NON-RECURRENT RANDOM WALKS

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Introduction and Summary. Let $\{X_i\}$ $i=1, 2, \cdots$ be a sequence of independent and identically distributed integral valued random variables such that 1 is the absolute value of the greatest common divisor of all values of x for which $P(X_i=x) > 0$. Define

$$S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$
 .

Chung and Fuchs [5] showed that if x is any integer, $S_n=x$ infinitely often or finitely often with probability 1 according as $EX_i=0$ or $\neq 0$, provided that $E|X_i| < \infty$. Let $0 < EX_i < \infty$, and A denote a set of integers containing an infinite number of positive integers. It will be shown that any such set A will be visited infinitely often with probability 1 by the sequence $\{S_n\}$ $n=1, 2, \cdots$. Conditions are given so that similar results hold for the case where X_i has a continuous distribution and the set A is a Lebesgue measurable set whose intersection with the positive real numbers has infinite Lebesgue measure.

A Theorem about Markov Chains. Let $\{Z_n\}$, $n=0, 1, \cdots$ denote a Markov chain with stationary transition probabilities where each Z_n takes on values in an abstract state space X. The distribution of Z_0 is given but arbitrary. Let Ω denote the space of all possible sample sequences w, P the probability measure over Ω and $P(\cdot|\cdot)$ the conditional probability. The following theorem appears in [4].

THEOREM 1. Let A be any event in X. A sufficient condition that

(1)
$$P(Z_n \in A \text{ infinitely often}) = 1$$

is

(2)
$$\inf_{z \in Y} P(Z_n \in A \text{ for some } n | Z_0 = z) > 0$$

Since [4] is not readily accessible, we shall prove the theorem here.

*Proof.*² We have with probability 1 that for $j \ge N$

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² The proof given here is a modification of one suggested by J. Wolfowitz.

(3)
$$P(Z_n \in A \text{ for some } n \ge N | Z_0 = z_0, \dots, Z_j = z_j)$$
$$\ge P(Z_n \in A \text{ for some } n > j | Z_0 = z_0, \dots, Z_j = z_j)$$
$$= P(Z_n \in A \text{ for some } n | Z_0 = z_j)$$

using the Markovian and stationarity properties. As $j \to \infty$ the left member of (3) approaches with probability 1 the characteristic function b_N of the event

$$B_N = \{Z_n \in A \text{ for some } n \geq N\}$$

(see Doob [8, p. 332]). The right member of (3) is bounded below by a positive number on account of (2). Hence $b_N = 1$ with probability 1; that is, $P(B_N) = 1$. This being true for all N we have

$$P(\lim_{N\to\infty}B_N) = \lim_{N\to\infty}P(B_N) = 1.$$

But $\lim_{N\to\infty} B_N$ is the event that $Z_n \in A$ infinitely often. This proves the theorem.

If X has only a denumerable number of states and if all the states belong to the same class (that is, for every pair of states *i* and *j* there exists integers n_1 and n_2 such that $P(Z_{n_1}=j|Z_0=i)P(Z_{n_2}=i|Z_0=j)>0)$ it can be easily seen that (2) is both a necessary and sufficient condition for (1). In fact, the probability in (2) must be 1 for all states z^{3}

Sums of lattice random variables. Let $\{X_i\}$ $i=1, 2, \cdots$ be a sequence of independent and identically distributed integral valued random variables such that 1 is the absolute value of the greatest common divisor of all values of x for which $P(X_i=x)>0$. Consider the sequence $\{S_n\}$ $n=0, 1, \cdots$, where we set $S_0=0$ with probability 1 and

$$S_n = S_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$
.

The sequence $\{S_n\}$ is then a Markov chain with stationary transition probabilities and a denumerable state space. Because the transition probabilities are stationary, we shall simply write

$$P(S_{n+m}=i|S_n=j)=P(S_m=i|S_0=j)$$

even though $S_0=0$ with probability 1.

We now state as lemmas some known results to be used below.

LEMMA 1. Let $\{Z_n\}$ $n=0, 1, \cdots$ be a Markov chain with a denumerable state space. If $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(Z_n=j|Z_0=i) < \infty$ for all i and j, then

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³ We are indebted to J. Wolfowitz for this remark.

(4)
$$P(Z_n=j \text{ for some } n | Z_j=i) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(Z_n=j | Z_0=i) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(Z_n=j | Z_0=j)$$

When $EX_i = \mu > 0$, a result of Chung and Fuchs [5] implies that

$$(5) \qquad \qquad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(S_n = j | S_0 = i) < \infty$$

for all *i* and *j*. Therefore, on replacing Z_n by S_n in (4) and noting that $P(S_n=j|S_0=j)=P(S_n=0|S_0=0)$ we have

(4')
$$P(S_n = j \text{ for some } n | S_0 = i) = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(S_n = j | S_0 = i)}{1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(S_n = 0 | S_0 = 0)}$$

Lemma 1 is a special case of a relation given by Doeblin [7] (see Chung [3]). However, we shall sketch a direct proof.

