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1 Measure Preserving System and Ergodicity

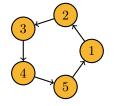
Definition 1 (Measure Preserving System). A Measure Preserving System (MPS) is a quadruple $(\Omega, \mathcal{B}, \mu, \mathsf{T})$ where $(\Omega, \mathcal{B}, \mu)$ is a measure space, and

- 1. $T: \Omega \to \Omega$ is a measurable transformation,
- 2. μ is T-invariance, i.e., $\mu(\mathsf{T}^{-1}E) = \mu(E) \ \forall E \in \mathcal{B}$.

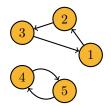
If μ is a probability measure, then the quadruple is called a Probability Preserving System (PPS).

Remark 1. The transformation T need not be rigid body motions when $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^n$. Consider dividing up \mathbb{R}^n by grids into blocks and a transformation T that shuffles the blocks around. This is clearly a MPS when the space is equipped with Borel σ -algebra and Lebesgue measure.

Definition 2 (Ergodic). An <u>PPS</u> $(\Omega, \mathcal{B}, \mu, \mathsf{T})$ is said to be ergodic if $E \in \mathcal{B}$ is T -invariant, i.e., $E = \mathsf{T}^{-1}(E)$, then either $\mu(E) = 0$ or $\mu(E) = 1$.



(a) Ergodic: well-mixed



(b) Non-ergodic: not well-mixed

Figure 1: Ergodic v.s. Non-ergodic PPS.

Remark 2. An ergodic PPS is a system in which the only T-invariant subspaces are either negligible (measure zero) or the entire space itself. That is, an ergodic PPS is a system that is "well-mixed." In Figure 1, two systems are shown where $\Omega = \{1, ..., 5\}$ and transformation T is denoted by arrows. In Figure 1b, there are two non-trivial T-invariant subspaces that does not "mix" with each other; whereas in Figure 1a, every element in Ω are "mixed" with each other.

Lemma 1. Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{B}, \mu, \mathsf{T})$ be an **PPS**, then the following are equivalent:

- 1. the PPS is ergodic,
- 2. if $E \in \mathcal{B}$ and $\mu(E \triangle \mathsf{T}^{-1}E) = 0$, then either $\mu(E) = 0$ or $\mu(E) = 1$,
- 3. if $f: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ is measurable and $f \circ \mathsf{T} = f$ a.e., then f is constant a.e.

^{*}This Introduction draws heavily from lecture note Sarig, 2023.

Proof. We show $(1. \Longrightarrow 2.)$, $(2. \Longrightarrow 3.)$, and $(3. \Longrightarrow 1.)$ respectively.

• (1. \Longrightarrow 2.) Suppose there is a set $E_0 \in \mathcal{B}$ such that $E_0 = \mathsf{T}^{-1}E_0$ and $\mu(E\triangle E_0) = 0$. By ergodicity, we have $\mu(E_0) = 0$ or $\mu(\Omega - E_0) = 0$. And since $\mu(E\triangle E_0) = 0$ implies $\mu(E) = \mu(E_0)$, we have $\mu(E) = 0$ or $\mu(\Omega - E) = 0$.

Now we construct E_0 . Consider the set $E_0 = \{\omega \in \Omega : \mathsf{T}^{-k}(\omega) \in E \text{ i.o.}\}$. Clearly, E_0 is measurable and T-invariant. Also, we have $E \triangle E_0 \subseteq \bigcup_{k>1} E \triangle \mathsf{T}^{-k} E$. Hence, we have

$$\mu(E\triangle E_0) \le \sum_{k\ge 1} \mu(E\triangle \mathsf{T}^{-k}E)$$

$$\le \sum_{k\ge 1} \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \mu(\mathsf{T}^{-j}E\triangle \mathsf{T}^{-(j+1)}E) = \sum_{k\ge 1} k\mu(E\triangle \mathsf{T}^{-1}E)$$

where the last inequality is obtained by the fact that

$$\mu(A_1 \triangle A_2) \le \mu(A_1 \triangle A_3) + \mu(A_3 \triangle A_2)$$

for all $A_i \in \mathcal{B}$. Since $\mu(E \triangle \mathsf{T}^{-1}E) = 0$, we have that $\mu(E \triangle E_0) = 0$.

