

## Some Problems of Large Deviations

S. R. S. Varadhan

**1. Introduction.** The problem of large deviations arises naturally in probability theory in different contexts. We shall first look at some typical examples.

If  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n, \dots$  is a sequence of independent and identically distributed random variables with mean zero, then for any  $a > 0$

$$(1.1) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P \left[ \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n} \geq a \right] = 0$$

by the law of large numbers. Under the assumption that for every real  $\theta$

$$M(\theta) = E[e^{\theta X_1}] < \infty$$

Cramér [3] showed that the probability in (1.1) has the specific behavior:

$$(1.2) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ P \left[ \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n}{n} \geq a \right] \right\}^{1/n} = \varrho_a$$

exists and is given by

$$\varrho_a = \inf_{\theta \geq 0} M(\theta) e^{-\theta a}.$$

For the second example we consider the process  $x_\varepsilon(t) = \varepsilon \beta(t)$  defined in the time interval  $0 \leq t \leq 1$ , where  $\beta(\cdot)$  is the standard one-dimensional Brownian motion. We denote by  $P_\varepsilon$  the measure corresponding to  $x_\varepsilon(t)$ , which lives on the space  $C_0[0, 1]$  of continuous functions vanishing at  $t=0$ . As  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ ,  $x_\varepsilon(t)$  tends to the zero function uniformly and therefore

$$(1.3) \quad \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} P_\varepsilon(A) = 0$$

for sets  $A$  that are disjoint from some neighborhood of the zero function. One can again show that for a large class of sets  $A \subset C_0[0, 1]$

$$(1.4) \quad \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} 2\varepsilon^2 \log P_\varepsilon(A) = -h(A)$$

exists where

$$(1.5) \quad h(A) = \inf_{f \in A} \int_0^1 [f'(t)]^2 dt$$

and the infimum is taken over absolutely continuous functions in  $f$  in  $A$  with a square integrable derivative. Such a result in a slightly different form can be found in [14].

For the third example we will consider a Markov chain on a finite state space  $X$  and transition probabilities  $\pi_{ij}$ . For simplicity we shall assume that  $\pi_{ij} > 0$  for all  $i$  and  $j$ . Let  $\vec{q} = \{q_i\}$  be the unique invariant probability vector. If  $X_0, X_1, \dots, X_n, \dots$  is a realization of the Markov chain, we denote by  $f_i^{(n)}$  the frequency of occurrence of the state  $i$  during the first  $n$  steps of the Markov chain and by  $p_i^{(n)}$  the proportion of visits to the state  $i$  during the same time. The vector  $\vec{p}^{(n)}$  with components  $\{p_i^{(n)}\}$  is a random probability distribution on  $X$  and is the empirical distribution based on the first  $n$  steps. By the ergodic theorem, for large values of  $n$ , the vector  $\vec{p}^{(n)}$  is close to the invariant probability vector  $\vec{q}$  with a very high probability. The theorem on large deviations states in this context that for suitable sets  $A$  in space of probability distributions on  $X$

$$(1.6) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log P\{\vec{p}^{(n)} \in A\} = -h(A)$$

exists, where

$$(1.7) \quad h(A) = \inf_{\vec{p} \in A} I(\vec{p})$$

and the function  $I(\vec{p})$  is defined for probability distributions  $\vec{p}$  on  $X$  by

$$(1.8) \quad I(\vec{p}) = - \inf_{u > 0} \sum_{i \in X} p_i \log \left( \frac{\sum_{j \in X} \pi_{ij} u_j}{u_i} \right)$$

where the infimum is taken over vectors  $u = \{u_i\}$  which have strictly positive components. The function  $I(\cdot)$ , while it is not explicit, is a nonnegative convex function of  $\vec{p}$  which vanishes only when  $\vec{p}$  equals the invariant probability  $\vec{q}$ .

The first example can be generalized by allowing the random variables to take values in more general linear spaces. The second can be generalized to cover processes  $x_\varepsilon(t)$  governed by stochastic differential equations of the form

$$dx_\varepsilon(t) = \varepsilon \sigma(x_\varepsilon(t)) d\beta(t) + b(x_\varepsilon(t)) dt,$$

$$x_\varepsilon(0) = x.$$

Actually one can even combine the two classes in a single large class of problems of large deviations for Markov processes. See for instance [15]–[20], [1], [2], and [13].

