HARRIS OPERATORS

BY

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ABSTRACT

A method is constructed which leads to a proof for both the "zero-two" law, and the Ornstein-Métivier-Brunel Theorem for Harris operators. For the proof it is not necessary to assume that the measure space is measurable and the operator need not be given by a transition probability. We strove to make these notes self-contained.

In these notes we attempt to describe, in a self-contained fashion, the theory of Harris operators. In particular we shall prove here the "Ornstein– Métivier–Brunel Theorem" and the "zero-two" law.

Since the notes are intended for the nonspecialist we shall not assume any knowledge of the theory of Markov operators but will prove the necessary results. Thus only measure theory and elementary functional analysis are used. One exception though — we shall use a classical result on the existence of an invariant measure.

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In the preparation of Section VIII I was lucky to benefit from many conversations with Nassif Ghoussoub.

The notes are dedicated to the memory of Shlomo Horowitz, who was my student and my colleague and whose research added many original and elegant results to this theory.

I. Definitions and notation

Let (X, Σ, λ) be a measure space and $\lambda(X) = 1$.

We shall study $L_{*}(X, \Sigma, \lambda)$. Thus every relation will be in the "a.e." sense unless otherwise stated. Every function is assumed to be measurable, every set is

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assumed to be in Σ and every signed measure (or σ finite measure) is assumed to be weaker than λ .

DEFINITION 1.1. A Markov operator is a linear operator P, on $L_{\infty}(X, \Sigma, \lambda)$ such that

(1) if $f \ge 0$ then $Pf \ge 0$,

- (2) $P1 \leq 1$,
- (3) if $f_n \downarrow 0$ then $Pf_n \rightarrow 0$.

The operator P acts on signed measures by

$$\mu P(A) = \int P \mathbf{1}_A d\lambda,$$

where 1_A is the characteristic function of A.

It is easy to see that μP is again a signed measure weaker than λ . Use the Radon-Nikodym Theorem to define μP by:

if
$$d\mu = ud\lambda$$
 then $d(\mu P) = (uP)d\lambda$.

This operator on $L_1(X, \Sigma, \lambda)$ satisfies:

- (i) If $u \in L_1$ and $f \in L_\infty$ then $\int (uP)fd\lambda = \int u(Pf)d\lambda$.
- (ii) If $u \ge 0$ then $uP \ge 0$.
- (iii) $\int |uP| d\lambda \leq \int |u| d\lambda$.
- To see (iii) let $u = u^+ u^-$; then

$$\int |uP| d\lambda \leq \int (u^+P + u^-P) d\lambda = \int u^+(P1) d\lambda + \int u^-(P1) d\lambda$$
$$\leq \int (u^+ + u^-) d\lambda = \int |u| d\lambda.$$

It is easy to see that (i), (ii) and (iii) imply (1), (2) and (3) of Definition 1.1 if P is defined as the adjoint operator.

The operator P may be extended uniquely to all nonnegative measurable functions by:

if
$$f_n \in L_\infty$$
 and $f_n \uparrow f$ put $Pf = \lim Pf_n$,
if $u_n \in L_1$ and $u_n \uparrow u$ put $uP = \lim uP_n$.

References. The study of Markov operators was initiated by E. Hopf in [10]. A more detailed discussion of the above notions is given in chapter I of [5].

II. The Hopf decomposition into conservative and dissipative parts

Let P be a Markov operator.

DEFINITION 2.1.

$$\Omega = \{f: 0 \le f \le 1 \text{ and } Pf \le f \text{ and } \lim P^n f = 0\},$$
$$D = \bigcup_{f \in \Omega} \{x: f(x) > 0\} = \sup\{1_{f > 0}: f \in \Omega\},$$
$$C = X - D.$$

The sup here is in the L_{∞} (a.e.) sense: Every bounded collection has a least upper bound and it is the supremum of a countable subcollection, see [16] proposition II.4.1.

Let $f \in \Omega$, then $P^k f \leq f$, thus $\sum_{n=0}^{N} P^n (f - P^k f) \leq k$ and the same inequality holds for the infinite sum. Put $A = \{x : f(x) - P^k f(x) \geq \varepsilon\}$, then $1_A \leq \varepsilon^{-1}(f - P^k f)$, hence $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n 1_A \leq \text{const} < \infty$. As $k \to \infty$ and $\varepsilon \to 0$ the set A converges to $\{x : f(x) > 0\}$. Since D is a countable union of such sets it follows that:

THEOREM 2.1. $D = \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} D_k$ where $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n 1_{D_k}$ is bounded.

If $0 \leq u \in L_1$ then

$$\int \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u P^n\right) \mathbf{1}_{D_k} d\lambda = \int u \left(\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n \mathbf{1}_{D_k}\right) d\lambda < \infty.$$

Hence $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u P^n$ is finite on D_k for every k, thus:

THEOREM 2.2. If $u \in L_1$ then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u P^n$ is finite on D.

Let us consider the set C now.

LEMMA 2.3. Let $0 \leq f \in L_{\infty}$ be such that $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n f \leq K < \infty$ then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n f$ vanishes on C.

PROOF. $K^{-1} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n f \in \Omega$ and, by definition, vanishes on C.

LEMMA 2.4. Let $0 \le f \in L_{\infty}$ and $Pf \le f$, then Pf(x) = f(x) if $x \in C$.

PROOF. The function f - Pf satisfies the condition of the previous lemma, hence vanishes on C.

Let us improve these two lemmas.

THEOREM 2.5. Let $f \ge 0$ then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n f$ assumes the values zero or infinity, only, on C.

PROOF. Put $h = \min(1, \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n f)$ then $0 \le h \le 1$, $Ph \le h$ and $P^n h(x) \to 0$ whenever $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n f(x) < \infty$. But, by Lemma 2.4, $h(x) = Ph(x) = \cdots = P^n h(x)$ if $x \in C$. Thus, if $x \in C$ then either $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n f(x) = \infty$ or h(x) = 0 in which case $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n f(x) = 0$ too.

THEOREM 2.6. Let $0 \le f < \infty$ and $Pf \le f$. Then Pf(x) = f(x) if $x \in C$.

PROOF. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n (f - Pf) \leq f < \infty$ thus, by Theorem 2.5, the sum vanishes if $x \in C$: on C, f = Pf.

COROLLARY. If $x \in C$ then P1(x) = 1.

DEFINITION 2.2. The operator P is called conservative if $X = C(D = \emptyset)$.

THEOREM 2.7. P is conservative if and only if: $0 \le f \le 1$ and $Pf \le f$ implies Pf = f.

PROOF. If P is conservative use Theorem 2.6, if $D \neq \emptyset$ choose a nonzero function in Ω .

COROLLARY. If P is conservative then P1 = 1 and P^{k} is conservative too.

PROOF. The first part follows from Theorem 2.7. Now let $0 \le f \in L_{\infty}$ with $0 \le (I - P^k)f$, then $0 \le (I - P)(I + P + \cdots + P^{k-1})f$ and equality holds by Theorem 2.7.

THEOREM 2.8. Let P be a conservative operator and $f \ge 0$ and Pf = f. Then $P \mid_{\{x: f(x) > a\}} = 1_{\{x: f(x) > a\}}$.

Proof.

$$f - a = (f - a)^{+} - (f - a)^{-} = P[(f - a)^{+}] - P[(f - a)^{-}].$$

Thus $P[(f-a)^-] \ge (f-a)^-$ and $(f-a)^- \le a$. Apply Theorem 2.7 to $a - (f-a)^-$ to conclude that $P[(f-a)^-] = (f-a)^-$. Therefore $P[(f-a)^+] = (f-a)^+$ too. Thus $P[\min(1, n(f-a)^+)] \le \min(1, n(f-a)^+)$ and, again, equality holds. Let $n \to \infty$ to obtain the result.

DEFINITION 2.3. The operator P is called ergodic if $P1_A = 1_A$ implies $\lambda(A)(1 - \lambda(A)) = 0$.

COROLLARY. Let P be ergodic and conservative. If $f \ge 0$ and $Pf \le f$ then f = const.

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Another characterization of ergodic and conservative operators is given by:

THEOREM 2.9. Let P be ergodic and conservative and $f \ge 0$, but not identically zero, then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n f \equiv \infty$.

PROOF. It is enough to prove the result when $f = 1_A$ where $\lambda(A) > 0$. Put

$$A_{N} = \left\{ x : \sum_{n=0}^{N} P^{n} 1_{A}(x) \ge \frac{1}{N} \right\}, \qquad A_{\infty} = \left\{ x : \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^{n} 1_{A}(x) > 0 \right\}.$$

Then $A_N \uparrow A_{\infty}$ and

$$1_{A_N} \leq N \sum_{n=0}^N P^n 1_A.$$

Thus $P1_{A_N}(x) = 0$ if $x \notin A_{\infty}$ or $P1_{A_N} \leq 1_{A_{\infty}}$. Let $N \to \infty$ to conclude $P1_{A_{\infty}} = 1_{A_{\infty}}$ thus, by the Corollary to Theorem 2.8, $A_{\infty} = X$. Finally X = C so if $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n 1_A(x) > 0$ then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n 1_A(x) = \infty$.

