# Approximate Verification of the Symbolic Dynamics of Markov Chains 

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#### Abstract

A finite state Markov chain $M$ is often viewed as a probabilistic transition system. An alternative view - which we follow here - is to regard $M$ as a (linear) transform operating on the set of probability distributions over its set of nodes (states) $\{1, \ldots, n\}$. The novel idea here is to discretize the probability value space $[0,1]$ into a finite set of intervals and symbolically represent a concrete probability distribution $\mu$ as a tuple of such intervals called a discretized distribution $D$. The $i^{t h}$ component of the discretized distribution $D$ representing $\mu$ will be the interval in which the probability assigned by $\mu$ to $i$ falls.

The set $\mathcal{D}$ of discrete distributions is finite and each trajectory, generated by repeated applications of $M$ to an initial distribution, will induce a unique infinite string in $\mathcal{D}^{\omega}$. Hence, given a set of initial distributions, the symbolic dynamics of $M$ will consist of a $\omega$-language $L_{M}$ over the finite alphabet $\mathcal{D}$. We investigate whether this symbolic dynamics of $M$ meets a specification given as a linear time temporal logic formula whose atomic propositions assert that the current probability of node $i$ falls in interval $d$.

Unfortunately, even for restricted Markov chains (for instance, irreducible and aperiodic chains), $L_{M}$ is not guaranteed to be a $\omega$-regular language. To get around this we develop the notion of $\epsilon$-approximation, based on the transient and long term behaviors of $M$. Our main results are that, one can effectively check whether (i) for each infinite word in $L_{M}$, at least one of its $\epsilon$ approximations satisfies the specification and (ii) for each infinite word in $L_{M}$ all its $\epsilon$-approximations satisfy the specification. These verification results are strong in that they apply to all finite state Markov chains. Further, the study of the symbolic dynamics of Markov chains initiated here is of independent interest and can potentially lead to other applications.


## I. Introduction

Finite state Markov chains are a fundamental model of probabilistic dynamical systems. They are well-understood [10], [20] and the formal verification of the dynamics of Markov chains is also well established [2]-[4], [7], [9], [11][14], [17], [23]. In a majority of these studies, the Markov chain is viewed a probabilistic transition system over its set of nodes, often called states in this context. The goal is to reason about the probability space generated by the paths of the transition system using probabilistic temporal logics such as $P C T L$ [4], [14], [17].

An alternative view - which we follow here- is to view the state space of the chain to be the set of probability distributions over the nodes of the chain. The Markov chain transforms (in a
linear fashion) a given probability distribution into a new one. Starting from a distribution $\mu$ one can iteratively apply $M$ to generate a trajectory consisting of a sequence of distributions. Given a set of initial distributions, one can study the properties of the set of trajectories generated by these distributions. Many interesting probabilistic dynamical properties of $M$ can be expressed through these two approaches but they are incomparable and complementary (see [6], [11]). Further, solutions to model checking in one approach (e.g. decidability of $P C T L$ ) will not translate into solutions in the other.

The novel idea we explore here is the symbolic dynamics of a Markov chain, whose concrete dynamics is represented by the sequences of probability distributions generated by a (possibly infinite) set of initial distributions. The main motivation for doing so is to avoid the complications -and the complexitycaused by numerically tracking sequences of probability distributions exactly. Further, in many applications such as the probabilistic behavior of biochemical networks, queuing systems or sensor networks, exact estimates of the distributions may neither be feasible nor necessary. To obtain the symbolic dynamics, we discretize the probability value space $[0,1]$ into a finite set of intervals $\mathcal{I}=\left\{\left[0, p_{1}\right),\left[p_{1}, p_{2}\right), \ldots,\left[p_{m}, 1\right]\right\}$. A probability distribution $\mu$ of $M$ over its set of nodes $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$ is then represented symbolically as a tuple of intervals $\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{n}\right)$ with $d_{i}$ being the interval in which $\mu(i)$ falls. Such a tuple of intervals which symbolically represents at least one probability distribution is called a discretized distribution. In general a discretized distribution will represent an infinite set of concrete distributions. In what follows, we will often identify a discretized distribution with the set of probability distributions it represents.

A simple but crucial fact is that the set of discretized distributions, denoted $\mathcal{D}$, is a finite set. Consequently, each trajectory generated by an initial probability distribution will uniquely induce a sequence over the finite alphabet $\mathcal{D}$. Hence the dynamics of $M$ can be studied in terms of a language over the alphabet $\mathcal{D}$. Our focus here will be on infinite behaviors. Consequently the main object of our study will be $L_{M}$, an $\omega$-language contained in $\mathcal{D}^{\omega}$.

To reason about the symbolic dynamics, we formulate a linear time temporal logic in which an atomic proposition
will assert "the current probability of the node $i$ lies in the interval $d$ ". The rest of the logic is obtained by closing under propositional connectives and the temporal modalities next and until in the usual way. We have chosen this simple temporal logic in order to highlight the main ideas. As we point out in Section III this logic can be considerably strengthened and consequently a rich variety of quantitative dynamical properties can be formulated. Our main results will easily extend to cover this strengthened version.
The key verification question is whether each sequence in $L_{M}$ is a model of a specification $\varphi$. If $L_{M}$ were to be a $\omega$ regular language then standard model checking techniques can be applied. Unfortunately, even for restricted Markov chains, this appears to be unlikely. To sketch the nature of the problem, let us assume that $M$ is irreducible and aperiodic (the precise definition is given in Section IV). This guarantees that $M$ has a unique stationary distribution $\mu_{f}$ (i.e. $\mu_{f} \cdot M=\mu_{f}$ ). Further, every trajectory will converge to $\mu_{f}$. However, if $\mu_{f}$ is a corner point of a discretized distribution, a trajectory can in general spiral towards $\mu_{f}$ while visiting the discretized distributions near $\mu_{f}$ in a fashion which is not ultimately periodic. This is illustrated in fig. 1. An algebraic cause of this phenomenon is that $M$ will typically have eigenvalues that are complex. Consequently, the angle by which a distribution is rotated by an application of $M$ will be a non-algebraic quantity. As a result, the exact order in which a trajectory visits the discretized distributions in the neighborhood $\mu_{f}$ is very hard to pin down.

We bypass this basic difficulty by constructing approximate solutions to our verification problem. We fix an approximation factor $\epsilon>0$ and show that each symbolic trajectory in $L_{M}$ will consist of a transient phase and a steady state phase. Further, if $\xi_{\mu}$ is the symbolic trajectory induced by the initial distribution $\mu$, then in the steady state phase, $\xi_{\mu}$ will cycle through a set of final classes of discretized distributions. These final classes will be determined by $M$, the initial distribution $\mu$ and $\epsilon$ but the number of such classes will depend only on $M$. Using this insight, we define the notion of an $\epsilon$-approximation of $\xi_{\mu}$ for $\epsilon>0$. Under our definition, if $\xi^{\prime} \in \mathcal{D}^{\omega}$ is an $\epsilon$-approximation of $\xi_{\mu}$ then $\xi^{\prime}$ will agree with $\xi_{\mu}$ during its transient phase; and for each $k$ in the steady state phase, $\xi^{\prime}(k)$ and $\xi_{\mu}(k)$ will be in the same final class. Due to the influence of $\epsilon$ on the final classes, this will have the consequence that $\xi_{\mu}(k)$ and $\xi^{\prime}(k)$ will be at most $\epsilon$-distance apart, for every $k$.
This leads to two interesting notions of $M \epsilon$-approximately meeting the specification $\varphi$. For convenience, we assume that the initial (potentially infinite) set of concrete distributions is represented by a discretized distribution $D_{i n}$.