• (2. \Longrightarrow 3.) Let f be a measurable function s.t. $f \circ \mathsf{T} = f$ a.e. For any $y \in \mathbb{R}$, we have $[f > y] \triangle \mathsf{T}^{-f > y} \subseteq [f \neq f \circ \mathsf{T}]$, hence

$$\mu([f > y] \triangle \mathsf{T}^{-f > y}) = 0.$$

By the assumption, either $\mu[f>y]=0$ or $\mu[f\leq y]=0$, i.e., either f>y a.e. or $f\leq y$ a.e. Let $c\coloneqq\sup\{y\in\mathbb{R}:f>y\text{ a.e.}\}$, then f=c a.e.

• (3. \Longrightarrow 1.) Let $E \in \mathcal{B}$ satisfies $E = \mathsf{T}^{-1}(E)$. Consider $f = \mathbf{1}_E$. Since $f \circ \mathsf{T} = f$, f is constant a.e., we have f = 0 a.e. or f = 1 a.e., implying that either $\mu(E) = 0$ or $\mu(E) = 1$.

Remark 3. The third characterization is quite interesting and intuitive. Consider again Figure 1b, where the PPS is equipped with probability space $\Omega = \{1, ..., 5\}$, $\mathcal{B} = 2^{\Omega}$, and uniform μ . We can define the function f as follows:

$$f(\omega) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } \omega \in \{1, 2, 3\}, \\ 1 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

It is clear that $f \circ T = f$, but f is not constant on Ω . This is achievable since non-ergodicity means there are non-trivial T-invariant subspaces, and we can simply define f to be constant on each subspace. However, in Figure 1a, since the system is "well-mixed," this trick is not possible.

Definition 3 (Strong Mixing). An <u>PPS</u> $(\Omega, \mathcal{B}, \mu, \mathsf{T})$ is called strong mixing if for any $E, F \in \mathcal{B}$ we have

$$\mu(E \cap \mathsf{T}^{-n}F) \to \mu(E)\mu(F)$$
 as $n \to \infty$.

Remark 4. The fact that strong mixing is defined using the inverse map of T is not merely due to measure-theoretic technicalities. The interpretation is "no matter what obscure events F one chooses, it could have been from all over in the system entirely randomly, not just some specific part." Thus, for any other event E, the "origins" of F must be as if independent of E.

Proof. Suppose $(\Omega, \mathcal{B}, \mu, \mathsf{T})$ is strong mixing. Let E be such that $E = \mathsf{T}^{-1}E$, then we have

$$\mu(E) = \mu(E \cap \mathsf{T}^{-n}E) \to \mu(E)^2 \quad \text{as} \quad n \to \infty.$$

Clearly, $\mu(E) = \mu(E)^2$ implies $\mu(E)$ is either 0 or 1.

2 Ergodicity Theorem

Theorem 1 (von Neumann's Ergodicity). Let \mathcal{H} be a Hilbert space. Let $\mathsf{U}: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{H}$ be a unitary operator. Let $\mathcal{I} = \{f \in \mathcal{H}: \mathsf{U}f = f\}$ denote the U-invariant subspace. Let $\mathsf{P}: \mathcal{H} \to \mathcal{I}$ be the orthogonal projection onto \mathcal{I} . Then, for any $f \in \mathcal{H}$, we have

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathsf{U}^{i} f \to \mathsf{P} f \quad \text{as} \quad n \to \infty \tag{1}$$

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in the norm induced by the inner product on \mathcal{H} .