References. The results described in this section are all classical, most proved in [10], see also [16] and [5]. This presentation is different since the Hopf Maximal Ergodic Lemma was not used.

III. The definition of a cycle

Throughout this section we shall use

Assumption 3.1. P1 = 1, and if $f \ge 0$ and $Pf \equiv 0$, then $f \equiv 0$.

Note that if P is conservative then Assumption 3.1 holds.

If $Pf \equiv 0$ then $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n f = f < \infty$, so the sum is zero or $f \equiv 0$.

LEMMA 3.1. Let $P1_{A_1} = 1_{B_1}$ and $P1_{A_2} = 1_{B_2}$, then $P1_{A_1 \cup A_2} = 1_{B_1 \cup B_2}$.

PROOF.

$$1_{B_1} + 1_{B_2} = P(1_{A_1} + 1_{A_2}) \ge P 1_{A_1 \cup A_2} = P(\max(1_{A_1}, 1_{A_2}))$$
$$\ge \max(P 1_{A_1}, P 1_{A_2}) = \max(1_{B_1}, 1_{B_2}) = 1_{B_1 \cup B_2}.$$

Thus if $x \in B_1 \cup B_2$ then $1 = 1_{B_1 \cup B_2}(x) \le P 1_{A_1 \cup A_2}(x) \le 1$. On the other hand if $x \notin B_1 \cup B_2$ then $0 \le P 1_{A_1 \cup A_2}(x) \le 1_{B_1}(x) + 1_{B_2}(x) = 0$.

LEMMA 3.2. Let P satisfy Assumption 3.1 and let $P1_{A_1} = 1_{B_1}$ and $P1_{A_2} = 1_{B_2}$. If $B_1 \subset B_2$ then $A_1 \subset A_2$.

PROOF. $P1_{A_1 \cup A_2} = 1_{B_1 \cup B_2} = 1_{B_2} = P1_{A_2}$. Thus

$$0 = P \mathbf{1}_{A_1 \cup A_2} - P \mathbf{1}_{A_2} = P \mathbf{1}_{A_1 \cup A_2 - A_2}.$$

Hence, by Assumption 3.1, $A_1 \cup A_2 = A_2$.

LEMMA 3.3. Let P satisfy Assumption 3.1. If $0 \le f \le 1$ and $Pf = 1_B$ then $f = 1_{\{x: f(x) > 0\}}$.

PROOF. Put $A = \{x : f(x) \ge a\}$ for some a > 0. Then $f \ge a^{-1}1_A$ and $1_B = Pf \ge a^{-1}P1_A$ or $P1_A(x) = 0$ if $x \in B'$. Thus $P1_A \le 1_B$. Let $a \to 0$ to conclude $1_B \ge P1_{\{x : f(x) > 0\}} \ge Pf = 1_B$.

Let P be an ergodic and conservative operator. The operator P^{k} is conservative again but may fail to be ergodic. Put

$$\theta = \{A : P^k \mathbf{1}_A = \mathbf{1}_A\}.$$

By Lemma 3.1 θ is a σ subfield of Σ . If $A \in \theta$ then

$$0 = (I - P)(I + P + \dots + P^{k-1})1_A$$

hence $(I + P + \dots + P^{k-1})1_A = \text{const or } (I + P + \dots + P^{k-1})1_A \ge 1$. This implies that θ is atomic: otherwise we may find a sequence $A_n \in \theta$ where $A_n \downarrow$ and $\lambda(A_n) \rightarrow 0$ thus part (3) of Definition 1.1 is violated. Let B_0 be an atom of θ . By Lemma 3.3, $P'1_{B_0}$ is again a characteristic function. Put $P'1_{B_0} = 1_{B_n}, 0 \le r < k$. By Lemma 3.3, B_r is again an atom of θ .

THEOREM 3.4. Let P be an ergodic and conservative operator. Given an integer k there exist sets B_0, B_1, \dots, B_{d-1} where $d \mid k$, the sets are disjoint, $\bigcup_{i=0}^{d-1} B_i = X$ and $P1_{B_i} = 1_{B_{i+1}}$ where $B_d = B_0$. If $P^k 1_A = 1_A$ then A is the union of some of the sets B_i .

PROOF. Define B_r as above and let d be the smallest integer for which $P^{d}1_{B_0} = 1_{B_0}$. If $0 \le i < j < d$ and $B_i = B_j$ then $1_{B_0} = P^{d-j}1_{B_1} = P^{d-(j-i)}1_{B_0}$, a contradiction. Now $d \mid k$ and $\sum_{i=0}^{d-1} 1_{B_i}$ is invariant, hence it is identically one. Note that $B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset$ since they are atoms. Now if $A \in \theta$ then $A \cap B_i$ is either B_i or empty since B_i is an atom.

Let P be an ergodic and conservative operator and put

DEFINITION 3.1. $\Sigma_n = \{A : P^n 1_A \text{ is a characteristic function}\}.$

Then

- (a) Σ_n is a σ subfield of Σ : Lemma 3.1.
- (b) $\Sigma_n \supset \Sigma_{n+1}$: Lemma 3.3.

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DEFINITION 3.2. $\Sigma^{(1)} = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} \Sigma_n$.

Again $\Sigma^{(1)}$ is a σ subfield of Σ . Let $A \in \Sigma^{(1)}$ and $1_B = P1_A$. Then $P^k 1_B = P^{k+1}1_A$ is a characteristic function, hence $B \in \Sigma^{(1)}$ too. By an obvious abuse of language we shall write PA = B. Now we saw

$$\Sigma^{(1)} \supset P\Sigma^{(1)} \supset P^2\Sigma^{(1)} \supset \cdots$$

DEFINITION 3.3. $\Sigma^{(2)} = \bigcap_{n=0}^{\infty} P^n \Sigma^{(1)}$.

By Lemma 3.1 $P^k \Sigma^{(1)}$ is a field, hence so is $\Sigma^{(2)}$. Now if $B_n \in P^k \Sigma^{(1)}$ and $B_n \uparrow B$ then $1_{B_n} = P^k 1_{A_n}$ and, by Lemma 3.2, $A_n \uparrow A$ thus $P^k \Sigma^{(1)}$ is a σ field and so is $\Sigma^{(2)}$.

Let us see how P acts on $\Sigma^{(2)}$: If $A \in \Sigma^{(2)}$ and B = PA then $A \in P^k \Sigma^{(1)}$, hence $B \in P^{k+1}\Sigma^{(1)}$ for all k, thus $B \in \Sigma^{(2)}$.

Again let $A \in \Sigma^{(2)}$, then $A \in P^{k+1}\Sigma^{(1)}$ or $1_A = P(P^k 1_{E_k})$ where $E_k \in \Sigma^{(1)}$. By Lemma 3.3 $P^k 1_{E_k}$ is a characteristic function. By Lemma 3.2 $P^k 1_{E_k} = 1_E$ is independent of k. Thus $E \in \Sigma^{(2)}$ and $1_A = P 1_E$ or $P \Sigma^{(2)} = \Sigma^{(2)}$. Let us summarize.

THEOREM 3.5. Let P be an ergodic and conservative operator, then $\Sigma^{(2)}$ is a σ subfield of Σ which is mapped by P onto itself.

Later we shall prove that if P is a Harris operator then $\Sigma^{(1)}$, and thus $\Sigma^{(2)}$ too, is atomic (Lemma 5.3). This motivates the next result.

THEOREM 3.6. Let P be ergodic and conservative. If $\Sigma^{(2)}$ is atomic then $\Sigma^{(2)} = \{A_0, A_1, \dots, A_{d-1}\}$ where A_i are disjoint, $\bigcup_{i=0}^{d-1} A_i = X$ and $P1_{A_i} = 1_{A_{i+1}}$ where $A_d = A_0$.

PROOF. Let A_0 be an atom of $\Sigma^{(2)}$ and put $A_i = P^i A_0$. Since P is an automorphism of $\Sigma^{(2)}$ onto itself the sets A_i are atoms too. We cannot have them all disjoint since this would imply $\Sigma_{i=0}^{\infty} P^i \mathbf{1}_{A_0} \leq 1$ contradicting conservativeness. If $P^i A_0 = P^{i+k} A_0$ then, by Lemma 3.2, $P^k A_0 = A_0$. Let d be the smallest integer for which $P^d A_0 = A_0$. Then $\Sigma_{i=0}^{d-1} \mathbf{1}_{A_i}$ is invariant hence identically one. Finally, if $A \in \Sigma^{(2)}$ then $A \cap A_i$ is either empty or A_i .

COROLLARY. Let P be conservative and $\Sigma^{(2)}$ be atomic. $\Sigma^{(2)}$ is trivial if and only if P^k is ergodic for every k.

PROOF. If P^{d} is ergodic then $A_{0} = X$. If P^{k} is not ergodic, for some k, then, by Theorem 3.4, $\Sigma^{(2)}$ is not trivial.

The decompositions described in Theorem 3.5 and Theorem 3.6 are called cycles.

If $\Sigma^{(2)}$ is atomic then the restriction of P^d to A_i has ergodic powers and the Corollary applies.

References. Similar notions are discussed in [13], [15] and [18].

IV. Convergence of the iterates

The collection of Markov operators is ordered:

$$P_1 \leq P_2$$
 if $P_1 f \leq P_2 f$ for all $0 \leq f \in L_{\infty}$.