1) ( $\left.M, D_{i n}\right) \epsilon$-approximately meets the specification $\varphi$ from below -denoted $\left.\left(M, D_{i n}\right)\right|_{\bar{\epsilon}} \varphi$ - iff for every $\mu \in D_{i n}$, there exists an $\epsilon$-approximation of $\xi_{\mu}$, which is a model of $\varphi$. ( $\xi_{\mu}$ is the symbolic trajectory induced by $\left.\mu\right)$.
2) $\left(M, D_{i n}\right) \epsilon$-approximately meets the specification $\varphi$ from above -denoted $\left(M, D_{i n}\right) \xlongequal{\epsilon}^{\epsilon} \varphi$ - iff for every $\mu \in D_{i n}$, every $\epsilon$-approximation of $\xi_{\mu}$ is a model of $\varphi$.
Our main results are that given $M, D_{i n}, \epsilon$ and $\varphi$, checking whether $\left(M, D_{i n}\right) \epsilon$-approximately satisfies $\varphi$ from below (above) can be effectively determined. We note that
$\left(M, D_{i n}\right){ }^{\epsilon} \varphi$ implies that $L_{M}$ itself meets the specification $\varphi$. On the other hand if it is not the case that $\left.\left(M, D_{i n}\right)\right|_{\epsilon} \varphi$ then we can conclude that $L_{M}$ does not meet the specification $\varphi$. The remaining case is when $\left.\left(M, D_{i n}\right)\right|_{\epsilon} \varphi$ but it is not the case that $\left(M, D_{i n}\right) \xlongequal{\epsilon}^{\epsilon} \varphi$. Then, we can decide to accept that $L_{M}$ meets the specification but only $\epsilon$-approximately. In many applications, this will be adequate. In case it is not, one can fix a smaller $\epsilon$ and, with minimal additional overhead, perform the two verification tasks again and attempt to obtain a definite answer to the question whether $L_{M}$ meets (exactly) the specification. Apart from these verification results, the notion of the symbolic dynamics of Markov chains we develop here is of independent interest and can lead to other applications. We discuss briefly one such application in the final section.

To conclude this introduction, we will often use basic results concerning Markov chains without an attribution. These results can be found in any standard text book on Markov chains; for instance [10], [20]. Finally, we do not address complexity issues in detail in order to keep the focus on the main ideas. However, many of our constructions can be optimized and we plan to explore complexity issues in our subsequent work.

## A. Related work

Symbolic dynamics is a classical topic in the theory of dynamical systems [19]. Most of the theory is based on the notion of shift sequences, with shifts of finite type playing an important role in coding theory [18]. Here, instead, we focus on the symbolic dynamics from a formal verification standpoint.

Our discretization quotients the infinite set of probability distributions into a finite set of discretized distributions. In spirit, this is similar to bisimulation relations of finite index studied in the theory of timed automata [1] (using the notion of regions or zones) and in the theory of hybrid automata [15]. There are however two crucial differences. In our setting there are no resets involved and there is just one mode, namely the linear transform $M$, driving the dynamics. On the other hand, for timed automata and hybrid automata one succeeds in obtaining finite index bisimulations only in cases where the dynamics of the variables are decoupled from each other. In our setting this is naturally a deal breaker. Consequently the symbolic dynamics we explore is delicately poised between "too coupled to analyze by using bisimulations of finite index", and "expressive enough to lead to undecidability".

Viewing a Markov chain as a transform of probability distributions and carrying out formal verification of the resulting dynamics has been explored previously in [7], [11], [13]. In fact, the work reported in [7], [11] deals with MDPs (Markov Decison Processes) instead of Markov chains. However by considering the degenerate case where the MDP accesses just one Markov chain we can still compare our work with theirs. Firstly [7], [11], [13] consider only one initial distribution and hence just one trajectory needs to be analyzed. It is difficult to see how their results can be extended to handle multiple initial distributions of the kind we consider. Secondly, they study only irreducible and aperiodic Markov chains. In contrast we consider the class of all Markov chains. Last but not least,
they impose the drastic restriction that the unique fix point of the irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain is an interior point w.r.t. the discretization implicitly induced by the specification. In [7], a similar restriction is imposed in a slightly more general setting. Since the fix point is determined solely by the Markov chain and has nothing to do with the specification, this does not seem a natural restriction. Naturally when such a restriction is imposed in our setting, we can also easily obtain an exact solution to our model checking problem.

Finally, intervals of probabilities have been considered previously in a number of settings [21], [24]. The ambitious goal in these studies is to generalize the classical theory of additive probability measures to intervals of probability values. Our aim here are more modest in that we just want to use probability intervals to derive the symbolic dynamics.

## B. Plan of the paper

In the next section, we define the notion of discretized distributions and the symbolic dynamics of Markov chains. In Section III, we introduce our temporal logic, discuss how it can be extended and formulate our main results. In Section IV, we describe the constructions for irreducible and aperiodic Markov chains; and in Section V-A for the irreducible but periodic case. In order to bring out the main technical issues, in both these sections we allow just one initial concrete distribution. In Section V-B, we extend the two previous constructions to an (infinite) set of initial concrete distributions. Finally in Section VI, we remove all the restrictions. A summary and future directions are presented in the concluding section.

## II. Discretized Distributions

Through the rest of the paper we fix a finite set $\mathcal{X}=$ $\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. We refer to members of $\mathcal{X}$ as nodes and let $i$, $j$ range over $\mathcal{X}$. A probability distribution over $\mathcal{X}$, is as usual a map $\mu: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow[0,1]$ such that $\sum_{i} \mu(i)=1$. Henceforth we shall refer to a probability distribution over $\mathcal{X}$ as a distribution and sometimes as a concrete distribution. As emphasized in the introduction, we shall view a Markov chain as a linear transformation of distributions. Hence a Markov chain $M$ over $\mathcal{X}$ will be represented as an $n \times n$ matrix with nonnegative entries satisfying $\sum_{j} M(i, j)=1$ for each $i$. Thus, if the system is currently residing in the node $i$, then $M(i, j)$ is the probability of it being in $j$ in the next time instant. We will say that $M$ transforms $\mu$ into $\mu^{\prime}$, if $\mu \cdot M=\mu^{\prime}$. Note that a distribution is represented as a row vector and the (matrix) multiplication is from the left since $M(i, j)$ denotes the probability of going from $i$ to $j$.

We fix a partition of $[0,1]$ into a finite set $\mathcal{I}$ of intervals and call it a discretization. We let $d, d^{\prime}$ etc. with or without subscripts to range over $\mathcal{I}$. Let $D: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{I}$. Then $D$ is said to be a discretized distribution iff there exists a concrete distribution $\mu$ such that $\mu(i) \in D(i)$ for every $i$. We denote by $\mathcal{D}$ the set of discretized distributions, and let $D, D^{\prime}$ etc. with or without subscripts range over $\mathcal{D}$. We shall often call a discretized distribution a $\mathcal{D}$-distribution. We will also often write $D$ as an $n$-tuple $D=\left(d_{1}, d_{2}, \ldots, d_{n}\right)$ with $D(i)=d_{i}$ for each $i$.

As an example, suppose $n=3$ and $\mathcal{I}=\{[0,0.2),[0.2,0.4)$, $[0.4,0.7),[0.7,1]\}$. Then $([0.2,0.4),[0.2,0.4),[0.4,0.7)$ ) is a $\mathcal{D}$-distribution since for the distribution $(0.25,0.25,0.5)$ we have $0.25 \in[0.2,0.4)$ while $0.5 \in[0.4,0.7)$. On the other hand, neither $([0,0.2),[0,0.2),[0.2,0.4)$ ) nor $([0.4,0.7),[0.4,0.7),[0.7,1])$ are $\mathcal{D}$-distributions.