As I am hoping that Professor Ventcel will cover this ground in some detail I shall proceed to a discussion of the ideas connected with the third example.

**2. Large deviation for occupation times.** Let the state space  $X$  of the Markov chain be a complete separable metric space instead of a finite set. Let the transition probabilities be given by  $\pi(x, dy)$ . We shall denote by  $\pi$ , the corresponding operator on the space  $B(X)$  of bounded measurable functions on  $X$ , defined by

$$(2.1) \quad (\pi f)(x) = \int f(y)\pi(x, dy).$$

We denote by  $\mathcal{M}$  the space of all probability distributions on  $X$  and we will view  $\mathcal{M}$  as a complete separable metric space with weak convergence as the underlying convergence notion. We make the following assumptions on  $\pi(x, dy)$ .

(H1) (*Feller Property*). If  $f$  is bounded and continuous then so is  $\pi f$ .

(H2) (*Strong transitivity*). There is a reference measure  $\alpha(dy)$  on  $X$  such that  $\alpha(dy)$  and  $\pi(x, dy)$  are mutually absolutely continuous for every  $x \in X$ .

(The above condition can be relaxed somewhat.)

For  $\mu \in \mathcal{M}$  we define  $I(\mu)$  by

$$(2.2) \quad I(\mu) = - \inf_{u \in U} \int \log \left( \frac{\pi u}{u} \right) (x) \mu(dx)$$

where  $U$  consists of functions in the space  $C(X)$  of bounded continuous functions which have a positive lower bound. One can verify that  $I(\cdot)$  is a convex, nonnegative, lower semicontinuous functional on  $\mathcal{M}$  which vanishes only at invariant probability distributions. The chain of course may not possess an invariant probability distribution in which case  $I(\cdot)$  is never zero.

We shall denote by  $\omega$ , a realization  $X_0, X_1, \dots, X_n, \dots$  of the chain and by  $L_n(\omega, \cdot)$  the empirical distribution based on the first  $n$  steps

$$(2.3) \quad L_n(\omega, E) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n \chi_E(X_j), \quad E \subset X.$$

Fixing an arbitrary starting point  $x \in X$  for the chain we have the measure  $P_x$  corresponding to the process on the space  $\Omega$  of all possible realizations. One can view  $L_n(\cdot, \cdot)$  as a map of  $\Omega$  into  $\mathcal{M}$  and this induces a measure  $Q_{n,x}$  on  $\mathcal{M}$  which is the distribution of the empirical distribution. If  $A$  is a subset of  $\mathcal{M}$  then we are interested in the asymptotic behavior of  $Q_{n,x}(A)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . We have the following results:

If  $C \subset \mathcal{M}$  is compact, then

$$(2.4) \quad \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log Q_{n,x}[C] \leq - \inf_{\mu \in C} I(\mu).$$

If  $G \subset \mathcal{M}$  is open, then

$$(2.5) \quad \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \log Q_{n,x}[G] \geq - \inf_{\mu \in G} I(\mu).$$

The reason that (2.4) can be established only for compact sets is that we have no assumption of positive recurrence. Perhaps the measures  $Q_{n,x}$  are dissipative and (2.4) really measures the rate of dissipation. It is even possible that  $\inf_{\mu} I(\mu) > 0$  and in that case (2.4) cannot hold when  $C$  is taken to be the whole space  $\mathcal{M}$ . However when  $X$  is not compact, we can impose a strong positive recurrence condition that will enable us to prove (2.4) for closed sets.

There are continuous time analogs to these results for Markov processes  $x(t)$  with transition probabilities  $p(t, x, dy)$  on a state space  $X$ . We have the corresponding operators

$$(2.6) \quad (T_t f)(x) = \int f(y) p(t, x, dy)$$

we make the following assumptions regarding the semigroup  $\{T_t\}$ .

(H1\*)  $T_t$  maps the space of bounded continuous functions into itself.