Let us use

DEFINITION 4.1. For every $0 \le f \in L_{\infty}$

$$(P_1 \wedge P_2)(f) = \inf\{P_1g + P_2(f - g): 0 \le g \le f\}.$$

It is clear that $P_1 \wedge P_2 \leq P_1$ and $P_1 \wedge P_2 \leq P_2$: choose g = f or g = 0.

If Q is a Markov operator and $Q \leq P_1$, $Q \leq P_2$ then, for each $0 \leq g \leq f$, $Qf = Qg + Q(f - g) \leq P_1g + P_2(f - g)$. Thus $Q \leq P_1 \wedge P_2$. Let us establish that $P_1 \wedge P_2$ is additive for nonnegative functions. This will show that it can be extended to a linear operator on L_{∞} . Let $0 \leq f_1$, $f_2 \in L_{\infty}$ and $0 \leq g \leq f_1 + f_2$. Put $g_1 = \min(g, f_1)$ and $g_2 = g - g_1$, then $0 \leq g_1 \leq f_1$ and $0 \leq g_2 \leq f_2$: if $g_1(x) = g(x)$ then $g_2(x) = 0 \leq f_2(x)$. If $g_1(x) = f_1(x)$ then $0 \leq g(x) - f_1(x) = g_2(x) \leq f_2(x)$.

Additivity is now immediate.

Later we shall study

DEFINITION 4.2. For every $0 \le f \in L_{\infty}$, $(P_1 \lor P_2)(f) = \sup\{P_1g + P_2(f - g): 0 \le g \le f\}$.

This is the smallest linear operator which is greater than both P_1 and P_2 . It may fail to be a Markov operator since $(P_1 \vee P_2)1$ may be greater than 1 at some points.

Assumption 4.1. Let P, Q_1 and Q_2 be commuting Markov operators such that (a) $P1 = O_1 1 = O_2 1 = 1$.

(b) There exist integers r_i and Markov operators R_i such that

$$P^{\prime_i} \geq R_i Q_1$$
 and $P^{\prime_i} \geq R_i Q_2$.

(c) $R_1 \cdots R_n \neq 0$ for all n.

From (b) follows

$$P'_{i} = R_{i}Q_{1} + S'_{i} = R_{i}Q_{2} + S''_{i} = R_{i}\frac{1}{2}(Q_{1} + Q_{2}) + \tilde{S}_{i}$$

where S'_i , S''_i and \tilde{S}_i are all nonnegative.

Let us prove, by induction, that

(i)
$$P^{r_1+\cdots+r_n} = R_1 \cdots R_n \frac{1}{2^n} (Q_1 + Q_2)^n + S_n; \quad S_n \ge 0$$

If n = 1 take $S_1 = \tilde{S}_1$. Now, induct

$$P^{r_1 + \dots + r_n + r_{n+1}} = R_1 \cdots R_n \frac{1}{2^n} (Q_1 + Q_2)^n P^{r_{n+1}} + S_n P^{r_{n+1}}$$

= $R_1 \cdots R_n P^{r_{n+1}} \frac{1}{2^n} (Q_1 + Q_2)^n + S_n P^{r_{n+1}}$
= $R_1 \cdots R_n \left[R_{n+1} \frac{1}{2} (Q_1 + Q_2) + \tilde{S}_{n+1} \right] \frac{1}{2^n} (Q_1 + Q_2)^n + S_n P^{r_{n+1}}$

$$= R_1 \cdots R_n R_{n+1} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} (Q_1 + Q_2)^{n+1} + S_{n+1}$$

where

(ii)
$$S_{n+1} = R_1 \cdots R_n \tilde{S}_{n+1} \frac{1}{2^n} (Q_1 + Q_2)^n + S_n P'_{n+1} \ge 0.$$

Equation (i) may be improved to

(iii)
$$P^{(r_1+\cdots+r_n)j} = T_j \frac{1}{2^n} (Q_1+Q_2)^n + S_n^j; \quad T_j \ge 0.$$

If j = 1 take $T_1 = R_1 \cdots R_n$ and use (i). Induct

$$P^{(r_1+\dots+r_n)(j+1)} = T_j \frac{1}{2^n} (Q_1 + Q_2)^n P^{r_1+\dots+r_n} + S_n^j P^{r_1+\dots+r_n}$$

= $T_j P^{r_1+\dots+r_n} \frac{1}{2^n} (Q_1 + Q_2)^n$
+ $S_n^j \left[R_1 \cdots R_n \frac{1}{2^n} (Q_1 + Q_2)^n + S_n^j \right]$
= $T_{j+1} \frac{1}{2^n} (Q_1 + Q_2)^n + S_n^{j+1}$

where

(iv)
$$T_{j+1} = T_j P^{r_1 + \cdots + r_n} + S^j_n R_1 \cdots R_n.$$

THEOREM 4.1. Let Assumption 4.1 hold. If P is a conservative operator such

that P^k is ergodic for all k then

$$\sup\{P^n(Q_2-Q_1)f\colon -1\leq f\leq 1\}\xrightarrow[n\to\infty]{} 0.$$

PROOF. Note first that if $-1 \le h \le 1$ then

$$P^{n+1}(Q_2 - Q_1)h = P^n(Q_2 - Q_1)Ph \leq \sup\{P^n(Q_2 - Q_1)f: -1 \leq f \leq 1\}.$$

Thus the sequence of suprema is monotone and it is enough to establish convergence of some subsequence. Apply now (i) to the function 1: $S_n 1 = 1 - R_1 \cdots R_n 1$, or $S_n 1 \le 1$ but we do not have equality by part (c) of Assumption 4.1. Fix *n*, to be chosen later, and put $g = \lim_{j \to \infty} S_n^j 1$. Then $0 \le g \le 1$ and, by (i),

$$P^{r_1+\cdots+r_n}g \ge S_ng = g$$

Since P^k is ergodic and conservative for all k, we must have g = const and $R_1 \cdots R_n g = 0$ thus g = 0. Let us apply (iii) to the function 1: $1 = T_j 1 + S'_n 1$ or $T_j 1 \le 1$ thus $||T_j|| \le 1$. Use (iii) again for $-1 \le f \le 1$:

$$P^{(r_1+\cdots+r_n)j}(Q_2-Q_1)f=T_j\frac{1}{2^n}(Q_1+Q_2)^n(Q_2-Q_1)f+S^j_n(Q_2-Q_1)f.$$

Now,

$$\left|S_{n}^{j}(Q_{2}-Q_{1})f\right| \leq 2S_{n}^{j}1 \xrightarrow{j \to \infty} 0$$

by the above remarks. On the other hand

$$\left\| T_{j} \frac{1}{2^{n}} (Q_{1} + Q_{2})^{n} (Q_{2} - Q_{1}) \right\| \leq \frac{1}{2^{n-1}} + \frac{1}{2^{n}} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \left| \binom{n}{k} - \binom{n}{k+1} \right|$$

by the binomial formula. The sequence $\binom{n}{k}$ increases for $0 \le k \le n/2$ and decreases for $n/2 \le k \le n$. Thus the sum is bounded by $2^{-n}\binom{n}{n/2}$ which is, by the Stirling Formula, $O(1/\sqrt{n})$ from which the theorem follows.

COROLLARY. Let P^i be ergodic and conservative for all j. For a fixed k either

 $\sup\{(P^{n+k} - P^n)f: -1 \le f \le 1\} = 2$

for all n and almost all x (equivalently $P^n \wedge P^{n+k} = 0$) or

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sup \{ (P^{n+k} - P^n) f: -1 \le f \le 1 \} = 0.$$

PROOF. Put

$$h_n = \sup\{(P^{n+k} - P^n)f: -1 \le f \le 1\}$$

and note that: (1) $0 \le h_n \le 2$: obvious. (2) $h_{n+1} \le h_n$: if $-1 \le f \le 1$ then $(P^{n+1+k} - P^{n+1})f = (P^{n+k} - P^n)Pf \le h_n$. (3) $h_{n+1} \le Ph_n$: if $-1 \le f \le 1$ then

$$(P^{n+1+k} - P^{n+1})f = P(P^{n+k} - P^n)f \le Ph_n.$$

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(4)
$$(P^n \wedge P^{n+k}) = 1 - \frac{1}{2}h_n$$
:

$$(P^{n} \wedge P^{n+k})1 = \inf\{P^{n}g + P^{n+k}(1-g): 0 \le g \le 1\}$$
$$= 1 - \sup\{(P^{n+k} - P^{n})g: 0 \le g \le 1\}$$
$$= 1 - \frac{1}{2}\sup\{(P^{n+k} - P^{n})f: -1 \le f \le 1\}$$

since $g = \frac{1}{2}(f+1)$ where $-1 \le f \le 1$. Note $h_n = 2$ if and only if $P^n \wedge P^{n+k} = 0$. Let $h = \lim h_n$ (by (2)), then Ph = h (by (3)) hence $h = \text{const} = \alpha$. If $\alpha = 2$ we are done; let $\alpha < 2$:

$$(P^n \wedge P^{n+k})\mathbf{1} = \mathbf{1} - \frac{1}{2}h_n \uparrow \mathbf{1} - \frac{\alpha}{2} > 0.$$

Apply Assumption 4.1 where $Q_1 = I$ and $Q_2 = P^k$ and $R_i = P^{n_i} \wedge P^{n_i+k}$ (the choice of n_i will be explained later). Now $P^{n_i+k} \ge R_i$ and $P^{n_i+k} \ge R_i P^k$ so we take $r_i = n_i + k$ and it remains to verify (c) of Assumption 4.1.