We have fixed a single discretization and applied it to each dimension to reduce notational clutter. In applications, to reduce complexity, it could be useful fix a different discretization for each dimension (e.g. $\mathcal{I}_{i}=\{[0,1]\}$ for a "don't care" $i$ ). Our results will still go through easily for this extension.

A concrete distribution $\mu$ can be abstracted as a $\mathcal{D}$ distribution $D$ via the map $\Gamma$ given by: $\Gamma(\mu)=D$ iff $\mu(i) \in D(i)$ for every $i$. The map $\Gamma$ is well-defined since $\mathcal{I}$ is a partition of $[0,1]$. Further $\mathcal{D}$ is non-empty and finite. For each $\mathcal{D}$-distribution $D$, we define $\mathcal{C}_{D}=\{\mu \mid \Gamma(\mu)=D\}$. Abusing notation, we will often write $\mu \in D$ (or $\mu$ is in $D$ etc) instead of $\mu \in \mathcal{C}_{D}$.

We focus on infinite behaviors. With suitable modifications, all our results can be specialized to finite behaviors as well. A trajectory of $M$ is an infinite sequence of concrete distributions $\mu_{0} \mu_{1} \ldots$ such that $\mu_{l} \cdot M=\mu_{l+1}$ for every $l \geq 0$. It is worth emphasizing that we are viewing $M$ as a dynamical system whose state space is the set of probability distributions over $\mathcal{X}$. Thus our notion of a trajectory is the standard one used in the theory of dynamical systems. We let $T R J_{M}$ denote the set of trajectories of $M$ and will often drop the subscript $M$. As usual for $\rho \in T R J$ with $\rho=\mu_{0} \mu_{1} \ldots$, we shall view $\rho$ as map from $\{0,1, \ldots\}$ into the set of distributions such that $\rho(l)=\mu_{l}$ for every $l$. We will follow a similar convention for members of $\mathcal{D}^{\omega}$, the set of infinite sequences over $\mathcal{D}$. Each trajectory induces uniquely an infinite sequence of $\mathcal{D}$-distributions via $\Gamma$. More precisely, we define $\Gamma^{\omega}: T R J \rightarrow \mathcal{D}^{\omega}$ as $\Gamma^{\omega}(\rho)=\xi$ iff $\Gamma(\rho(\ell))=\xi(\ell)$ for every $\ell$. In what follows we will write $\Gamma^{\omega}$ as just $\Gamma$.

We wish to study the symbolic dynamics of $M$, given an initial set of concrete distributions. One can choose a number of different mechanisms for specifying this set. For convenience we let a single $\mathcal{D}$-distribution $D_{\text {in }}$ denote the set of initial concrete distributions, namely, $\left\{\mu \mid \Gamma(\mu)=D_{i n}\right\}$.


Fig. 1. A concrete and symbolic trajectory in the 3-dimensional space wrto. the discretization $\left\{d_{1}=[0,0.5), d_{2}=[0.5,1]\right\}$ (projected onto the $x, y$ plane, with values in $x, y$ and $z$.)

Since $D_{i n}$ will in general contain an infinite set of concrete distributions, this is not very restrictive. Further, our results will at once extend to a set of $\mathcal{D}$-distributions as initial distributions. In the concluding section, we point to other means of specifying the set of initial distributions.

We now define $L_{M, D_{i n}}=\left\{\xi \in \mathcal{D}^{\omega} \mid \exists \rho \in T R J_{M}, \rho(0) \in\right.$ $\left.D_{i n}, \Gamma(\rho)=\xi\right\}$. We view $L_{M, D_{i n}}$ to be the symbolic dynamics of the system $\left(M, D_{i n}\right)$ and sometimes refer to its members as $\mathcal{D}$-trajectories or symbolic trajectories. Since $D_{\text {in }}$ will be fixed and clear from the context, from now on we will write $L_{M}$ instead of $L_{M, D_{i n}}$.

Given $\left(M, D_{i n}\right)$, our goal is to specify and verify properties of the $\omega$-language $L_{M}$. If $L_{M}$ were to be an $\omega$-regular subset of $\mathcal{D}^{\omega}$ then well-established techniques can be brought to bear on this problem. Unfortunately this is unlikely to be the case, even for restricted Markov chains, as explained in the introduction. Our present conjecture is that $L_{M}$ is not a $\omega$ regular language in general. In light of this, we shall develop a pragmatic approximate method to solve verification problems concerning $L_{M}$ without placing any restrictions on $M$. As it will turn out, our method will often yield exact results.

## III. THE VERIFICATION PROBLEM

We shall formulate here a linear time temporal logic for a Markov chain $M$ that is accompanied by a discretization $\mathcal{I}$.

Our linear time temporal logic is denoted $L T L_{\mathcal{I}}$. The set of atomic propositions $A P$ is given by: $A P=\{\langle i, d\rangle \mid 1 \leq i \leq$ $n, d \in \mathcal{I}\}$. The formulas of $L T L_{\mathcal{I}}$ are:

- Every atomic proposition is a formula.
- If $\varphi$ and $\varphi^{\prime}$ are formulas then so are $\sim \varphi$ and $\varphi \vee \varphi^{\prime}$.
- If $\varphi$ is a formula then $O \varphi$ is also a formula.
- If $\varphi$ and $\varphi^{\prime}$ are formulas then $\varphi U \varphi^{\prime}$ is also a formula.

The atomic proposition $\langle i, d\rangle$ asserts that if the current discretized distribution of $M$ is $D$ then $D(i)=d$. This in turn means that if the current concrete distribution of $M$ is $\mu$ then $\mu(i) \in d$. The derived connectives of propositional logic such as $\wedge, \supset$ and $\equiv$ are defined in the usual way as also the unary modality $\diamond$ via $\diamond(\varphi)=t t U \varphi$ where $t t$ is the constant that always evaluates to "true". We will then also have $\square(\varphi)=\sim(\diamond(\sim \varphi))$.

The semantics of the logic is given by the satisfaction relation $\xi, l \models \varphi$ where $\xi \in \mathcal{D}^{\omega}, l \geq 0$ and $\varphi$ is a formula. This notion is defined inductively via:

- $\xi, l \models\langle i, d\rangle$ iff $\xi(l)(i)=d$
- The propositional connectives $\sim$ and $\vee$ are interpreted in the usual way.
- $\xi, l \models O \varphi$ iff $\xi, l+1 \models \varphi$
- $\xi, l \models \varphi U \varphi$ iff there exists $k \geq l$ such that $\xi, k \models \varphi^{\prime}$ and $\xi, l^{\prime} \models \varphi$ for $l \leq l^{\prime}<k$.
We say that $\xi$ is a model of $\varphi$ iff $\xi, 0 \models \varphi$. As usual, $L_{\varphi}$ is the set of models of $\varphi$. In what follows, for a distribution $\mu$ we let $\rho_{\mu}$ denote the trajectory in $T R J$ which satisfies: $\rho(0)=\mu$. We let $\xi_{\mu}$ be the symbolic trajectory generated by $\mu$. In other words, $\xi_{\mu}=\Gamma\left(\rho_{\mu}\right)$.

The model checking problem we wish to solve is the following. We are given a finite state Markov chain M, a discretization $\mathcal{I}$ and a specification as the $L T L_{\mathcal{I}}$-formula $\varphi$.

We are also given a set of initial distributions presented as a $\mathcal{D}$-distribution $D_{i n}$. We shall say that $\left(M, D_{i n}\right)$ meets the specification $\varphi$-and this is denoted $M, D_{\text {in }} \models \varphi$ - iff $\xi_{\mu} \in L_{\varphi}$ for every $\mu \in D_{\text {in }}$ (iff $L_{M} \subseteq L_{\varphi}$ ).

## A. Extensions to the logic

Before we proceed to consider the solution to the model checking problem defined above, we discuss briefly the expressive power of our logic and how it can be extended.