(H2\*) There is a reference measure  $\alpha(dy)$  such that  $\alpha(dy)$  and  $p(t, x, dy)$  are mutually absolutely continuous for every  $t > 0$  and  $x \in X$ .

(H3\*) The strongly continuous center of the semigroup  $T_t$  is sufficiently large.

We denote by  $L$  the infinitesimal generator acting on the domain  $\mathcal{D} \subset C(X)$ . We denote by  $\mathcal{D}^+$  those functions in  $\mathcal{D}$  with a positive lower bound. We define the  $I$ -function as the analog of (2.2) by

$$(2.7) \quad I(\mu) = - \inf_{u \in \mathcal{D}^+} \int \left( \frac{Lu}{u} \right) (x) \mu(dx).$$

We look at the occupation distribution

$$(2.8) \quad L_t(\omega, E) = \frac{1}{t} \int_0^t \chi_E(x(s)) ds$$

as the analog of (2.3) and the distribution  $Q_{t,x}$  of  $L_t(\cdot, \cdot)$  as the analog of  $Q_{n,x}$ . We then have the exact analogs of (2.4) and (2.5).

For  $C$  compact in  $\mathcal{M}$ ,

$$(2.9) \quad \limsup_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{t} \log Q_{t,x}(C) \leq - \inf_{\mu \in C} I(\mu).$$

For  $G$  open in  $\mathcal{M}$ ,

$$(2.10) \quad \liminf_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{t} \log Q_{t,x}(G) \geq - \inf_{\mu \in G} I(\mu).$$

Again if  $X$  is not compact one can impose a strong recurrence condition and obtain (2.9) for closed sets instead of just compact sets.

If the transition probabilities  $p(t, x, dy)$  are such that they have a symmetric density with respect to the reference measure  $\alpha(dy)$  then the semigroup  $T_t$  is a family of self adjoint contractions in the Hilbert space of functions that are square integrable with respect to the measure  $\alpha(dy)$ . Then the infinitesimal generator  $L$  can be thought of as a nonpositive self adjoint operator. Therefore the operator  $\sqrt{-L}$  is well defined. In such a context one can show that  $I(\mu)$  is finite if and

only if  $\mu$  is absolutely continuous with respect to  $\alpha$  and the square integrable function  $(d\mu/d\alpha)^{1/2}$  is in the domain of  $\sqrt{-L}$ . In such a case

$$(2.11) \quad I(\mu) = \left\| \sqrt{-L} \left( \frac{d\mu}{d\alpha} \right)^{1/2} \right\|^2$$

where  $\| \cdot \|$  is the mean square norm with respect to  $\alpha$ . For the Brownian motion in  $R^d$  this becomes

$$(2.12) \quad I(f) = I(\mu) = \frac{1}{8} \int \frac{|\nabla f|^2}{f} dx = \frac{1}{2} \int |\nabla \sqrt{f}|^2 dx$$

where  $\mu(dx) = f(x) dx$ .

The details of these results can be found in [4], [5], [21].

**3. Connections with the principal eigenvalue.** Let us consider the case when  $X$  is compact. If  $x(t)$  is the Markov process corresponding to the generator  $L$  and  $I(\cdot)$  is the corresponding  $I$ -functional defined by (2.7) then one can show [see [15]] that

$$(3.1) \quad \begin{aligned} \lambda(V) &= \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{t} \log E_x \left[ \exp \left\{ \int_0^t V(x(s)) dx \right\} \right] \\ &= \sup_{\mu \in \mathcal{M}} \left[ \int V(x) \mu(dx) - I(\mu) \right] \end{aligned}$$

for all  $V \in C(X)$ . The quantity  $\lambda(V)$  can also be identified as the principal eigenvalue (i.e. the point in the spectrum with the largest real part) of the operator  $L + V$ . From the maximum principle for  $L$  one can conclude that  $\lambda(V)$  is a convex functional of  $V$  and  $I(\cdot)$  is its conjugate convex functional. This is the explanation of why  $I(\cdot)$  is readily computable in the self-adjoint case. The variational formula (3.1) in that case reduces to the classical Rayleigh–Ritz variational formula for the principal eigenvalue of self adjoint operators. See in this context [6] and [12].