If $R_1 \cdots R_m 1 \neq 0$ for an appropriate choice of n_1, \cdots, n_m then

$$R_1 \cdots R_m (P^n \wedge P^{n+k}) \longrightarrow \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{2}\right) R_1 \cdots R_m 1 \neq 0$$

and $n = n_{m+1}$ may be chosen so that the left-hand side does not vanish.

Following D. Revuz put

$$G = \left\{ k : \limsup_{n \to \infty} \left\{ (P^{n+k} - P^n) f : -1 \leq f \leq 1 \right\} = 0 \right\}.$$

If $i, j \in G$ then $i + j \in G$. If $i + j \in G$ and $i \in G$ then $j \in G$:

$$P^{n+j} - P^n = (P^{n+i+j} - P^n) - (P^{n+i+j} - P^{n+j})$$

Thus there exists an integer d such that G = multiples of d.

If $d \neq 0$ consider the subspace of L_1

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$$K = \{ u : \| u P^n \| \xrightarrow[n \to \infty]{} 0 \}.$$

If $u = v(P^d - I)$ then

$$||uP^{n}|| = ||v(P^{n+d} - P^{n})|| \le \int |v| \sup\{(P^{n+d} - P^{n})f: -1 \le f \le 1\} d\lambda \xrightarrow[n \to \infty]{} 0$$

Hence $L_1(I - P^d) \subset K$ and by the Hahn Banach Theorem and since P^d is ergodic and conservative we have

$$if \int ud\lambda = 0 \ then \ \|uP^n\| \xrightarrow[n \to \infty]{} 0.$$

Let us assume a stronger version of Assumption 4.1 by taking $r_i = r$, $R_i = R$ (independent of *i*) and $R1 \ge \text{const} > 0$.

Assumption 4.2. Let P, Q_1 and Q_2 be commuting Markov operators such that (a) $P1 = Q_11 = Q_21 = 1$.

(b) There exists an integer r and a Markov operator R such that

$$P' \geq RQ_1$$
 and $P' \geq RQ_2$.

(c) $R1 \ge \text{const} = \delta > 0$.

Since Assumption 4.2 implies Assumption 4.1 we immediately get:

(i*)
$$P^m = R^n \frac{1}{2^n} (Q_1 + Q_2)^n + S_n; \quad S_n \ge 0.$$

(ii*)
$$S_{n+1} = R^n \tilde{S} \frac{1}{2^n} (Q_1 + Q_2)^n + S_n P^r.$$

(iii*)
$$P^{mj} = T_j \frac{1}{2^n} (Q_1 + Q_2)^n + S_n^j; \qquad T_j \ge 0.$$

(iv*)
$$T_{j+1} = T_j P^m + S_n^j R^n$$
.

As before $||T_i|| \leq 1$, from (i^{*}) when applied to 1, follows

 $S_n 1 = 1 - R^n 1 \leq 1 - \delta^n < 1.$

Thus

$$||P^{m_i}(Q_2-Q_1)|| \leq ||\frac{1}{2^n}(Q_1+Q_2)^n(Q_2-Q_1)|| + 2||S_n||^i$$

and the first term is $O(1/\sqrt{n})$ while the second term is bounded by $(1-\delta^n)^j \rightarrow 0.$

THEOREM 4.2. Let Assumption 4.2 hold. Then

$$\|P^n(Q_2-Q_1)\|\longrightarrow 0.$$

PROOF. $||P^{n}(Q_{2}-Q_{1})||$ is monotone and the theorem follows from the above remarks.

COROLLARY. Let P be a Markov operator with P1 = 1. Let k be a fixed integer, then either $||P^{n+k} - P^n|| = 2$ for every n or $\lim_{n \to \infty} ||P^{n+k} - P^n|| = 0$.

PROOF. Let $||P^{m+k} - P^m|| < 2$ for some *m*. Put $R = P^m \wedge P^{m+k}$, $Q_1 = I$, $Q_2 = P^k$ and r = m + k. Note that $R = 1 - \frac{1}{2} \sup\{(P^{m+k} - P^m)f: -1 \le f \le 1\} \ge 1 - \frac{1}{2}||P^{m+k} - P^m|| > 0$.

Thus Assumption 4.2 holds and Theorem 4.2 applies.

As before, if $G = \{k : \|P^{n+k} - P^n\|_{n \to \infty} 0\}$ then G consists of multiples of a fixed integer.

Let us conclude this section with some results that will be useful for the study of Harris operators.

Assumption 4.3. Let P, Q_1 and Q_2 be commuting Markov operators such that (a) $P1 = Q_1 1 = Q_2 1 = 1$.

(b) There exist an integer r and a Markov operator R such that

 $P' \geq Q_1 R$ and $P' \geq Q_2 R$.

(c) $R1 = \text{const} = \delta > 0$.

Note that (c) is much stronger than (c) of Assumption 4.2. The same argument as before will show

(i**)
$$P^{m} = \frac{1}{2^{n}} (Q_{1} + Q_{2})^{n} R^{n} + S_{n}; \qquad S_{n} \ge 0.$$

(ii**)
$$S_{n+1} = \frac{1}{2^n} (Q_1 + Q_2)^n \tilde{S}R^n + P^r S_n.$$

(iii**)
$$P^{m_j} = \frac{1}{2^n} (Q_1 + Q_2)^n T_j + S_n^j; \qquad T_j \ge 0.$$

(iv**)
$$T_{j+1} = P^m T_j + R^n S_n^j$$

Apply (i^{**}) to the function 1:

$$1 = \delta^n + S_n 1$$

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(note we used equality: $R1 = \delta$). Now $T_11 = R^n 1 = \delta^n = \text{const} = \beta_1$. Let us prove, by induction, that $T_11 = \text{const} = \beta_1$: by (iv**) applied to 1

$$T_{j+1}1 = \beta_j + \delta^n (1 - \delta^n)^j = \text{const} = \beta_{j+1}.$$

Apply now (iii**) to the function 1:

$$1 = \beta_i + S_n 1$$
 or $\beta_i \leq 1$

hence $||T_i|| \leq 1$. Hence we may use (iii^{**}) to conclude

$$||(Q_2 - Q_1)P^{mj}|| \le \left\|\frac{1}{2^n}(Q_2 - Q_1)(Q_1 + Q_2)^n\right\| + 2||S_n||^{i}$$

and as before

THEOREM 4.3. Let Assumption 4.3. hold. Then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \|(Q_2-Q_1)P^n\|=0.$$

COROLLARY. Let P be a Markov operator with P1 = 1. Let μ be an invariant measure for P namely:

$$0 \leq \mu$$
, $\mu(X) = 1$ and $\int (Pf)d\mu = \int fd\mu$.

Put $Vf = \int fd\mu$, V is a Markov operator. Let there exist a measure τ satisfying $0 \leq \tau$, $0 < \tau(X) \leq 1$ and if $Rf = \int fd\tau$ then $P' \geq R$ for some integer r. Then

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \|P^n - V\| = 0.$$

PROOF. Note first that $PV = VP = V^2 = V$. Also P1 = V1 = 1. Now $R1 = \tau(X) = \text{const.}$ Also $P' \ge R = PR = VR$ and Assumption 4.3 holds for $Q_1 = P$ and $Q_2 = V$. Hence $||(V-P)P^n|| \to 0$ by Theorem 4.3, but $(V-P)P^n = V - P^{n+1}$.

References. The Corollary of Theorem 4.1 is the "zero-two" law of Ornstein and Sucheston [20]. We followed here [6].

V. Harris Condition

Let us introduce some terminology.

A "density" is a function k on $X \times X$ such that $0 \le k(x, y)$ and it is jointly measurable and $\int k(x, y)\lambda(dy)$ is a bounded function of x.

The "integral kernel" of a density is given by

$$Kf(x) = \int k(x, y)f(y)\lambda(dy), \quad f \in L_{\infty}.$$

If $K1 \leq 1$ then K is a Markov operator. Now

$$\int_{A} K \mathbf{1}_{B} d\lambda = \iint_{AB} k(x, y) \lambda(dy) \lambda(dx) = \tilde{K}(A \times B)$$

where \tilde{K} is a measure on $(X \times X, \Sigma \times \Sigma)$ given by $d\tilde{K} = k d\lambda^2$.