We can assert that current $\mathcal{D}$-distribution is $D$ via the (propositional) formula $\bigwedge_{i}(i, D(i))$. Hence we can assert $D$ will appear infinitely often $\left(\square \diamond \bigwedge_{i}(i, D(i))\right)$ or only finitely often $\left(\diamond \square \sim \bigwedge_{i}(i, D(i))\right)$ along a symbolic trajectory. For a subset $\mathcal{D}^{\prime}$ of $\mathcal{D}$ we can assert that the set of $\mathcal{D}$-distributions that appear infinitely is precisely $\mathcal{D}^{\prime}$, (i.e., $\diamond \square \bigvee_{D \in \mathcal{D}^{\prime}} D$ ).

We can classify members of $\mathcal{I}$ as representing "low" and "high" probabilities. For example, if $\mathcal{I}$ contains 10 intervals each of length 0.1 , we can declare the first two intervals as "low" and the last two intervals as "high". In this case we can form assertions such as "whenever the probability of $i$ is high, the probability of $j$ must be low" $\left(\square\left(\left(i, d_{9}\right) \vee\left(i, d_{10}\right)\right) \supset\right.$ $\left.\left(\left(j, d_{1}\right) \vee\left(j, d_{2}\right)\right)\right)$.

We can also considerably extend the expressive power of the atomic propositions and hence that of the logic. We can do so by letting an atomic proposition to be a suitable sentence taken from the first order theory of reals, which is known to be decidable [22]. To start with, we can define the $n$-place predicate $\operatorname{dist}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ to assert that $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ is a concrete distribution. We just have to say that each $x_{i}$ is non-negative and that $\sum_{i} x_{i}=1$. We can say that the distribution $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ is in the $\mathcal{D}$-distribution $D$ by asserting $x_{i} \in D(i)$ for each $i$. To be precise, $x_{i} \in D(i)$ is an abbreviation for $\left(l \leq x_{i}\right) \wedge\left(x_{i}<r\right)$ if $D(i)=[l, r)$ and similarly for the case where $D(i)=[l, r]$. We can next form an arbitrary sentence $\psi$ expressing a polynomial constraint over $\left\{x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right\}$ saying that the distribution $\operatorname{dist}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ satisfies $\psi$. Finally, we can assert that every concrete distribution in $D$ satisfies $\psi$. For instance with $n=4$ we can say that for every distribution $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ in $D$, it is the case that $2\left(x_{1}+x_{2}\right)<3\left(x_{3}+x_{4}\right)^{2}$. More to the point, we can define $E\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=\sum_{i} x_{i} \cdot i$ and assert that "eventually, the expected value will always lie in the interval $(2,3.5]$ ". In actual applications, instead of the abstract node set $\mathcal{X}$ we will have a vector of variables associated with each node and these variables will denote the values of entities such as temperature, pressure, queue lengths, concentration levels of molecular species etc. Hence a rich set of quantitative properties can be captured by the atomic propositions and the time evolution of these quantities and their relationships can be captured by the temporal modalities.

The key point is that the approximate solution to the model checking problem we develop will go through in this extended setting. Hence it is merely for notational convenience we present our results in the simple setting of $L T L_{\mathcal{I}}$.

## B. The approximate model checking problem

As pointed out earlier, $L_{M}$ is not known to be $\omega$-regular and seems unlikely to be so except in special cases. Hence
an explicit solution to this model checking problem is out of reach for the general class of finite state Markov chains. Consequently we seek an approximate solution. Our notion of approximation will be sharply guided by the structure of the symbolic dynamics of the Markov chain. To make this connection, we shall first summarize the main features of the symbolic dynamics developed in the subsequent sections.

We fix an approximation parameter $\epsilon>0$. We expect $\epsilon$ to be a small fraction of the length of an interval in $\mathcal{I}$. A crucial notion is that of an $\epsilon$-neighborhood. We first use the $L_{1}$ norm to define the distance $\Delta$ between two distributions $\mu$ and $\mu^{\prime}$ as: $\Delta\left(\mu, \mu^{\prime}\right)=\sum_{i}\left|\mu(i)-\mu^{\prime}(i)\right|$. We say that a distribution $\mu$ is $\epsilon$-close to $\mu^{\prime}$, if $\Delta\left(\mu, \mu^{\prime}\right) \leq \epsilon$. The $\epsilon$-neighborhood of the distribution $\mu$ is denoted as $\mathcal{N}_{\epsilon}(\mu)$ and is given by: $D \in \mathcal{N}_{\epsilon}(\mu)$ iff there exists $\mu^{\prime} \in D$ such that $\Delta\left(\mu, \mu^{\prime}\right) \leq \epsilon$. We next define $\mathcal{F} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$ to be an $\epsilon$-neighborhood iff there exists a distribution $\mu$ such that $\mathcal{N}_{\epsilon}(\mu)=\mathcal{F}$. The main feature of the symbolic dynamics that we shall establish in the subsequent sections can now be summarized as follows.

Lemma 1: Let $M$ be a Markov chain, and $\epsilon>0$ be an approximation factor. Then, there exists (i) a positive integer $\theta$ that depends only on $M$ (ii) a positive integer $K^{\epsilon}$ that depends only on $M$ and $\epsilon$ and (iii) an ordered family of $\epsilon$-neighborhoods $\left\{\mathcal{F}_{\mu, 0}, \mathcal{F}_{\mu, 1}, \ldots, \mathcal{F}_{\mu, \theta-1}\right\}$ - called the final classes of $\mu$ s.t., for every $k>K^{\epsilon}, \xi_{\mu}(k) \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu,(k \bmod \theta)}$, where $\xi_{\mu}$ is the symbolic trajectory generated by $\mu$.

Thus, there will be a transient phase of length at most $K^{\epsilon}$ followed by a steady state phase in which $\xi_{\mu}$ will cycle through the $\epsilon$-neighborhood families $\left\{\mathcal{F}_{\mu, 0}, \mathcal{F}_{\mu, 2}, \ldots, \mathcal{F}_{\mu, \theta-1}\right\}$ forever. Note however that the exact member of $\mathcal{F}_{\mu, m}$ which will be hit at each time is hard to characterize in a finitary manner.

Now, let $\mu$ be a distribution, and $\xi^{\prime} \in \mathcal{D}^{\omega}$. Then we will say that $\xi^{\prime}$ is an $\epsilon$-approximation of $\xi_{\mu}$ iff the following conditions are satisfied:

- $\xi^{\prime}(k)=\xi_{\mu}(k)$ for $0 \leq k \leq K^{\epsilon}$.
- For every $k>K^{\epsilon}, \xi^{\prime}(k)$ belongs to $\mathcal{F}_{\mu,(k \bmod \theta)}$, where $\left\{\mathcal{F}_{\mu, 0}, \mathcal{F}_{\mu, 2}, \ldots, \mathcal{F}_{\mu, \theta-1}\right\}$ is the set of final classes of $\mu$.
Notice that every $\xi_{\mu}$ is an $\epsilon$-approximation of itself. We can now formalize the approximate model checking problem.

Definition 1: Let $M$ be a Markov chain, $D_{i n}$ an initial set of distributions, $\epsilon>0$ an approximation factor and $\varphi \in L T L_{\mathcal{I}}$ :

1) $\left(M, D_{i n}\right) \epsilon$-approximately meets the specification $\varphi$ from below, and this is denoted as $M,\left.D_{\text {in }}\right|_{\bar{\epsilon}} \varphi$, iff for every $\mu \in D_{i n}$, it is the case that $\xi^{\prime} \in L_{\varphi}$ for some $\epsilon$ approximation $\xi^{\prime}$ of $\xi_{\mu}$.
2) $\left(M, D_{i n}\right) \epsilon$-approximately meets the specification $\varphi$ from above, and this is denoted as $M, D_{i n} \xlongequal{\epsilon}^{\epsilon} \varphi$, iff for every $\mu \in D_{i n}$, it is the case that $\xi^{\prime} \in L_{\varphi}$ for every $\epsilon$ approximation $\xi^{\prime}$ of $\xi_{\mu}$.
The two notions of approximate satisfaction yield valuable information about exact satisfaction as follows.