Proof. Clearly, Equation 1 holds when $f \in \mathcal{I}$. Let $\mathcal{J} := \{g - \mathsf{U}g : g \in \mathcal{H}\}$. Suppose $f \in \mathcal{J}$, we have

$$\langle f, h \rangle = \langle g, h \rangle - \langle \mathsf{U}g, h \rangle = \langle g, h \rangle - \langle g, \mathsf{U}h \rangle = 0 \quad \forall h \in \mathcal{I}.$$

Hence, Pf = 0. Furthermore, we have

$$\left\|\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n\mathsf{U}^if\right\|_2=\frac{1}{n}\left\|\mathsf{U}g-\mathsf{U}^{n+1}g\right\|_2\leq\frac{1}{n}\left\|2g\right\|_2\to0\quad\text{as}\quad n\to\infty.$$

Therefore, Equation 1 holds for \mathcal{J} .

We claim that Equation 1 also holds for the closure of \mathcal{J} , denoted by $\bar{\mathcal{J}}$. Suppose $f \in \bar{\mathcal{J}}$, then $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists g \in \mathcal{J}$ s.t. $\|f - g\|_2 < \varepsilon$. Choose N such that $\left\|\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathsf{U}^i g\right\|_2 < \varepsilon \ \forall n > N$. Then, we have

$$\left\|\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n\mathsf{U}^if\right\|_2\leq \left\|\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n\mathsf{U}^i(f-g)\right\|_2+\left\|\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n\mathsf{U}^ig\right\|_2\leq 2\varepsilon.$$

Thus, the claim holds

Lastly, we claim that $\bar{\mathcal{J}}^{\perp} = \mathcal{I}$. Suppose $f \perp \bar{\mathcal{J}}$, we have that $\forall g \in \mathcal{H}$,

$$0 = \langle f, g - \mathsf{U}g \rangle = \langle f, g \rangle - \langle f, \mathsf{U}g \rangle \implies \langle f, g \rangle = \langle \mathsf{U}^*f, g \rangle.$$

This implies that $f = \mathsf{U} f$ a.e., i.e., $f \in \mathcal{I}$. Conversely, we have shown that if $f \in \mathcal{J}$, then $f \perp \mathcal{I}$. Hence, the claim holds. And since $\mathcal{H} = \bar{\mathcal{J}} \oplus \mathcal{I}$, Equation 1 holds for all $f \in \mathcal{H}$.

Remark 5. If we think about Theorem 1 in linear algebra terms, it lends itself to an intuitive understanding. In Figure 2, we consider \mathbb{R}^3 space with U being a rotation along the z-axis. Clearly, a rotation is an unitary transformation, and its corresponding invariant subspace is exactly the z-axis. Consider an arbitrary vector f and its transformations $U^i f$. As $U^i f$ rotates along the z-axis, it is clear that their "average" converges to Pf, the orthogonal projection of f onto the z-axis. One can also easily see that vectors of the form f - Uf is orthogonal to the z-axis.

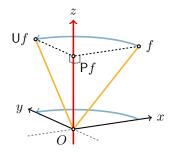


Figure 2: Visualization of Theorem 1.

Corollary 1.1. Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{B}, \mu, \mathsf{T})$ be an PPS. If $f \in L^2(\Omega)$, then

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n f\circ \mathsf{T}^i \stackrel{L^2}{\longrightarrow} \bar{f} \quad as \quad n\to \infty$$

where $\bar{f} \in L^2(\Omega)$ is T-invariant. Furthermore, if $(\Omega, \mathcal{B}, \mu, \mathsf{T})$ is ergodic, then

$$\bar{f} = \int_{\Omega} f \, d\mu.$$

Proof. Note that $L^2(\Omega)$ is a Hilbert space. Let $\mathsf{U} f \coloneqq f \circ \mathsf{T}$. Since $\|f \circ \mathsf{T}\|_2 = \|f\|_2$ for $f \in L^2(\Omega)$, U is unitary. Hence, the statement is a direct implication of Theorem 1. Furthermore, if the PPS is ergodic, then by Lemma 1, the T-invariant subspace \mathcal{I} contains only constant functions. Therefore, the orthogonal projection of f onto \mathcal{I} is its expectation.