Let P be any Markov operator and define \tilde{P} on rectangles of $X \times X$ by

$$\tilde{P}(A\times B)=\int_A P1_B d\lambda$$

In order to extend this set function, linearly, to the field of all finite unions of disjoint rectangles (see I.6 and III.1 of [16]) we have to show:

If $A \times B = \bigcup_{i=1}^{n} A_i \times B_i$ where $A_i \times B_i$ are disjoint then

$$\tilde{P}(A \times B) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \tilde{P}(A_i \times B_i).$$

Now $A = \bigcap_{i=1}^{n} [A_i \cup (A - A_i)] = \bigcup E_i$ where the sets E_i are disjoint and for every *i* and *j* either $E_j \subset A_i$ or $E_j \cap A_i = \emptyset$. We may assume that $\lambda(E_i) > 0$ (discard the others). Now

$$1_{A}(x)1_{B}(y) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} 1_{A_{i}}(x)1_{B_{i}}(y),$$

multiply by $1_{E_i}(x)$ and evaluate at $x \in E_i$ to obtain

$$\mathbf{1}_B = \sum_{i: E_j \subset A_i} \mathbf{1}_{B_i}; \qquad P \mathbf{1}_B = \sum_{i: E_j \subset A_i} P \mathbf{1}_{B_i}.$$

Thus

$$\int_{E_j} P \mathbf{1}_B d\lambda = \sum_{i: E_j \subset A_i} \int_{E_j} P \mathbf{1}_{B_i} d\lambda = \sum_i \int_{E_j \cap A_i} P \mathbf{1}_{B_i} d\lambda.$$

Sum over *j*:

$$\int_{A} P \mathbf{1}_{B} d\lambda = \sum_{i} \int_{A_{i}} P \mathbf{1}_{B_{i}} d\lambda$$

We shall use \tilde{P} to denote the extension of P too.

LEMMA 5.1. Let P be a Markov operator and K, K_1 and K_2 be integral kernels of the densities k, k_1 and k_2 .

(1) If $P \leq K$ then P is an integral kernel too.

(2) $K_1 \leq K_2$ if and only if $k_1 \leq k_2$ a.e. λ^2 .

(3) PK and KP are integral kernels.

(4) $K_1 \vee K_2$ $(K_1 \wedge K_2)$ is an integral kernel whose density is $\max(k_1, k_2)$ $(\min(k_1, k_2))$.

PROOF. (1) If $P \leq K$ then $\tilde{P} \leq \tilde{K}$. Now \tilde{K} is continuous at \emptyset (if $E_n \in \Sigma \times \Sigma$ and $E_n \downarrow \emptyset$ then $\tilde{K}(E_n) \rightarrow 0$). Thus \tilde{P} is continuous at \emptyset too and has a unique extension to all of $\Sigma \times \Sigma$. The extension will be denoted again by \tilde{P} . By the uniqueness of the extension of $\tilde{K} - \tilde{P}$ we must have $\tilde{P} \leq \tilde{K}$ on all of $\Sigma \times \Sigma$. Thus \tilde{P} is a measure (countably additive) and $\tilde{P} \ll \lambda^2$. If $d\tilde{P} = rd\lambda^2$ then $r \geq 0$ is jointly measurable and

$$\int_{A} P 1_{B} d\lambda = \int_{A} \int_{B} r(x, y) \lambda(dy) \lambda(dx)$$

hence $P1_B = \int_B r(x, y)\lambda(dy)$ and P is an integral kernel.

(2) Let $k_1 \leq k_2$ a.e. λ^2 , then for almost all x, $\lambda\{y : k_1(x, y) \leq k_2(x, y)\} = 1$. Thus a.e. $K_1 \mathbb{1}_A(x) \leq K_2 \mathbb{1}_A(x)$.

Conversely, let $K_1 \leq K_2$ then $\tilde{K}_1 \leq \tilde{K}_2$ on rectangles and, by unique extension, on $\Sigma \times \Sigma$ thus $k_1 \leq k_2$ a.e. λ^2 .

(3) Let $k_0 \equiv 1$ and K_0 be its integral kernel.

If $k \leq \text{const}$ then $K \leq \text{const} K_0$ but $(PK_0)f = (\int f d\lambda)P1$: The integral kernel of the density q(x, y) = P1(x).

$$(K_0P)f = \int (Pf)(y)\lambda(dy) = \int (1P)(y)f(y)\lambda(dy):$$

The integral kernel of the density q(x, y) = (1P)(y).

By part (1) we have, if k is bounded, that PK and KP are integral kernels. If k is not bounded put $k_n = \min(k, n)$ and let K_n be its integral kernel. Let q_n be the density of $K_n P$ (PK_n). The sequence q_n increases by part (2). Let $q \leftarrow \lim q_n$. If $0 \leq f \in L_{\infty}$ then

$$\int q(x, y)f(y)\lambda(dy) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \int q_n(x, y)f(y)\lambda(dy)$$
$$= \lim_{n \to \infty} (K_n P)f(x) = \lim_{n \to \infty} K_n(Pf)(x) = K(Pf)(x) = (KP)f(x)$$

(4) Note that $K_1 \vee K_2 \leq K_1 + K_2$ thus, by part (1), it is an integral kernel. Let k_3 be the density of $K_1 \vee K_2$. By part (2), $k_3 \geq \max(k_1, k_2) \geq k_i$, i = 1, 2; again by

part (2) the integral kernel of max (k_1, k_2) dominates both K_1 and K_2 and thus $K_1 \vee K_2$. Use (2) again to conclude max $(k_1, k_2) \ge k_3$.

Let P be a Markov operator and put

$$\phi = \{k : k \text{ is the density of } K \text{ where } K \leq P\}.$$

By part (4) of the previous lemma if $k_1, k_2 \in \phi$ then $\max(k_1, k_2) \in \phi$ too. Thus if $\alpha = \sup\{\iint k d\lambda^2: k \in \phi\}$ then $\alpha = \lim \iint k_n d\lambda^2$ where $k_n \in \phi$ and $k_n \uparrow$. Put $q = \lim k_n$ and let Q be its integral kernel. By Fatou's Lemma $Q \leq P$ or $q \in \phi$. Now $\iint q d\lambda^2 = \alpha$, thus if $k \in \phi$ then $\max(k, q) \in \phi$ and $\iint \max(k, q) d\lambda^2 \leq \alpha = \iint q d\lambda^2$, thus q is the maximal element of ϕ .

THEOREM 5.2. Every Markov operator P can be decomposed to P = Q + Rwhere Q is an integral kernel and R is a Markov operator that does not dominate any integral kernel.

DEFINITION 5.1. The above decomposition will be called the Harris Decomposition. We shall denote the Harris Decomposition of P^n by $P^n = Q_n + R_n$.

DEFINITION 5.2. The Markov operator P is called a Harris operator if (1) P is conservative.

(2) If $\lambda(A) > 0$ then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Q_n 1_A$ is not identically zero.

Note (2) is equivalent to (2') If $0 \le f \in L_{\infty}$ and $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Q_n f \equiv 0$ then $f \equiv 0$. Recall Definitions 3.1, 3.2 and 3.3.

LEMMA 5.3. If P is a Harris operator then $\Sigma^{(1)}$ is atomic.

PROOF. Assume to the contrary, $A \in \Sigma^{(1)}$ and $A = \bigcup_{i=1}^{2^n} A_{i,n}$ where $A_{i,n} \in \Sigma^{(1)}$, $\lambda(A_{i,n}) = 2^{-n}\lambda(A)$ and $A_{j,n+1}$ are obtained by splitting each set $A_{i,n}$ into two sets, in $\Sigma^{(1)}$, of equal measure. The sets $A_{i,n}$, $1 \le i \le 2^n$ are disjoint, thus

$$\sum_{i=1}^{2^{n}} P^{k} \mathbf{1}_{A_{i,n}}(x) = P^{k} \mathbf{1}_{A}(x) \leq 1,$$

and each term in the sum is either zero or one by the definition of $\Sigma^{(1)}$. Thus for all *i*, with at most one exception, $P^k \mathbf{1}_{A_{k,n}}(x) = 0$. The same holds for Q_k : For a fixed k and x

$$Q_k 1_A(x) = Q_k 1_{A_{j,n}}(x) = \int_{A_{j,n}} q_k(x, y) \lambda(dy)$$

where j = j(x, n) and the sets $A_{j,n}$ decrease as *n* increases. Thus $Q_k 1_A(x) = 0$ and, by Definition 5.2, $\lambda(A) = 0$.

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REMARK. The invariant sets are in $\Sigma^{(1)}$, hence if P is a Harris operator its collection of invariant sets is atomic and we may assume with no loss of generality that P is ergodic too.

Note that $\Sigma^{(2)}$ is atomic too thus, by Theorem 3.6, the restriction of P^{d} to one of the atoms of $\Sigma^{(2)}$ has ergodic powers.

LEMMA 5.4.
$$Q_{n+m} \ge P^n Q_m \ge Q_n Q_m$$
; $Q_{n+m} \ge Q_n P^m$ and $R_{n+m} \le R_n R_m$.

PROOF. $P^{n+m} = (Q_n + R_n)(Q_m + R_m) = P^n Q_m + Q_n R_m + R_n R_m$. The first two terms are integral kernels by part (3) of Lemma 5.1.

If one chooses a particular version of $q_k(x, y)$ then $Q_k f(x)$ is defined at every point x, by $\int q_k(x, y) f(y) \lambda(dy)$, even if f is defined a.e. only. Thus $Q_k(P^m f)(x)$ is everywhere defined:

$$Q_k(P^m f)(x) = \int q_k(x, y)(P^m f)(y)\lambda(dy) = \int [q_k(x, \cdot)P^m](y)f(y)\lambda(dy).$$

Let us prove that $[q_k(x, \cdot)P^m](y)$ is the density of the integral kernel Q_kP^m . By the above remark it suffices to show that it is jointly measurable.