Lemma 2: Let $M$ be a Markov Chain, $\epsilon>0$ and $\varphi$ be a property. Then

1) $\left(M, D_{i n}\right) \stackrel{\epsilon}{\models} \varphi \Longrightarrow\left(M, D_{i n}\right) \models \varphi$, and
2) $\left(M, D_{\text {in }}\right) \not \models \varphi \Longrightarrow\left(M, D_{\text {in }}\right) \not \vDash \varphi$.

Proof: Both parts follow easily from the observation that each $\xi_{\mu}$ is an $\epsilon$-approximation of itself. To see this, assume
$\left(M, D_{i n}\right) \stackrel{\epsilon}{\models} \varphi$ and let $\xi_{\mu} \in L_{M}$ with $\mu \in D_{i n}$. Since every $\epsilon$-approximation of $\xi_{\mu}$ is in $L_{\varphi}, \xi_{\mu} \in L_{\varphi}$ as well. On the other hand if $\left(M, D_{i n}\right)$ does not meet the specification $\varphi$ from below, then for some $\mu \in D_{i n}$, no $\epsilon$-approximation of $\xi_{\mu}$ is a model of $\varphi$. In particular, $\xi_{\mu}$ is not a model of $\varphi$ and hence $\left(M, D_{\text {in }}\right) \not \models \varphi$.

Our main result is:
Theorem 1: Let $M$ be a Markov chain, $D_{\text {in }}$ the initial set of distributions, $\varphi$ a specification and $\epsilon>0$ an approximation factor. Then the questions whether $\left.\left(M, D_{i n}\right)\right|_{\bar{\epsilon}} \varphi$ and whether $\left(M, D_{i n}\right) \xlongequal{\epsilon}_{=}^{\varphi}$ can both be effectively solved.

Here, we have fixed a discretization first and designed a temporal logic that is compatible with it by the choice of atomic propositions. Alternatively we could have started with a temporal logic which mentions point values of probabilities and derived a discretization from these values. This is basically the approach followed in [11], [13]. We however feel that fixing a discretization independent of a specification and formulating the symbolic dynamics of a Markov chain in terms of its $\mathcal{D}$-distributions is of independent interest.

## IV. Irreducible and aperiodic Markov chains

We will build up the proof of our main result (Theorem 1) by starting with aperiodic Markov chains with a single initial distribution. In the subsequent sections we will handle increasingly more general cases culminating in section VI. For each of the cases, the bulk of the proof will consist of effectively computing the three entities asserted in Lemma 1, namely, (i) the positive integer $\theta$ (ii) the final classes $\left\{\mathcal{F}_{\mu, 0}, \mathcal{F}_{\mu, 1}, \ldots, \mathcal{F}_{\mu, \theta-1}\right\}$ each of which is required to be an $\epsilon$ neighborhood and (iii) a positive integer $K^{\epsilon}$ that characterizes the (maximum) length of of the transient phase.

We will often use facts from the theory of Markov chains without providing attributions. They can be found in, say, [10], [20]. Let $M$ be a Markov chain over $\mathcal{X}=\{1,2, \ldots, n\}$. As usual, the graph of $M$ is the directed graph $G_{M}=(\mathcal{X}, E)$ with $(i, j) \in E \operatorname{iff} M(i, j)>0$. We say that $M$ is irreducible in case $G_{M}$ is strongly connected. Assume that $M$ is irreducible. We define the period of a node $i \in N$ to be the gcd (greatest common divisor) $\left\{d \mid M^{d}(i, i)>0\right\}$. Then remark that in an ireducible Markov chain, all nodes have the same period, which we call the period $\theta$ of the chain. The irreducible $M$ is said to be aperiodic if $\theta=1$. Otherwise $M$ is said to be periodic, of period $\theta$.

Irreducible and aperiodic Markov chains are sometimes referred to as regular Markov chains. We will however avoid this terminology here. Fig. 2 displays an example of an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain.

We start with a Markov chain $M$ which is assumed to be an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain with the initial distribution $\mu_{i n}$. Our goal is to establish that Theorem 1 holds for this case.

As may be guessed, for this case $\theta=1$.
To compute the final classes we first recall the standard fact $M$ being irreducible and aperiodic will have a unique stationary distribution $f$. In other words $f \cdot M=f$ and hence $f$ is also often referred to as the fix point of $M$. One can easily
compute $f$ by solving (in time quadratic in $n$ ) the linear system of equations $\mathbf{x} \cdot(M-I)=0$ where $I$ is the $n \times n$ identity matrix.

We now fix $\mathcal{F}=\mathcal{N}_{\epsilon}(f)$, the $\epsilon$-neighborhood of $f$. Thus in the present case, there will be just one final class. A further special case arises when $\mathcal{F}=\left\{D_{\text {fin }}\right\}$ is a singleton. In this case it must be the case that $f \in D_{\text {fin }}$. Otherwise, we will have $D \neq D_{\text {fin }}$ where $f \in D$. Clearly $f \in D$ implies $D \in$ $\mathcal{N}_{\epsilon}(f)$. This leads to the contradiction that $\mathcal{F}$ is not a singleton. Hence $f \in D_{\text {fin }}$. For this case -which is essentially the one treated in [7], [11], [13]-the model checking problem can be solved exactly. This will follow easily from our approximate solution to the model checking problem detailed below.
Through the remaining portions of this report we will implicitly use the fact that $\xi_{\mu}(k)=\mu \cdot M^{k}$ for every $\mu$ and every $k$ and for every $M$. We also recall (again) that $\rho_{\mu}$ is the trajectory generated by the distribution $\mu$, and that $\Gamma\left(\rho_{\mu}\right)=\xi_{\mu}$.
We now turn to computing $K^{\epsilon}$, such that $\mu_{i n} \cdot M^{k} \in \mathcal{F}$ for every $k>K^{\epsilon}$. Anticipating the needs of the later sections, we will fix $K^{\epsilon}$ so that for for every $\mu$ (and not just $\mu_{i n}$ ) it is the case that $\mu \cdot K^{k} \in \mathcal{F}$ for every $k>K^{\epsilon}$. We begin with the following facts concerning irreducible and aperiodic Markov chains, as can be found in [16].

Proposition 1: 1) Let $M$ be an irreducible and aperiodic
Markov chain. Then there exists $\ell$ such that $M^{k}(i, j)>0$ for every $i, j$ and every $k \geq \ell$
2) Let $M^{\prime}$ be a Markov chain such that $M^{\prime}(i, j)>0$ for every $i, j$. Then there exists $\eta$ such that $0<\eta<1$ and $\Delta\left(\mu_{1} \cdot M^{\prime}, \mu_{2} \cdot M^{\prime}\right) \leq \eta \times \Delta\left(\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}\right)$ for every pair of distributions $\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}$.
One can effectively fix the constant $\ell$ mentioned in the first part of Proposition 1 to be $\ell=n^{2}-2 n+2$ thanks to [25] (also see [26]).

As for $\eta$ mentioned in the second part of Proposition 1, the following value is given in [16]. Assume that $M^{\prime}$ is such that $M^{\prime}(i, j)>0$ for every $i, j$. Let $\delta=\min \left\{M^{\prime}(i, j)\right\}_{i, j}$. Clearly $0 \leq 1-n \cdot \delta<1$ since the row sum of $M^{\prime}$ is 1 for every row. If $0<1-n \cdot \delta$ then we set $\eta=n \cdot \delta$. If $0=1-n \cdot \delta$, we set $\eta=n \cdot\left(\frac{\delta}{2}\right)$. In fact for the latter case, instead of $\frac{\delta}{2}$ we can choose any positive rational $\delta^{\prime}$ such that $\delta^{\prime}<\delta$.
We are now ready to effectively establish the existence of $K^{\epsilon}$ with the required property.