Proof. We define $P(Z_0=j|Z_0=j)=1$. Then we have

$$(6) \quad P(Z_n = j | Z_0 = i) = \sum_{m=1}^{n} P(Z_m = j, Z_r \neq j \text{ for} \\ 1 \leq r < m | Z_0 = i) P(Z_n = j | Z_m = j) \\ = \sum_{m=1}^{n} P(Z_m = j, Z_r \neq j \text{ for } 1 \leq r < m | Z_0 = i) P(Z_{n-m} = j | Z_0 = j)$$

On summing over n in (6) and interchanging summations on the right we get

$$(7) \qquad \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(Z_n = j | Z_0 = i) = \sum_{m=1}^{\infty} P(Z_m = j, Z_r \neq j \text{ for} \\ 1 \leq r < m)(1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(Z_n = j | Z_0 = j)) \\ = P(Z_n = j \text{ for some } n)(1 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(Z_n = j | Z_0 = j)) ,$$

the relation (4).

LEMMA 2. If $EX_i = \mu > 0$, then

(8)
$$\lim_{j \to \infty} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(S_n = j | S_0 = i) = \frac{1}{\mu} > 0, \quad \mu < \infty$$

=0, $\mu = +\infty$

Lemma 2 is due to Chung and Wolfowitz [6]. We now prove the following.

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THEOREM 2. (i) If $0 < EX_i = \mu < \infty$ and A is any set containing an infinite number of positive integers, then $S_n \in A$ infinitely often with probability 1.

(ii) If $EX_i = +\infty$, then there exists a set A containing an infinite number of positive integers such that $S_n \in A$ only finitely often with probability 1.

Proof of (i). Since $0 < \mu < \infty$, by (8) there exists a constant c > 0, independent of *i*, and an integer J(i) such that for all j > J(i)

(9)
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(S_n = j | S_0 = i) > c.$$

Therefore by (4') and (5)

(10)
$$P(S_n=j \text{ for some } n | S_0=i) > \frac{c}{1+c'}, \quad j > J(i)$$

where $c' = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(S_n = 0 | S_0 = 0) < \infty$. Since A contains infinitely many positive integers, it always contains an integer greater than J(i) for every *i*. Therefore (2) holds and part (i) of Theorem 2 follows from Theorem 1.

Proof of (ii). If $\mu = +\infty$, then from (8) there exists an increasing subsequence $\{i_j\}$ of positive integers such that

(11)
$$\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}P(S_n=i_j|S_0=0)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\sum_{j=1}^{\infty}P(S_n=i_j|S_0=0)<\infty.$$

Let $A = \{i_j\}$. Now (11) is the expected number of n such that $S_n \in A$. Since this expectation is finite it follows that the number of n such that $S_n \in A$ is finite with probability 1. This completes the proof of the theorem.

Random variables with continuous distribution functions. Consider now a sequence $\{X_i\}$ $i=1, 2, \cdots$ of independent, identically distributed random variables possessing a common density function f(x). Again let $\{S_n\}$ $n=0, 1, \cdots$ denote the cumulative sums $S_n=S_0+\sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ where $S_0=0$ with probability 1. Our previous remark pertaining to the notation $P(\cdots | S_0=x)$ applies here also. Suppose $EX_i=\mu>0$. Then a result of Chung and Fuchs [5] implies that $H(x)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(S_n\leq x)<\infty$ for all x. Since H(x) is non-decreasing, H'(x) exists everywhere except on a set N_0 of Lebesque measure zero. Let

$$h(x) = H'(x) \qquad x \notin N,$$

= 1, say, $x \in N, x \ge 0$
= 0 $x \in N, x < 0$

We shall say that f(x) satisfies condition I if there exist constants K_1 and K_2 such that

(12)
$$0 < K_1 \leq \underline{\lim}_{x \to \infty} h(x) \leq \underline{\lim}_{x \to \infty} h(x) \leq K_2 < \infty$$

and if

(13)
$$\lim_{x \to -\infty} h(x) = 0$$

The behavior of h(x) for large |x| has been investigated in various papers on renewal theory. Smith [10], for example, has shown that if f(x)=0 for x<0, $f(x)\to 0$ as $|x|\to\infty$ and $f(x)\in L_{1+\delta}$ for some $\delta>0$, then

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} h(x) = \frac{1}{\mu}, \qquad \mu < \infty$$
$$= 0, \qquad \mu = +\infty$$

More recently, Smith⁴ has shown that the condition that f(x)=0 for x<0 may be dropped, and furthermore (13) holds. We now prove the following.