Consider the collection of densities r(x, y) such that $[r(x, \cdot)P](y)$ is jointly measurable.

It is clear that this collection is linear and monotone, thus to show that every measurable function satisfies this condition it is enough to show that the characteristic function of every set in $\Sigma \times \Sigma$ does.

Let us study the collection of sets, E, in $\Sigma \times \Sigma$ such that $[1_E(x, \cdot)P](y)$ is jointly measurable.

Every rectangle has this property. It is a monotone collection.

By theorem I.4.2 of [16] every set in $\Sigma \times \Sigma$ has the desired property. Let us choose a version of q_n such that $Q_{n+1}f(x) \ge Q_n(Pf)(x)$ at every point x if $0 \le f \in L_{\infty}$. Suppose we chose $q_1 \cdots q_k$, then $P^{k+1} = Q_k P + R_k P$. Choose the density of $Q_k P$ at every point as above and add to it the greatest integral kernel dominated by $R_k P$.

Therefore

LEMMA 5.5. We may choose versions of the densities q_n in such a way that, if $0 \le f \in L_{\infty}$, then

$$Q_{n+m}f(x) \ge Q_n(P^m f)(x)$$

at every point x.

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PROOF. We proved the lemma for m = 1. With this choice we have

$$Q_{n+m+1}f(x) \ge Q_{n+m}(Pf)(x) \ge Q_n(P^m Pf)(x)$$

by an induction argument on m.

Throughout the rest of the paper we shall assume that q_n satisfy Lemma 5.5.

THEOREM 5.6. Let P be an ergodic and conservative Markov operator. P is a Harris operator if and only if $Q_k \neq 0$ for some k.

If P is a Harris operator then

- (a) $Q_n 1 \uparrow 1 a.e.$
- (b) If $\lambda(A) > 0$ then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Q_n 1_A(x) = \infty$ at every point x for which (a) holds.

PROOF. Let $Q_k \neq 0$ and $\lambda(A) > 0$. By Lemma 5.4

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Q_{k+n} \mathbf{1}_A \ge Q_k \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^n \mathbf{1}_A \ge Q_k \mathbf{1} \neq 0.$$

Thus P is a Harris operator.

(a) $R_1 1 \leq 1$ and, by Lemma 5.4,

$$R_{m+1}1 \leq R_m R_1 1 \leq R_m 1.$$

Put $g = \lim_{m \to \infty} R_m 1$, then $0 \le g \le 1$ and

$$P^{k}g = Q_{k}g + R_{k}g \geq \lim_{m\to\infty} R_{k}R_{m}1 \geq \lim_{m\to\infty} R_{k+m}1 = g.$$

Thus, since P^k is conservative, $P^k g = g$ and $Q_k g = 0$, by Harris Condition g = 0.

(b) Let $Q_m 1(x) > 0$ (by (a)), then

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Q_{m+n} \mathbf{1}_A(x) \geq Q_m \left(\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^n \mathbf{1}_A \right)(x).$$

Now, $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P^n \mathbf{1}_A \ge N\mathbf{1}$ for every constant N thus

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Q_n \mathbb{1}_A(x) \ge N Q_m \mathbb{1}(x)$$

and the left-hand side must be infinite.

References. The idea of the decomposition goes back to W. Doeblin [3]. A similar idea may be found in [21]. Our description is closer to Harris's [9]. Lemma 5.3 is due to J. Feldman [4].

In our study we do not assume that P is given by a transition probability and that Σ is separable, which complicates the arguments considerably.

See also [17] and [18].

VI. Harris Lemma

Let P be an ergodic Harris operator and let $Q_k \neq 0$. Choose $\varepsilon > 0$ so that $0 < \lambda^2(\{(x, y): q_k(x, y) > \varepsilon\})$.

Thus $0 < \int \lambda(\{y : q_k(x, y) > \varepsilon\})\lambda(dx)$ and the integrand is greater than $\delta > 0$ on a set E with $\lambda(E) > 0$. Let $\lambda(A) > 1 - \delta/2$ and $x \in E$ then

$$\lambda \left(A' \cup \{ y : q_k(x, y) \leq \varepsilon \} \right) \leq \frac{\delta}{2} + 1 - \delta = 1 - \frac{\delta}{2}$$

or

$$\lambda (A \cap \{y : q_k(x, y) > \varepsilon\}) \geq \frac{\delta}{2}.$$

Thus

$$P^{k} 1_{A}(x) \geq \int_{A} q_{k}(x, y) \lambda(dy) \geq \varepsilon \lambda(A \cap \{y : q_{k}(x, y) > \varepsilon\}) \geq \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon \delta.$$

Let B be any set with $\lambda(B) > 0$. Choose N so large that if $A = \{x: \sum_{n=1}^{N} P^n 1_B(x) \ge 1\}$ then $\lambda(A) > 1 - \delta/2$. Now $1_A \le \sum_{n=1}^{N} P^n 1_B$ hence

$$\sum_{n=1}^{N} P^{k+n} \mathbf{1}_{B} \geq P^{k} \mathbf{1}_{A} \geq \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon \delta \mathbf{1}_{E}.$$

Let us summarize.

LEMMA 6.1. Let P be an ergodic Harris operator. There exists an integer k, two positive constants ε and δ , and a set E with $\lambda(E) > 0$ such that:

(a) If $x \in E$ then $\lambda(\{y : q_k(x, y) > \varepsilon\}) > \delta$.

(b) If $\lambda(A) > 1 - \delta/2$ then $P^k 1_A \ge \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon \delta 1_E$.

(c) If $\lambda(B) > 0$ then there exists an integer N = N(B) such that $\sum_{n=0}^{N} P^n 1_B \ge \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon \delta 1_E$.

DEFINITION 6.1. A set *E* is called "reserve" if $\lambda(E) > 0$ and for every set *A* with $\lambda(A) > 0$ there exists an $\varepsilon = \varepsilon(A) > 0$ and an integer N = N(A) such that $\sum_{n=0}^{N} P^n \mathbf{1}_A \ge \varepsilon \mathbf{1}_E$.

Lemma 6.1 shows that an ergodic Harris operator has reserve sets. Let E be reserve and put

$$E_{\kappa} = \left\{ x \colon \sum_{k=0}^{\kappa} P^k \mathbf{1}_E(x) \ge 1 \right\} \,.$$

Then

$$1_{E_{\mathbf{K}}} \leq \sum_{k=0}^{K} P^{k} 1_{E}$$

If $\lambda(A) > 0$ find $\varepsilon > 0$ and an integer N such that $\sum_{n=0}^{N} P^n \mathbf{1}_A \ge \varepsilon \mathbf{1}_E$, hence

$$\varepsilon 1_{E_{k}} \leq \varepsilon \sum_{k=0}^{K} P^{k} 1_{E} \leq \sum_{k=0}^{K} \sum_{n=0}^{N} P^{k+n} 1_{A} \leq (K+1) \sum_{j=0}^{N+K} P^{j} 1_{A}$$

since each power k + n repeats itself at most K + 1 times. Thus E_k is reserve again and $E_K \uparrow X$.

THEOREM 6.2. Let P be an ergodic Harris operator, then there exist reserve sets E_{κ} with $E_{\kappa} \uparrow X$.

In the rest of this section we shall use the "zero-two" law for Harris operators.

LEMMA 6.3. Let P be a Harris operator such that P^n is ergodic for every n. For every fixed integer k, $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \{(x, y): q_{nk}(x, y) > 0\} = X \times X$ a.e. λ^2 .

PROOF. If $Q_j \neq 0$ then $Q_{j+r} \ge Q_j P'$ hence $Q_{j+r} \neq 0$ too. Thus P^k is again a Harris operator with ergodic iterates. Let us then prove the lemma for k = 1. By Theorem 5.6 there exists a set Y with $\lambda(Y) = 0$ such that if $\lambda(A) > 0$ and $x_0 \notin Y$ then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} Q_n 1_A(x_0) = \infty$. Note we assumed, as in Lemma 5.5, that $Q_n f(x)$ is everywhere defined. Let us study the following situation:

(*)
$$x_0 \notin Y$$
 and $q_n(x_0, y) = 0$ for all n .

By Lemma 5.4 (*) implies

$$0=\int q_n(x_0,z)q_m(z,y)\lambda(dz)=\int_{A_m} q_n(x_0,z)q_m(z,y)\lambda(dz)$$

where $A_m = \{z : q_m(z, y) > 0\}$. Thus $q_n(x_0, z) = 0$ for almost all $z \in A_m$ or $Q_n 1_{A_m}(x_0) = 0$. Since $x_0 \notin Y$ we must have $\lambda(A_m) = 0$. Thus (*) implies

(**)
$$q_n(z, y) = 0$$
 for almost all z.