Lemma 3: Let $M$ be an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain. Then one can effectively compute a positive integer $K^{\epsilon}$ such that for every distribution $\mu$ and every $k \geq K^{\epsilon}$ we have $\Delta\left(\mu \cdot M^{k}, f\right) \leq \epsilon$. Consequently $\xi_{\mu}(k) \in \mathcal{F}$ for every $\mu$ and every $k \geq K^{\epsilon}$.

Proof: By the first part of Proposition 1 and the remark above $M^{k}(i, j)>0$ for every $i, j$ and every $k \geq \ell$ with $\ell=$ $n^{2}-2 n+2$. Let $\widehat{M}=M^{\ell}$. Again according to Proposition 1 and the remarks above we can effectively fix $\eta$ such that $0<$ $\eta<1$ and $\Delta\left(\mu_{1} \cdot M^{\prime}, \mu_{2} \cdot M^{\prime}\right) \leq \eta \cdot\left(\Delta\left(\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}\right)\right)$ for every pair of distributions $\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}$. Let $K$ be the least integer such that $\eta^{K} \cdot 2 \leq \epsilon$. For any distribution $\mu$ we now have $\Delta\left(\mu \cdot \widehat{M}^{k}, f\right.$. $\left.\widehat{M}^{K}\right)=\Delta\left(\mu \cdot \widehat{M}^{K}, f\right) \leq \eta^{K} \cdot \Delta(\mu, f)$ for every $k \geq K$. But then $\Delta(\mu, f) \leq 2$ according to the definition of $\Delta$. Hence $\Delta\left(\mu \cdot \widehat{M}^{k}, f\right) \leq \epsilon$ for every $\mu$ and every $k \geq K$. We now fix


Fig. 2. An irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain $M$
$K^{\epsilon}=\ell \cdot K$. Consequently $\Delta\left(\mu \cdot M^{k}, f\right) \leq \epsilon$ for every $\mu$ and every $k \geq K^{\epsilon}$.

Since $\mathcal{N}_{\epsilon}(f)=\mathcal{F}$ we now have that $\xi_{\mu}(k) \in \mathcal{F}$ for every $\mu$ and every $k \geq K^{\epsilon}$.

In fact, more optimal values for $K^{\epsilon}$ can be obtained using more involved techniques, e.g. spectral theory. We give a way to compute such a value in appendix, as complexity is not the focus in this paper.

## A. Solution to the model checking problem

Recall that, in this section, we are assuming that we have just a single initial distribution $\mu_{i n}$. To determine whether $\left(M, \mu_{i n}\right) \models_{\epsilon} \varphi$ we will construct a non-deterministic Büchi automaton $\mathcal{B}$ running over sequences in $\mathcal{D}^{\omega}$ such that the language accepted by $\mathcal{B}$ is non-empty iff $\left.\left(M, \mu_{i n}\right)\right|_{\bar{\epsilon}} \varphi$. Since the emptiness problem for Büchi automata is decidable, we will have an effective solution to our model checking problem.

To start with, let $\Sigma=2^{A P_{\varphi}}$ with $A P_{\varphi}$ being the set of atomic propositions that appear in $\varphi$. Consider $\alpha \in \Sigma^{\omega}$. As before, we will view $\alpha$ to be a map form $\{0,1,2, \ldots$,$\} into$ $\Sigma$. The notion of $\alpha, k \models_{\Sigma} \varphi$ is defined in the usual way:

- $\alpha, k \models_{\Sigma}(i, d)$ iff $(i, d) \in \alpha(k)$.
- The propositional connectives are interpreted in the standard way.
- $\alpha, k \models_{\Sigma} O(\varphi)$ iff $\alpha, k+1 \models_{\Sigma} \varphi$.
- $\alpha, k \models_{\Sigma} \varphi_{1} U \varphi_{2}$ iff there exists $k^{\prime} \geq k$ such that $\alpha, k^{\prime} \models_{\Sigma}$ $\varphi_{2}$ and $\alpha, k^{\prime \prime} \models_{\Sigma} \varphi_{1}$ for $k \leq k^{\prime \prime}<k^{\prime}$.
We say that $\alpha$ is a $\Sigma$-model of $\varphi$ iff $\alpha, 0 \models_{\Sigma} \varphi$. This leads to $\widehat{L}_{\varphi}=\{\alpha \mid \alpha, 0 \models \varphi\}$.

We next construct the non-deterministic Büchi automaton $\mathcal{A}=\left(Q, Q_{\text {in }}, \Sigma, \longrightarrow, A\right)$ running over infinite sequences in $\Sigma^{\omega}$ such that the language accepted by $\mathcal{A}$ is exactly $\widehat{L}_{\varphi}$. This is a standard construction [23] and here we shall recall just the basic details. They will be used to establish Theorem 2 below.
We define $C L(\varphi)$, (abbreviated as just $C L$ ) the (FisherLadner) closure of $\varphi$ to be the least set of formulas containing $\varphi$ and satisfying:

- $\psi \in C L$ iff $\sim \psi \in C L$ (with the convention $\sim \sim \psi$ is identified with $\psi$ ).
- If $\psi_{1} \vee \psi_{2} \in C L$ then $\psi_{1}, \psi_{2} \in C L$.
- If $O(\psi) \in C L$ then $\psi \in C L$.
- If $\psi_{1} U \psi_{2} \in C L$ then $\psi_{1}, \psi_{2}, O\left(\psi_{1} U \psi_{2}\right) \in C L$.

We next define an atom to be a subset $Z$ of $C L$ satisfying the following conditions. In stating these conditions we assume the formulas mentioned are in $C L$.

- $\psi \in Z$ iff $\sim \psi \notin Z$.
- $\psi_{1} \vee \psi_{2} \in Z$ iff $\psi_{1} \in Z$ or $\psi_{2} \in Z$.
- $\psi_{1} U \psi_{2} \in Z$ iff $\psi_{2} \in Z$ or $\psi_{1}, O\left(\psi_{1} U \psi_{2}\right) \in Z$.

Finally we define $\mathcal{H}=2^{C L_{U}}$ where $C L_{U}$ is the until formulas contained in $C L$. This leads to the Büchi automaton $\mathcal{A}=\left(Q, Q_{\text {in }}, \Sigma, \longrightarrow, A\right)$ given by:

- $Q=A T \times G$ where $A T$ is the set of atoms.
- $(Z, H) \in Q_{i n}$ iff $\varphi \in Z$. Further, $\psi_{1} U \psi_{2} \in H$ iff $\psi_{1} U \psi_{2} \in Z$ and $\psi_{2} \notin Z$.
- $\longrightarrow \subseteq Q \times \Sigma \times Q$ is given by: $\left.\left(Z_{1}, H_{1}\right), Y,\left(Z_{2}, H_{2}\right)\right) \in \longrightarrow$ iff:

1) $(i, d) \in Y$ iff $(i, d) \in Z$
2) $O(\psi) \in Z_{1}$ iff $\psi \in Z_{2}$
3) Suppose $H_{1}$ is non-empty. Then $\psi_{1} U \psi_{2} \in H_{2}$ iff $\psi_{1} U \psi_{2} \in H_{1}$ and $\psi_{2} \notin Z_{2}$.
4) Suppose $H_{1}=\emptyset$. Then $\psi_{1} U \psi_{2} \in H_{2}$ iff $\psi_{1} U \psi_{2} \in Z_{2}$ and $\psi_{2} \notin Z_{2}$.