Remark 6. The sum still converges without ergodicity, but this is not very useful, since we do not know the form of \bar{f} . With ergodicity, we know \bar{f} is a constant function. Hence, we can simply pick any starting point $\omega \in \Omega$ and compute $f \circ T^i(\omega)$ along the way to obtain the same constant \bar{f} , without worrying about the entire functional space.

3 Markov Chains under the Language of Ergodicity

Now we want to rephrase what we already understand about Markov chains under the language of von Neumann's Ergodicity Theorem.

Definition 4 (Subshift of Finite Type). Let S with be a finite set of states. Let $A = (A_{ij})_{S \times S}$ be a adjacency matrix with $A_{ij} \in \{0,1\}$ and without rows or columns be entirely zero. Let Ω_A be defined as the space of possible sequences

$$\Omega_{\mathsf{A}} \coloneqq \{\omega = (\omega_0, \omega_1, \ldots) : \mathsf{A}_{\omega_i, \omega_{i+1}} = 1 \ \forall i\}.$$

A Subshift of Finite Type (SFT) with states $\mathcal S$ with adjacency matrix A is the triple $(\Omega_A,d,\mathsf T)$ where $d(\omega,\omega')=2^{-\min\{k:\omega_k\neq\omega'_k\}}$ is a metric and $\mathsf T(\omega_0,\omega_1,...)=(\omega_1,\omega_2,...)$ is a shift transformation.

Remark 7. The topology generated by the metric $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ is equivalent to the topology generated by sets of the form

$$[s_0, ..., s_{n-1}] := \{ \omega \in \Omega_A : \omega_i = s_i \ \forall i \in \{0, ..., n-1\} \}.$$

This form are sometimes referred to as "cylinders." This is the product topology on $\mathcal{S}^{\mathbb{N}}$ when \mathcal{S} is given the discrete topology.

Remark 8. The space Ω is simply all possible sequencing of \mathcal{S} that is permitted by A. Consider again Figure 1, now with the arrows denoting the adjacency matrix A, then Figure 1a and Figure 1b generates different Ω_{A} 's. What we want next is a way to say "how likely is any given sequence realized/observed."

Definition 5 (Markov Measure). Given a transition matrix P, i.e., a matrix with each row consisting weights summing to one, and a probability vector π , we construct a measure μ by letting

$$\mu[s_0,...,s_{n-1}] := \pi_{s_0} \mathsf{P}_{s_0s_1} \cdots \mathsf{P}_{s_{n-2}s_{n-1}}.$$

Remark 9. The definition of Markov measure extends to a unique probability measure on Ω_A with product topology via Carathéodory extension theorem.

Lemma 3. μ is T-invariant iff π is stationary w.r.t. P.

Proof. Note that μ is T-invariant iff $\mu[\cdot, \mathbf{s}] = \mu[\mathbf{s}] \ \forall \mathbf{s} = (s_0, ..., s_{n-1})$. That is,

$$\sum_{t \in \mathcal{S}} \pi_t \mathsf{P}_{ts_0} \mathsf{P}_{s_0 s_1} \cdots \mathsf{P}_{s_{n-2} s_{n-1}} = \pi_{s_0} \mathsf{P}_{s_0 s_1} \cdots \mathsf{P}_{s_{n-2} s_{n-1}} \quad \forall \mathbf{s}$$

$$\iff \sum_{t \in \mathcal{S}} \pi_t \mathsf{P}_{ts_0} = \pi_{s_0} \quad \forall s_0 \in \mathcal{S}.$$
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Remark 10. With Lemma 3, we established that the system corresponding to the SFT is a measure preserving system as long as the Markov measure is constructed with a stationary distribution. It remains to ask the question: When is such system ergodic? When is such system strong mixing? From the intuition established previously, we know that...