Given any set A we have

$$(\lambda Q_n)(A) = \int_X \int_A q_n(z, y)\lambda(dy)\lambda(dz) = \int_A \left[\int_X q_n(z, y)\lambda(dz)\right]\lambda(dy)$$

or

$$\frac{d(\lambda Q_n)}{d\lambda}(y) = \int_X q_n(z, y)\lambda(dz)$$

and if (**) holds then

$$\frac{d(\lambda Q_n)}{d\lambda}(y)=0.$$

Let

$$E = \{(x, y): q_n(x, y) = 0 \text{ for all } n \text{ and } x \notin Y\}.$$

For a fixed $x_0 \notin Y$, $E_{x_0} = \{y : q_n(x_0, y) = 0 \text{ for all } n\}$, then

$$(\lambda Q_n)(E_{x_0}) = \int_{E_{x_0}} \frac{d(\lambda Q_n)}{d\lambda}(y)\lambda(dy) = 0$$

or, by Theorem 5.6, $\lambda(E_{x_0}) = 0$ and $\lambda^2(E) = \int \lambda(E_x)\lambda(dx) = 0$.

THEOREM 6.4. Let P be a Harris operator such that P^n is ergodic for all n. Then

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \sup\{ (P^{n+1} - P^n) f: -1 \le f \le 1 \} = 0.$$

PROOF. Let $q_r \neq 0$ and choose k > r. By the previous lemma

$$\lambda^{2}(\{(x, y): q_{nk}(x, y) > 0\} \cap \{(x, y): q_{nk}(x, y) > 0\}) \neq 0$$

for some *n*, thus $Q_{nk} \wedge Q_r \neq 0$ hence $P^{nk} \wedge P' \neq 0$ too and, by the Corollary to Theorem 4.1, we have

$$\lim_{m \to \infty} \sup\{(P^{m+j} - P^m)f: -1 \le f \le 1\} = 0$$

for some integer *j*. Let *d* be the smallest such integer; if $d \neq 1$ then $P^{md+1} \wedge P^{nd} = 0$ for every *n* and *m*. Thus $Q_{md+1} \wedge Q_{nd} = 0$ too.

Fix *m* so that $Q_{md+1} \neq 0$. By (4) of Lemma 5.1 we have $\min(q_{md+1}, q_{nd}) = 0$ for all *n* which contradicts Lemma 6.3.

References. Lemma 6.1 was proved by Harris in [9]. The notion of reserve sets was defined in [1]. Theorem 6.4 was proved by very different methods in [13].

VII. The induced operator

Let P be a Markov operator and E a fixed set with $\lambda(E) > 0$. For every set A with $\lambda(A) > 0$ put $T_A f = 1_A f$; then T_A is a Markov operator.

DEFINITION 7.1. $P_E = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (PT_{E'})^n PT_E$.

Note that

$$\sum_{n=0}^{N} (PT_{E'})^n PT_E 1 = \sum_{n=0}^{N} (PT_{E'})^n (P - PT_{E'}) 1$$
$$\leq \sum_{n=0}^{N} (PT_{E'})^n 1 - \sum_{n=1}^{N+1} (PT_{E'})^n 1 = 1 - (PT_{E'})^{N+1} \leq 1$$

Thus $P_E 1 \leq 1$ and P_E is a nonnegative linear contraction on L_{∞} . Now P_E is a Markov operator since if $0 \leq f \leq M$ then

$$P_{E}f \leq \sum_{n=0}^{N} (PT_{E'})^{n} PT_{E}f + M \sum_{n=N+1}^{\infty} (PT_{E'})^{n} PT_{E}1,$$

hence part (3) of Definition 1.1 holds too. The operator P_E is a Markov operator on $L_{\infty}(X, \Sigma, \lambda)$, but we shall use the operator $T_E P_E$ on $L_{\infty}(E, \Sigma_1, \lambda_1)$ where Σ_1 contains all measurable subsets of E and for $A \subset E$, $\lambda_1(A) = \lambda(A)/\lambda(E)$.

LEMMA 7.1. Let $0 \leq f \in L_{\infty}$ and $f = T_E f$, then

$$\sum_{n=0}^{N} P^{n} f \leq \sum_{n=0}^{N} P^{n}_{E} f$$

and

$$\sum_{n=0}^{N} T_E P^n f \leq \sum_{n=0}^{N} (T_E P_E)^n f$$

PROOF. The second inequality follows from the first, since $P_E = P_E T_E$ thus $(T_E P_E)^n = T_E P_E^n$. Now $P_E = PT_E + (PT_{E'})P_E$, hence $P = PT_E + PT_{E'} = P_E + (PT_{E'})(I - P_E)$. Let us prove the inequality by induction:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{N+1} P^{n}f = f + P \sum_{n=0}^{N} P^{n}f$$

$$\leq f + P \sum_{n=0}^{N} P^{n}_{E}f$$

$$= f + (P_{E} + PT_{E'}(I - P_{E})) \sum_{n=0}^{N} P^{n}_{E}f$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{N+1} P^{n}_{E}f + PT_{E'}(f - P^{N+1}_{E}f).$$

Now $T_{E'}f = 0$ and the lemma follows.

COROLLARY. If P is ergodic and conservative then so is $T_E P_E$, hence $T_E P_E 1_E = 1_E$.

DEFINITION 7.2. A set E is called "special" if $\lambda(E) > 0$ and for every $A \subset E$ with $\lambda(A) > 0$ there exists an integer N = N(A) and a constant $\varepsilon = \varepsilon(A)$ where $\varepsilon > 0$ and

$$\sum_{n=0}^{N} P_{E}^{n} \mathbf{1}_{A} \geq \varepsilon \mathbf{1}_{E}.$$

By Lemma 7.1 and Theorem 6.2:

THEOREM 7.2. Let P be an ergodic Harris operator, then there exist special sets E_{κ} with $E_{\kappa} \uparrow X$.

THEOREM 7.3. Assume $\lambda(E) > 0$ and $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P^k \mathbf{1}_E(x) > 0$ at every point. If η is a finite measure such that $\eta = \eta T_E$ and $\eta = \eta T_E P_E$ then $\mu = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \eta (PT_E)^n$ is σ finite and satisfies $\mu P = \mu$.

REMARK. The assumption holds if P is ergodic and conservative.

Proof.

$$\mu P = \mu P T_E + \mu P T_{E'} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \eta (P T_{E'})^n P T_E + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \eta (P T_{E'})^n = \eta P_E + \mu - \eta = \mu$$

since $\eta P_E = \eta T_E P_E = \eta$.

Now $\int P^k 1_E d\mu = \int 1_E d\mu = \eta(E) = 1$, hence

$$\mu\left(\left\{x\colon P^{k}1_{E}(x)\geq\frac{1}{n}\right\}\right)<\infty$$

and μ is σ finite since $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P^k \mathbf{1}_E > 0$ implies

$$\bigcup_{k,n} \left\{ x \colon P^k 1_E(x) \ge \frac{1}{n} \right\} = X.$$

Note that $\mu T_E = \eta$.

The next result will be very useful in Section VIII.

THEOREM 7.4.

$$T_E - T_E P_E = (I - P) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (T_E, P)^n T_E$$

and

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (T_{E'}P)^n T_E 1 \leq 1.$$

Proof.

$$\sum_{n=0}^{N} (T_{E'}P)^{n} T_{E} 1 = T_{E} 1 + T_{E'} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} (PT_{E'})^{n} PT_{E} 1 \le T_{E} 1 + T_{E'} 1 \le 1.$$

Now

$$T_E \sum_{n=0}^{N} (PT_{E'})^n PT_E = (I - T_{E'}) P \sum_{n=0}^{N} (T_{E'} P)^n T_E$$
$$= P \sum_{n=0}^{N} (T_{E'} P)^n T_E - \sum_{n=1}^{N+1} (T_{E'} P)^n T_E$$

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$$= (P-I) \sum_{n=0}^{N} (T_{E'}P)^{n} T_{E} + T_{E} - (T_{E'}P)^{N+1} T_{E}.$$

Now $(T_{E'}P)^{N+1}T_{E}f \rightarrow 0$ for every $f \in L$ by the first part. Let $N \rightarrow \infty$ to conclude

$$T_E P_E = (P - I) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (T_{E'} P)^n T_E + T_E.$$

References. The definition of P_E and its use for finding a σ finite invariant measure were suggested by P. Halmos [8]. We followed here Harris [9] for Theorem 7.3. Theorem 7.4 was proved by S. Horowitz [11] and A. Brunel [1]. The notion of "special" sets was introduced in [17].

VIII. The Ornstein-Métivier-Brunel Theorem

Assumption 8.1. The operator P is ergodic and conservative and E is a special set for P.

REMARK. If P is an ergodic Harris operator then, by Theorem 7.2, we may choose E to be very close to X.

DEFINITION 8.1. $S = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (1/2^{n+1}) T_E P_E^n$ on $L_{\infty}(E, \Sigma_1, \lambda_1)$.

By the Corollary of Lemma 7.1, $S1_E = 1_E$.

LEMMA 8.1. Assume 8.1. If $A \subset E$ and $\lambda_1(A) > 0$ then $S1_A \ge \varepsilon 1_E$ where $\varepsilon = \varepsilon(A) > 0$.

PROOF. $S1_A \ge (1/2^N) \sum_{n=0}^N T_E P_E^n 1_A \ge (1/2^N) \varepsilon(A) 1_E$ if N = N(A), by Definition 7.2.

From the lemma follows that

$$\liminf \int S^n 1_A d\lambda_1 \ge \varepsilon(A) > 0.$$

Here we deviate from our custom and quote, but not prove, theorem B of chapter IV of [5], to conclude.