- $(Z, H) \in A$ iff $H=\emptyset$

We can now define the Büchi automaton we seek. First let $S=\left\{\left(k, \mu_{\text {in }} \cdot M^{k}\right) \mid 0 \leq k \leq K^{\epsilon}\right\}$. Then our Büchi automaton is $\mathcal{B}=\left(R, R_{\text {in }}, \Sigma, \Rightarrow, B\right)$ defined via:

- $R=(S \cup \mathcal{F}) \times Q$ is the set of states, where $\mathcal{F}=\mathcal{N}_{\epsilon}(f)$ is as defined earlier.
- $R_{i n}=\left\{\left(0, \mu_{i n}\right)\right\} \times Q_{i n}$ is the set of initial states.
- The transition relation $\Rightarrow$ is the least subset of $R \times \Sigma \times R$ satisfying the following conditions
First, Suppose $((k, \mu), q)$ and $\left(\left(k^{\prime}, \mu^{\prime}\right), q^{\prime}\right)$ are in $R$ and $Y \subseteq A P_{\varphi}$. Then $\left.\left.((k, \mu), q), Y,\left(k^{\prime}, \mu^{\prime}\right), q^{\prime}\right)\right) \in \Rightarrow$ iff the following assertions hold:

1) $k^{\prime}=k+1$ and $\mu \cdot M=\mu^{\prime}$, and
2) Suppose $(i, d) \in A P_{\varphi}$. Then $\mu(i) \in d$ iff $(i, d) \in Y$, and
3) $\left(q, Y, q^{\prime}\right) \in \longrightarrow$.

Next, suppose $((k, \mu), q))$ and $\left(D, q^{\prime}\right)$ are in $R$ with $D \in \mathcal{F}$. Let $Y \subseteq A P$. Then $((k, \mu), q), Y,\left(D, q^{\prime}\right) \in \Rightarrow$ iff $k=K^{\epsilon}$ and $(i, d) \in Y$ iff $\mu(i) \in d(i)$. Furthermore, $\left(q, Y, q^{\prime}\right) \in \longrightarrow$.
Finally, suppose $(D, q)$ and $\left(D^{\prime}, q^{\prime}\right)$ are in $R$ and $Y \subseteq$ $A P_{\varphi}$. Then $\left((D, q), Y,\left(D^{\prime}, q^{\prime}\right)\right) \in \Rightarrow$ iff for every $(i, d) \in$ $A P_{\varphi}, D(i)=d$ iff $(i, d) \in Y$. Further, $\left(q, Y, q^{\prime}\right) \in \longrightarrow$.

- The set of final states is $B=\mathcal{F} \times A$.

We can now show:
Theorem 2: $\left(M, \mu_{i n}\right) \models_{\epsilon} \varphi$ iff the language accepted by $\mathcal{B}$ is non-empty.

Proof: Suppose $\left.\left(M, \mu_{i n}\right)\right|_{\bar{\epsilon}} \varphi$. Then there exists $\xi^{\prime}$ such that $\xi^{\prime}$ is an $\epsilon$-approximation of $\xi_{\mu_{i n}}$ and $\mu^{\prime}, 0 \models \varphi$. For $k \geq 0$, we set $Z_{k}=\left\{\psi \mid \psi \in C L\right.$ and $\left.\xi^{\prime}, k \models \psi\right\}$. It is easy to check that $Z_{k}$ is an atom for every $k$. Next we define $\left\{H_{k}\right\}$ inductively via: $\psi_{1} U \psi_{2} \in H_{0}$ iff $\psi_{1} U \psi_{2} \in Z_{0}$ and $\psi_{2} \notin Z_{0}$. Next suppose $H_{k}$ is defined. Then $H_{k+1}$ is given by: If $H_{k}$ is non-empty then $\psi_{1} U \psi_{2} \in H_{k+1}$ iff $\psi_{1} U \psi_{2} \in H_{k}$ and $\psi_{2} \notin$ $Z_{k+1}$.

We next define $\left\{s_{k}\right\}_{k \geq 0}$ via: For $0 \leq k \leq K^{\epsilon}$, $s_{k}=\mu_{\text {in }}$. $M^{k}$. And $s_{k}=\xi^{\prime}(k)$ for $k>K^{\epsilon}$. Finally we define $\left\{Y_{k}\right\}_{k \geq 0}$ via: $Y_{k}=Z_{k} \cap A P_{\varphi}$.

Let $\Upsilon:\{0,1,2, \ldots\} \rightarrow R$ via $\Upsilon(k)=\left(s_{k},\left(Z_{k}, H_{k}\right)\right)$ for each $k$. It is now straightforward to show that $\Upsilon$ is an accepting
run of $\mathcal{B}$ over the infinite sequence $\alpha \in \Sigma^{\omega}$ with $\alpha(k)=Y_{k}$ for each $k$. Consequently the language accepted by $\mathcal{B}$ is nonempty as required.
Next suppose that the language accepted by $\mathcal{B}$ is nonempty. Then there exists $\alpha \in \Sigma^{\omega}$ and an accepting run $\Upsilon$ : $\{0,1,2, \ldots\} \rightarrow R$ of $\mathcal{B}$ over $\alpha$. Let $\Upsilon(k)=\left(\left(s_{k},\left(Z_{k}, H_{k}\right)\right)\right.$ for each $k$. We now define $\xi^{\prime}$ as follows. (i) $\xi^{\prime}(k)=\Gamma\left(\mu_{k}\right)$ for $0 \leq k \leq K^{\epsilon}$ where $s_{k}=\left(\mu_{k}, k\right)$ for $0 \leq k \leq K^{\epsilon}$. (ii) $\xi^{\prime}(k)=s_{k}$ for $k>K^{\epsilon}$. By structural induction on $\psi$ we can now easily show that $\xi^{\prime}, k \models \psi$ iff $\psi \in Z_{k}$ for every $k$ and every $\psi \in C L$. Since $\varphi \in Z_{0}$ this will establish that $\xi^{\prime}, 0 \models \varphi$. By construction, $\xi^{\prime}$ is an $\epsilon$-approximation of $\xi_{\mu}$. This completes the proof.
 non-deterministic Büchi automaton $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}$ such that the language accepted by $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}$ is precisely $L_{\sim \varphi}$. We then repeat the above construction using $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}$ in place of $\mathcal{A}$ to construct the automaton $\mathcal{B}^{\prime}$. It is then easy to show that:

Theorem 3: $M, \mu_{i n} \xlongequal{\epsilon} \varphi$ iff the language accepted by $\mathcal{B}^{\prime}$ is empty.

Notice that transitions of $\mathcal{B}$ and $\mathcal{B}^{\prime}$ check whether the current distribution $\mu$ satisfies $\mu(i) \in d$, or $D$ satisfies $D(i)=d$. Since the first order theory of reals is decidable, we can also decide whether $\mu(i)$ or $D(i)$ satisfies a sentence $\psi$ in this theory. Hence our decision procedures easily extend to the setting where atomic propositions consist of suitable sentences in the first order theory of reals as discussed in the previous section.

## V. IRREDUCIble periodic Markov chains

We now consider irreducible Markov chains which are periodic. We will establish our results in two stages. We first focus on the case of a single initial distribution. Then we show how to handle a (possibly infinite) set of initial distributions.

## A. The single initial distribution case

Let us assume that we are given an irreducible and periodic Markov chain $M$ with the initial distribution $\mu_{i n}$ and the approximation parameter $\epsilon>0$. Our goal is to define $\theta, K^{\epsilon}$ and $\left\{\mathcal{F}_{\mu, 0}, \mathcal{F}_{\mu, 1}, \ldots, \mathcal{F}_{\mu, \theta-1}\right\}$, the set of final classes of $\mu_{i n}$ such that the premises of Lemma 1 are satisfied. We will then proceed to establish Lemma 1 for the present case.