- Ergodic means that the system is "well-mixed," i.e., all the states should be able to be reached from any other state. This corresponds to the idea of irreducibility.
- Strong mixing means that the "origin" of any set could be all over the system entirely randomly, i.e., we shouldn't observe a set that follows some path. This corresponds to the idea of aperiodicity.

It would turn out that our intuitions are spot on in describing what kinds of SFT are ergodic and strong mixing.

Definition 6 (Irreducible). A transition matrix P is called irreducible if $\forall a, b \in \mathcal{S}$ $\exists s_1, ..., s_{n-1} \in \mathcal{S} \text{ s.t. } P_{a,s_1} \cdots P_{s_{n-1},b} > 0$. We denote this as $a \xrightarrow{n} b$.

Lemma 4. If P is irreducible, then $gcd\{n \in \mathbb{N} : a \xrightarrow{n} a\}$ is independent of a.

Proof. Suppose $p_a=\gcd\{n:a\stackrel{n}{\longrightarrow}a\}$ and $p_b=\gcd\{n:b\stackrel{n}{\longrightarrow}b\}$ for $a,b\in\mathcal{S}$. Since P is irreducible, we have $a\stackrel{m_1}{\longrightarrow}b\stackrel{m_b}{\longrightarrow}b\stackrel{m_2}{\longrightarrow}a$ for some $m_1,m_2\in\mathbb{N}$ and $m_b\in\{n:b\stackrel{n}{\longrightarrow}b\}$. Since $p_a\,|\,m_1+m_b+m_2$ and $p_b\,|\,m_b$, we must have $p_a\,|\,p_b$. Similarly, we have $p_b\,|\,p_a$ by swapping a and b. Therefore, $p_a=p_b$.

Definition 7 (Period). The period of an P is $gcd\{n: a \xrightarrow{n} a\}$. An irreducible P is aperiodic if $gcd\{n: a \xrightarrow{n} a\} = 1$.

Remark 11. Definition 7 is well-defined since Lemma 4 guarantees that as long as P is irreducible, then the period is independent of state.

Theorem 2 (Ergodicity for Markov Chains). Let P be a transition matrix and let P_{ab}^n denote the (a,b)-th element of P^n . Let π be a stationary distribution of P. Then,

1. if P is irreducible, then as $n \to \infty$,

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathsf{P}_{ab}^{n} \to \pi_{b} \quad \forall a, b \in \mathcal{S}.$$

2. if P is irreducible and aperiodic, then as $n \to \infty$,

$$\mathsf{P}^n_{ab} \to \pi_b \quad \forall a, b \in \mathcal{S}.$$

Proof. Omitted. See, e.g., Chapter 1.5 in Sarig, 2023 or Chapter 5.6 in Durrett, 2019 for a proof.

Corollary 2.1. Let $(\Omega_A, \mathcal{B}, \mu, \mathsf{T})$ be the PPS corresponding to the SFT $(\Omega_A, d, \mathsf{T})$ with Markov measure μ under transition matrix P. If P is irreducible, then the PPS ergodic. Furthermore, if P is also aperiodic, then the PPS is strong mixing.