**4. Applications.** If  $\beta(s)$  is the  $d$ -dimensional Brownian motion then the Wiener sausage  $C'_\varepsilon(\omega)$  for the trajectory  $\omega = \beta(\cdot)$  up to time  $t$  is the set

$$C'_\varepsilon(\omega) = \{y: \inf_{0 \leq s \leq t} |y - \beta(s)| \leq \varepsilon\}.$$

A problem that comes from statistical mechanics [11] is the behavior of

$$E[\exp \{-\nu |C'_\varepsilon(\omega)|\}]$$

where  $|A|$  stands for the Lebesgue measure of the set  $A$ . Using the techniques developed in the preceding section (see [7], [8]) one can show that

$$(4.1) \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{t^{d/(d+2)}} \log E[\exp \{-\nu |C'_\varepsilon(\omega)|\}] = -k(\nu, d)$$

exists and compute  $k(v, d)$  as

$$(4.2) \quad k(v, d) = \inf_{\substack{f \in L_1(R^d) \\ f \geq 0}} [v|x: f(x) > 0| + I(f)]$$

where  $I(f)$  is given by (2.12).

One can consider a random walk on the lattice  $Z^d$  in  $R^d$  of points with integral coordinates. If the distribution of the single step has mean zero and covariance identity then under mild irreducibility assumptions the number  $D(n)$  of distinct sites visited by the random walk in the first  $n$  steps can be shown to satisfy

$$(4.3) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^{d/(d+2)}} \log E [\exp \{-vD(n)\}] = -k(v, d)$$

where  $k(v, d)$  is again given by (4.2). There are analogs when the Brownian motion is replaced by a symmetric stable process (see [9] for details).

Another application is to derive laws of the iterated logarithm for local times. Let  $\omega = \beta(\cdot)$  be one dimensional Brownian motion. Let

$$l(t, y) = \int_0^t \delta(\beta(s) - y) ds$$

be the local time of the Brownian path as a function of  $t$  and  $y$ . We define

$$L(t, y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{t \log \log t}} l\left(t, y \sqrt{\frac{t}{\log \log t}}\right).$$

We can view  $L(t, y)$  as a random probability density on the line. One can show that the set of limit points of  $L(t, \cdot)$  as  $t \rightarrow \infty$  coincides as functions of  $y$  (in the topology of uniform convergence on compact sets) almost surely with the set of subprobability densities  $f(\cdot)$  satisfying

$$\int f(x) dx \leq 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{8} \int \frac{[f'(x)]^2}{f(x)} dx \leq 1.$$

These results and similar ones for certain stable processes can be found in [10].

**5. General remarks.** In the case of continuous time processes the  $I$ -functional plays the role of the Dirichlet integral to which it reduces in the self adjoint case. For instance  $G \subset X$  is an open set with compact closure and one is interested in the exponential decay rate of  $P_x[x(s) \in G, 0 \leq s \leq t]$  as  $t \rightarrow \infty$ . One can under mild conditions compute it as

$$\lambda(G) = \inf_{\substack{\mu \in \mathcal{M} \\ \mu(G)=1}} I(\mu).$$

There is a close connection, at least in spirit, to the theory developed by Lanford in [13] in the context of statistical mechanics.

If we start with a Markov process and reverse it in time using an invariant probability distribution then the new reversed Markov process has the same  $I$ -functional as the old one. It is an interesting question to examine how much information about the process can be recovered by a knowledge of its  $I$ -functional.

In case the process is transient one can consider the total occupation time i.e.

$$L(\omega, E) = \int_0^{\infty} \chi_E(x(s)) ds$$

which will be a  $\sigma$ -finite measure on the state space. The tail behavior of its distribution on the space of all  $\sigma$ -finite measures on the state space should again be related to the  $I$ -functional. The details of the connection are being currently worked out.

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COURANT INSTITUTE OF MATHEMATICAL SCIENCES  
NEW YORK UNIVERSITY  
NEW YORK, NEW YORK 10012, U.S.A.