LEMMA 3. If $EX_i = \mu < \infty$, f(x) satisfies condition I, A is any Lebesgue measurable set of positive real numbers having infinite measure, then

(14)
$$\inf_{-\infty < x < \infty} P(S_n \in A \text{ for some } n | S_0 = x) > 0.$$

Proof. For every x, let A_x be a measurable subset of A with $0 < c_1 < m(A_x) < c_2 < \infty$ and such that for a given number L_1 all points in A_x exceed x by at least L_1 . Such a set exists since $m(A) = \infty$. For any $\epsilon > 0$ it follows from (12) that there exists an $L_1 = L_1(\epsilon)$ such that

(15)
$$0 < (1-\varepsilon)K_1c_1 < \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(S_n \in A_x | S_0 = x) < (1+\varepsilon)K_2c_2 < \infty$$

Let A'_x be any measurable set with $m(A'_x) \leq c_2$ and such that for a given L_2 all points in A'_x are exceeded by x by at least L_2 . By (13)⁵ there exists an $L_2=L_2(\varepsilon)$ such that

(16)
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(S_n \in A'_x | S_0 = x) < \varepsilon$$

⁴ Communication by letter.

⁵ Added in proof: Condition (13) can be dropped; (16) follows from the fact that $\lim H(x)=0$ whether (13) holds or not.

Let $L=\max(L_1, L_2)$. For a given $y \in A_x \operatorname{let} A_{xy}^1 = A_x \cap [y-L, y+L)$, $A_{xy}^2 = A_x \cap [y+L, \infty)$ and $A_{xy}^3 = A_x \cap (-\infty, y-L)$. Then from (15) and (16)

(17)
$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(S_n \in A_x | S_0 = y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(S_n \in A_{xy}^1 | S_0 = y) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(S_n \in A_{xy}^2 | S_0 = y) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(S_n \in A_{xy}^3 | S_0 = y) \\ \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(-L < S_n < L | S_0 = 0) + K_2 c_2 (1 + \varepsilon) + \varepsilon.$$

The first term on the right of (17) is finite by the result of Chung and Fuchs [5]. Therefore, since (17) is true for all $y \in A_x$ we have

(18)
$$\sup_{y \in A_x} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(S_n \in A_x | S_0 = y) < c_3 < \infty$$

Let $F_x^{(v)}(B) = P(S_v \in B, S_{v'} \notin A_x \text{ for } 1 \leq v' < v | S_0 = x)$ where B is any measurable subset of A_x . Define $P(S_0 \in A_x | S_0 = y) = 1$ if $y \in A_x$ and = 0 otherwise. Then we have

$$\begin{split} \sum_{n=1}^{N} P(S_n \in A_x | S_0 = x) &= \sum_{n=1}^{N} \sum_{v=1}^{n} \int_{A_x} P(S_n \in A_x | S_v = y) F_x^{(v)}(dy) \\ &= \sum_{v=1}^{N} \int_{A_x} \sum_{n=v}^{N} P(S_n \in A_x | S_v = y) F_x^{(v)}(dy) \\ &\leq \sum_{v=1}^{N} \int_{A_x} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P(S_n \in A_x | S_0 = y) F_x^{(v)}(dy) \\ &\leq \sum_{v=1}^{N} F_x^{(v)}(A_x) \sup_{y \in A_x} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P(S_n \in A_x | S_0 = y) \\ &\leq P(S_n \in A_x \text{ for some } n | S_0 = x)(1+c_3) \,. \end{split}$$

This being true for all N the lemma follows on account of (15).

We now state the following.

THEOREM 3. (i) If $0 < EX_i = \mu < \infty$, Condition I is satisfied, and A is any Lebesgue measurable subset of the positive real numbers, then $S_n \in A$ infinitely often or finitely often with probability 1 according as $m(A) = \infty$ or $< \infty$.

(ii) If $\mu = \infty$, then there exists a measurable subset A of the positive real numbers with $m(A) = \infty$ such that $S_n \in A$ for only finitely many n with probability 1.

Proof of (i). If $m(A) = \infty$, the result follows from Theorem 1 and Lemma 3. If $m(A) < \infty$ it follows from (15) that $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P(S_n \in A) < \infty$. Since that is the expected number of n such that $S_n \in A$, the assertion follows immediately.

Proof of (ii). A result due to Blackwell [1] asserts that for any fixed d > 0.

$$\lim_{y\to\infty}\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}P(y\leq S_n\leq y+d)=0.$$

Using this result the rest of the proof is similar to that of part (ii) Theorem 2.

Unsolved problems. Let $\{X_i\}$ be a sequence of independent and identically distributed *r*-dimensional random vectors, $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$, *B* be any Borel set in the *r*-dimensional Euclidean space R^r . It has been recently proved by Hewitt and Savage [9] (in the lattice case also by Blackwell [2]) that the probability that $S_n \in B$ infinitely often is necessarily either 0 or 1. It would be of interest to determine for which sets the probability is 0, and for which the probability is 1. Our results give a criterion for this dichotomy in certain cases in R^1 , namely in the lattice case where EX_i exists and is finite (Theorem 2) and in the continuous case under more restrictive conditions (Theorem 3).

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