Proof. First, note that for all cylinders $[a] = [a_0, ..., a_{n_a-1}]$ and $[b] = [b_0, ..., b_{n_b-1}]$ and $k > n_a$, we have

$$\mu([\boldsymbol{a}] \cap \mathsf{T}^{-k}[\boldsymbol{b}]) = \mu\left(\frac{1}{c \in \mathcal{C}_{k-n_a}}[\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{b}]\right)$$

$$= \mu[\boldsymbol{a}] \left(\sum_{\boldsymbol{c} \in \mathcal{C}_{k-n_a}} \mathsf{P}_{a_{n_a-1}, c_0} \cdots \mathsf{P}_{c_{k-n_a-1}, b_0}\right) \frac{\mu[\boldsymbol{b}]}{\pi_{b_0}}$$

$$= \mu[\boldsymbol{a}] \mu[\boldsymbol{b}] \frac{\mathsf{P}_{a_{n_a-1}, b_0}^{k-n_a}}{\pi_{b_0}}$$

$$(2)$$

where $C_{\ell} := \{ \boldsymbol{c} = (c_0, ..., c_{\ell-1}) : [\boldsymbol{a}, \boldsymbol{c}, \boldsymbol{b}] \neq \emptyset \}$. By Theorem 2, we have that

$$\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=n-k+1}^n \mu([{\pmb a}] \cap {\sf T}^{-k}[{\pmb b}]) = \mu[{\pmb a}] \mu[{\pmb b}] \frac{1}{\pi_{b_0}} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=n-k+1}^n {\sf P}_{a_{n_a-1},b_0}^{k-n_a} \right) \to \mu[{\pmb a}] \mu[{\pmb b}].$$

Now suppose that P is irreducible. Let $E \in \mathcal{B}$ be invariant, then $\exists [a_1], ..., [a_m]$ s.t. $\mu(E \triangle +_{j=1}^m [a_j]) < \varepsilon$. Since the collection of cylinders forms a semi-algebra, such $[a_1], ..., [a_m]$ always exists. Then,

$$\mu(E) = \mu(E \cap \mathsf{T}^{-k}E) = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m \mu([\boldsymbol{a}_i] \cap \mathsf{T}^{-k}[\boldsymbol{a}_j]) \pm 2\varepsilon.$$

Taking average over k, by the fact we mentioned above, we have

$$\mu(E) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{k}^{n} \mu([\boldsymbol{a}_{i}] \cap \mathsf{T}^{-k}[\boldsymbol{a}_{j}]) \right) \pm 2\varepsilon$$

$$\to \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \mu[\boldsymbol{a}_{i}] \mu[\boldsymbol{a}_{j}] \pm 2\varepsilon = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \mu[\boldsymbol{a}_{j}] \right)^{2} \pm 2\varepsilon = (\mu(E) \pm \varepsilon)^{2} \pm 2\varepsilon$$

as $n \to \infty$. Therefore, take $\varepsilon \downarrow 0$ and we have that $\mu(E) = \mu(E)^2$, which implies either $\mu(E) = 0$ or $\mu(E) = 1$. Hence, we have ergodicity.

Now suppose further that P is aperiodic. By Theorem 2 and (2), we have $\mu([a] \cap \mathsf{T}^{-k}[b]) \to \mu[a]\mu[b]$ as $k \to \infty$. By a similar argument with approximation using cylinders, we obtain the desired result.

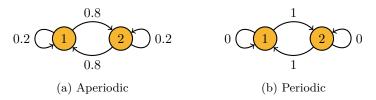


Figure 3: Markov Chains under different transition matrix P.

Remark 12. Figure 3 shows two Markov chains with same adjacency A but different transition P. One can easily check both chains represented in Figure 3a and Figure 3b share the same invariant distribution $\pi = (0.5, 0.5)$ However, notice that Figure 3b has period 2. Hence, P_{11}^n converges to 0.5 in Figure 3a but fails to converge in Figure 3b.

Remark 13. Corollary 2.1 can be extended to an if-and-only-if statement. The reverse statement can be proven using techniques similar to the proof of Corollary 2.1.

Acronyms

MPS Measure Preserving System. 1

PPS Probability Preserving System. 1, 2, 4, 6

SFT Subshift of Finite Type. 4–6

References

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Sarig, O. (2023). Lecture notes on ergodic theory. https://www.weizmann.ac.il/math/sarigo