | X_n) \stackrel{d}{=} P(X_{-n} \in B | X_0) = P(\hat{X}_n \in B | \hat{X}_0) \equiv \hat{P}^n(X_0, B) \rightarrow \pi(B) \quad \text{a.s.}$$

Since  $\pi(B)$  is a constant, it follows from (3.1) and (3.2) that

$$P(X_0 \in B | F_\infty) = \pi(B) \quad \text{a.s.}$$

Thus,  $X_0$  and  $F_\infty$  are independent. Since  $\{X_n: n < 0\}$  and  $F_\infty$  are conditionally independent given  $X_0$ , it follows that  $\{X_n: n \leq 0\}$  and  $F_\infty$  are independent. A similar argument shows that  $\{X_n: n \leq k\}$  and  $F_\infty$  are independent for every  $k$ . Thus,  $\{X_n\}$  and  $F_\infty$  are independent. By considering the reversed chain the same argument shows that  $\{X_n\}$  and  $F_{-\infty}$  are independent. Since  $\sigma(\dots, X_{-1}, X_0, X_1, \dots) \supseteq F_\infty$  and  $F_{-\infty}$ ,  $F_\infty$  and  $F_{-\infty}$  are zero-one. ■

**Theorem 3.2** If  $F_\infty$  is zero-one, then  $L_m \rightarrow E_\pi(L_\infty)$  a.s  $P_\pi$  and in  $L^1$ .

Furthermore, if  $E_\pi(L_\infty)=1$ , then  $\{X_n\}$  is VN-ergodic.

**Proof** The first result follows from Corollary 2.2,  $L_\infty = E_\pi(L_\infty)$  a.s  $P_\pi$  if  $F_\infty$  is zero-one. If  $E_\pi(L_\infty)=1$ , then  $\{X_n\}$  is VN-ergodic by (ia) of the ergodic theorem. ■

**Theorem 3.3** Let  $\mu_0 = P(x, \cdot)$  and assume that  $\mu_n \ll \pi$  for every  $n$ . Then, under  $P_\pi$ ,  $\{X_n\}$  is VN-ergodic if and only if  $F_\infty$  is zero-one.

**Proof** Note that, since  $\mu_n \ll \pi$  for every  $n$ , by Corollary 2.2,

$$(3.3) \quad E_\pi(L_\infty) = E_\pi(L_{-\infty}) = E_\pi(L_m) = 1.$$

The proof of the "if part" follows from (3.3) and Theorem 3.2 since  $F_\infty$  is zero-one.

Since  $\{X_n\}$  is VN-ergodic, it is M-ergodic. Thus, from Theorem 3.1,  $F_\infty$  is zero-one. By Theorem 3.2 and (3.3),  $\{\hat{X}_n\}$  is VN-ergodic, and hence, M-ergodic. This and another application of Theorem 3.1 shows that  $F_\infty$  is zero-one. ■

**Application - Countable State Spaces** Let the state space,  $X$ , be countable. Let  $D = \{y: \pi(y) > 0\}$ . Fix  $x \in D$  and let  $p^n(y|x)$  denote the n-step transition density. Suppose  $p^n(y|x) > 0$ . Then,  $\pi(y) = \sum_{z \in D} p^n(y|z)\pi(z) \geq p^n(y|x)\pi(x) > 0$ . Thus,  $\mu_n = P^n(x, \cdot) \ll \pi$ . Thus, by Theorem 3.3,  $\lim p^n(y|x) = \pi(y)$  if and only if  $F_\infty$  is zero-one. ■

#### 4. Proofs of Main Results

**Proof of the Ergodic Theorem** (i) Since  $L_m(X_m) \rightarrow L_\infty$  a.s  $P_{\pi_0}$  by Corollary 3.2,

$$\Delta_m = E_{\pi_0}(1 - L_m(X_m))^+ \rightarrow E_{\pi_0}(1 - L_\infty)^+$$

by (1.2) and the bounded convergence theorem. This proves (ia).

Statement (ib) follow from the identity

$$\begin{aligned} (4.1) \quad E_{\pi_0}(L_m(X_m)) &= \int L_m(y)\pi_m(y)\lambda(dy) = \int I(\pi_m(y) > 0)\mu_m(y)\lambda(dy) \\ &= \mu_m(\pi_m(X_m) > 0) \end{aligned}$$

since  $L_m(X_m) \rightarrow L_\infty$  in  $L^1$ .

(ii) Statement (ii) follow from (ia) and (1.2) since  $L_m(X_m) \rightarrow L_\infty$  a.s  $P_{\pi_0}$  and in  $L^1$  by Corollary 2.2.

(iii) Note that since  $\mu_m \ll \pi_m$ ,  $\Delta_m = \frac{1}{2} E_{\pi_0}(|1 - L_m(X_m)|)$ . Since  $L_m(X_m) \rightarrow L_\infty$  in  $L^1$  by Corollary 3.2, it follows that  $1 - L_m(X_m) \rightarrow 1 - L_\infty$  in  $L^1$  and, from (4.1), that  $\lim \mu_m(\pi_m(X_m) > 0) = E_{\pi_0}(L_\infty)$ . Thus,

$$\Delta_m = \frac{1}{2} E_{\pi_0}(|1-L_m(X_m)|) \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} E_{\pi_0}(|1-L_\infty|).$$

This proves (iii). ■

**Proofs of Lemma 1.1 and 2** Lemma 1.1 follows directly from Doob's inequality since  $\{1-L_m(X_m), \mathcal{F}_m\}$  is a reversed submartingale and  $f(x)=(x)^+$  is an increasing convex function. Since  $\{|1-L_m(X_m)|, \mathcal{F}_m\}$  and  $\{|L_\infty-L_m(X_m)|, \mathcal{F}_m\}$  are reversed submartingales because  $\{1-L_m(X_m), \mathcal{F}_m\}$  and  $\{L_\infty-L_m(X_m), \mathcal{F}_m\}$  are reversed martingales and  $f(x)=|x|$  is a convex function, Lemma 1.2 also follows from Doob's inequality. ■

## References

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