There exists a finite invariant measure η , for S.

Now $\eta = \eta T_E$ and

$$0 = \eta (T_E - S) = \left[\eta \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} (T_E + \dots + T_E P_E^{n-1}) \right] (T_E - T_E P_E),$$

thus by replacing η by the term in brackets we may and shall assume

(*)
$$\eta = \eta T_E = \eta T_E P_E = \eta S$$
 and η is finite.

Put $\mu = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \eta (PT_{E'})^n$ and recall Theorem 7.3.

(**) $0 \leq \mu$ is σ finite, $\mu P = \mu$ and $\mu T_E = \eta$.

Let us improve Lemma 8.1.

LEMMA 8.2. Assume 8.1. There exists a constant $\alpha > 0$ such that if $A \subset E$ and $\lambda_1(A) \ge 1 - \alpha$ then $S1_A \ge \alpha 1_E$.

PROOF. Assume, to the contrary, that for each $j \ge 2$ we may find a set $A_j \subset E$ with $\lambda_1(A_j) \ge 1 - 1/2^j$ but $S1_{A_j}(x) < 1/2^j$ on the set B_j with $\lambda_1(B_j) > 0$. Now $\sum_{j=2}^{\infty} \lambda_1(A'_j) \le \frac{1}{2}$ so if $A = \bigcap_{j=2}^{\infty} A_j$ then $\lambda_1(A) > \frac{1}{2}$, but $S1_A(x) \le S1_{A_j}(x) \le 1/2^j$ if $x \in B_j$, which contradicts Lemma 8.

For the next few results we shall refer to the Harris decomposition of S^n on $L_{\infty}(E, \Sigma_1, \lambda_1)$.

DEFINITION 8.2. The Harris decomposition is denoted by

$$S^n = T_n + U_n$$

where T_n is the maximal integral kernel and all operators are on $L_{\infty}(E, \Sigma_1, \lambda_1)$.

LEMMA 8.3. Assume 8.1, then $T_1 1_E \ge \frac{1}{2} \alpha 1_E$.

PROOF. Let $K_0 f(x) = \int f(y)\lambda(dy)$ then, by Lemma 5.1 part (1), $S \wedge K_0$ is an integral kernel dominated by S, thus

$$T_1 1_E \geq (S \wedge K_0) 1_E \geq Sg + \int (1-g) d\lambda_1$$

if $0 \le g \le 1_E$. Let $A = \{x : g(x) \ge \frac{1}{2}\} \cap E$. Then $g \ge \frac{1}{2}1_A$ and on $A', 1 - g > \frac{1}{2}$ so $T_1 1_E \ge \frac{1}{2}S 1_A + \frac{1}{2}\lambda_1(A')$. If $\lambda_1(A') \ge \alpha$ then $T_1 1_E \ge \alpha/2$, while if $\lambda_1(A') < \alpha$ then $\lambda_1(A) \ge 1 - \alpha$ and $T_1 1_E \ge \frac{1}{2}S 1_A \ge \frac{1}{2}\alpha 1_E$ by Lemma 8.2.

LEMMA 8.4. Assume 8.1, then $T_2 1_A(x) \ge \frac{1}{2} \varepsilon(A) \alpha 1_E(x)$ outside of a fixed set (independent of A) of measure zero.

PROOF. By Lemma 5.5, we have at every point

$$T_2 \mathbf{1}_A(x) \geq T_1(S \mathbf{1}_A)(x) \geq \varepsilon(A) T_1 \mathbf{1}_E(x).$$

Apply now Lemma 8.3.

LEMMA 8.5. Assume 8.1. If k_2 is the density of T_2 then $k_2 > 0$ a.e. λ^2 .

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PROOF. Assume, to the contrary, that $\lambda^2(F) > 0$ where $F = \{(x, y): k_2(x, y) = 0\}$. Then $\lambda(F_x) > 0$ $(F_x = \{y: (x, y) \in F\})$ for a set of x's of positive measure. Thus $T_{21_{F_x}}(x) = 0$ on a set of positive measure which contradicts Lemma 8.4.

Denote for $x \in E$ and $y \in E$

$$f_k(x) = \lambda_1\left(\left\{z : k_2(x, z) \ge \frac{1}{k}\right\}\right),$$
$$g_k(y) = \lambda_1\left(\left\{z : k_2(z, y) \ge \frac{1}{k}\right\}\right).$$

Now

$$1 = \lambda_1^2(E \times E) = \int \lambda_1(\{z : k_2(x, z) > 0\})\lambda_1(dx)$$

so $\lambda_1(\{z: k_2(x, z) > 0\}) = 1$ for almost all x. Thus $f_k(x) \uparrow 1$ a.e. and similarly $g_k(y) \uparrow 1$ a.e. Hence:

LEMMA 8.6. There exists an integer k such that the sets $F = \{x : f_k(x) \ge 3/4\}$ and $G = \{y : g_k(y) \ge 3/4\}$ have positive measures.

If $x \in F$ and $y \in G$ then

$$\lambda\left(\left\{z: k_2(x, z) < \frac{1}{k}\right\} \cup \left\{z: k_2(z, y) < \frac{1}{k}\right\}\right) < \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

Thus

$$\lambda\left(\left\{z: k_2(x, z) \ge \frac{1}{k}\right\} \cap \left\{z: k_2(z, y) \ge \frac{1}{k}\right\}\right) > \frac{1}{2}$$

therefore

$$\int k_2(x, z) k_2(z, y) \lambda(dz) \geq \frac{1}{2k^2}$$

LEMMA 8.7. Assume 8.1. If k_4 is the density of T_4 then $k_4(x, y) \ge \beta 1_F(x) 1_G(y)$ where $\beta > 0$.

Proof.

$$k_4(x, y) \ge \int k_2(x, z) k_2(z, y) \lambda(dz) \ge \frac{1}{2k^2}$$
 if $x \in F$ and $y \in G$.

LEMMA 8.8. Assume 8.1. Let τ be the measure on Σ_1 given by $\tau(A) = \beta \varepsilon(F) \lambda_1(G \cap A)$ then for every $0 \leq g \in L_{\infty}$

$$S^5g \geq \int gd\tau.$$

PROOF. $S^{5}g \ge ST_{4}g \ge S(\beta \int_{G} gd\lambda_{1}1_{F})$ by Lemma 8.7. Now, by Lemma 8.1, $S1_{F} \ge \varepsilon(F)1_{E}$ or $S^{5}g \ge \beta\varepsilon(F)\int_{G} gd\lambda_{1}$ but $\int_{G} gd\lambda_{1} = \int gd\tau$.

We may use now the Corollary to Theorem 4.3.

THEOREM 8.9. Assume 8.1 and put $Vf = \int_E f d\mu = \int_E f d\eta$ (as defined in (*) and (**)) then

$$\lim \|S^n - V\| = 0.$$

Moreover there exists an integer n such that

$$\left\{f: f \in L_{\infty}(X), f \text{ supported on } E \text{ and } \int f d\mu = 0\right\} \subset \operatorname{Range}(T_E - S^n).$$

PROOF. We need to prove the second part only. Let $||S^n - V|| < 1$. The operator $T_E - V$ is a projection of $L_{\infty}(E)$ onto $\{f: f \in L_{\infty}(E) \text{ and } \int f d\mu = 0\}$ and it commutes with S, thus the range of $T_E - V$ is invariant under S and the norm of S^n restricted to this range is smaller than 1. Thus $T_E - S^n$ is invertible on $\{f: f \in L_{\infty}(E) \text{ and } \int f d\mu = 0\}$.

Note now

Range
$$(T_E - S^n) \subset$$
 Range $(T_E - S)$:
 $T_E - S^n = (T_E - S)(T_E + S + \dots + S^{n-1}).$

Also

 $\operatorname{Range}(T_E - S) \subset \operatorname{Range}(T_E - T_E P_E)$:

$$T_E - S = (T_E - T_E P_E) \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} (T_E + \cdots + T_E P_E^{n-1}).$$

Finally, by Theorem 7.4,

$$\operatorname{Range}(T_E - T_E P_E) \subset \operatorname{Range}(I - P).$$

Now if $f \in \text{Range}(I - P)$ then f = (I - P)h for some $h \in L_{\infty}$ and

$$\left|\sum_{n=0}^{N} P^{n} f\right| = \left|h - P^{N+1}h\right| \leq 2 \|h\|.$$

Thus

THEOREM 8.10 (Ornstein-Métivier-Brunel Theorem). Assume 8.1 and let μ be the invariant σ finite measure of P which is finite on E (as in (**)). If $f \in L_{\infty}(X)$ and is supported on E and $\int fd\mu = 0$ then $|\sum_{n=0}^{N} P^{n}f| \leq \text{const} < \infty$. HARRIS OPERATORS

References. Results similar to Lemma 8.8 (and previous lemmas) were proved by Orey [18] and Neveu [17]. Theorem 8.10 was proved for random walks by Ornstein [11]. Métivier extended this result to Harris operators in [14]; he did not use special sets but a more restrictive class. The general result was proved by Brunel [1]. A very elegant proof, using the notion of quasicompact operators, was given by Horowitz [12]. Another presentation is given in [2]. In [7] Ghoussoub showed that the special sets are the largest class for which the Theorem holds.

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