We set $\theta$ to be the period of $M$ as defined in the previous section.
Our next task is to compute the final classes $\left\{\mathcal{F}_{\mu, 0}, \mathcal{F}_{\mu, 1}, \ldots, \mathcal{F}_{\mu, \theta-1}\right\}$. A crucial observation in this connection is that $\mathcal{X}$ can be partitioned into $\theta$ equivalence classes $\mathcal{X}_{0}, \mathcal{X}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{X}_{\theta-1}$ such that in the graph of $M$ there is an edge from $i$ to $j$ iff $i \in \mathcal{X}_{m}$ implies $j \in \mathcal{X}_{m+1} \bmod \theta$. An example of an irreducible periodic Markov chain is shown in fig. 3(a) with period 3. In this chain $\mathcal{X}_{0}=\{1,3\}, \mathcal{X}_{1}=\{2\}, \mathcal{X}_{2}=\{4\}$.

As in the aperiodic case, every irreducible periodic Markov chain has a unique stationary distribution. However, it is not guaranteed that each trajectory will converge to this distribution. For instance, the unique stationary distribution of the chain shown in fig. $3(\mathrm{a})$ is $\left(\frac{2}{15}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{3}\right)$. If one starts with the


Fig. 3. An irreducible and periodic Markov chain and its class-decomposition
distribution say $(0,1,0,0)$ then the chain will cycle through $(0,1,0,0)(0,0,0,1)\left(\frac{2}{5}, 0, \frac{3}{5}, 0\right)(0,1,0,0) \ldots$ forever.

It turns out however that the dynamics of an irreducible and periodic chain can be, in a sense, decomposed into the dynamics of $\theta$ aperiodic components. The crucial observation in this connection is that $M^{\theta}$ restricted to $\mathcal{X}_{m}$ is an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain for each $m$ in $\{0,1, \ldots, \theta-1\}$. We will denote as $\widehat{M}_{m}$ the restriction of $M^{\theta}$ to $\mathcal{X}_{m}$. The graphs of these chains for the example of fig. 3(a) are shown in fig. 3(b).

Each $\widehat{M}_{m}$, being irreducible and aperiodic, will have a unique stationary distribution over $\mathcal{X}_{m}$ which we denote as $f_{m}$. Now $\mu_{i n}$ will induce $\theta$ global distributions and in the limit, $M$ will cycle through these final distributions. The final distributions crucially depends upon the probability mass contributed by $\mu_{\text {in }}$ to each member of the partition $\mathcal{X}_{0}, \ldots, \mathcal{X}_{\theta-1}$. We accordingly define $\alpha_{0}, \ldots, \alpha_{\theta-1}$ via $\alpha_{m}=\sum_{j \in \mathcal{X}_{m}} \mu_{i n}(j)$.

For notational convenience, let us define $f_{m}^{\prime}: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow[0,1]$ which is just $f_{m}$ extended to $\mathcal{X}$ : For all $i \in \mathcal{X}$,

$$
f_{m}^{\prime}(i)= \begin{cases}f_{m}(i) & \text { if } i \in \mathcal{X}_{m}  \tag{1}\\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

This is well-defined since $\left\{\mathcal{X}_{m}\right\}_{m \in\{0, \ldots, \theta-1\}}$ is a partition of $\mathcal{X}$. Then, we define the final distribution of $M^{\theta}$ associated with $\mu_{i n}$, denoted $\mathrm{g}_{\mu_{i n}}$, as the distribution over $\mathcal{X}$ given by: $\mathrm{g}_{\mu_{i n}}=\sum_{m \in\{0, \ldots, \theta-1\}} \alpha_{m} f_{m}^{\prime}$. This then leads to the $\theta$ global final distributions via: $\mathrm{g}_{\mu_{i n}}^{m}=\mathrm{g}_{\mu_{i n}} \cdot M^{m}$ for $0 \leq m<\theta-1$.

For the example shown in fig.2, let $\mu_{\text {in }}=\left(\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{3}\right)$ be the initial distribution. Then $\alpha_{0}=\frac{1}{2}, \alpha_{1}=\frac{1}{6}$ and $\alpha_{2}=$ $\frac{1}{3}$. Further $f_{0}=\left(\frac{2}{5}, \frac{3}{5}\right), f_{1}=(1), f_{2}=(1)$, and so $f_{0}^{\prime}=$ $\left(\frac{2}{5}, 0, \frac{3}{5}, 0\right), f_{1}^{\prime}=(0,1,0,0), f_{2}^{\prime}=(0,0,0,1)$. Hence, $\mathrm{g}_{\mu_{i n}}=$ $\left(\frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{6}, \frac{3}{10}, \frac{1}{3}\right)$.
We now define the set of final classes $\left\{\mathcal{F}_{\mu_{i n}, 0}, \mathcal{F}_{\mu_{i n}, 1}, \ldots, \mathcal{F}_{\mu_{i n}, \theta-1}\right\}$ via: for $0 \leq m \leq \theta-1$,

$$
\mathcal{F}_{\mu_{i n}, m}=\left\{D \in \mathcal{D} \mid \exists \mu^{\prime} \in D, \Delta\left(\mathrm{~g}_{\mu_{i n}}^{m}, \mu^{\prime}\right) \leq \epsilon\right\}
$$

We next turn to computing $K^{\epsilon}$. Recall that $\widehat{M}_{m}$, which is $M^{\theta}$ restricted to $\mathcal{X}_{m}$, is an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain over $\mathcal{X}_{m}$. For a distribution $\nu$ over $\mathcal{X}_{m}$, we denote by $\widehat{\rho}_{\nu}^{m}$, the trajectory of $\widehat{M}_{m}$ starting from $\nu$, i.e., the sequence $\left(\nu, \nu \cdot \widehat{M}_{m}, \nu \cdot\left(\widehat{M}_{m}\right)^{2}, \ldots\right)$. Then, by Lemma 4, there exists $K_{m}^{\epsilon}$ such that for every distribution $\nu$ of $\mathcal{X}_{m}$, for every $k>$ $K_{m}^{\epsilon}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta\left(\widehat{\rho}_{\nu}^{m}(k), f_{m}\right)<\epsilon \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

We now set $K^{\epsilon}=\theta \cdot \max _{m} K_{m}^{\epsilon}$. This leads to:
Lemma 4: For each distribution $\mu$ over $\mathcal{X}$ and for each $k>$ $K^{\epsilon}$, we have that $\Delta\left(\rho_{\mu}(k), \mathrm{g}_{\mu}^{k} \bmod \theta\right) \leq \epsilon$.

Proof: Let $k>K^{\epsilon}=\theta \cdot \max _{m \in\{0, \cdots, \theta-1\}} K_{m}^{\epsilon}$. We first prove the lemma for the case when $k \bmod \theta=0$.

Let $k=\theta \cdot k^{\prime}$. Then $k^{\prime}>\max _{m \in\{0, \cdots, \theta-1\}} K_{m}^{\epsilon}$. Fix a distribution $\mu$. Let $\beta_{m}=\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{m}} \mu(i)$ for $0 \leq m<\theta$. We define the map $\mu_{m}: \mathcal{X}_{m} \rightarrow[0,1]$ for all $m \in\{0, \ldots, \theta-1\}$ by,

$$
\mu_{m}(i)= \begin{cases}\frac{\mu(i)}{\beta_{m}} & \text { if } \beta_{m} \neq 0 \\ 0 & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

As before, we easily lift this map $\mu_{m}: \mathcal{X}_{m} \rightarrow[0,1]$ to $\mu_{m}^{\prime}$ : $\mathcal{X} \rightarrow[0,1]$ by letting $\mu_{m}^{\prime}(i)=\mu_{m}(i)$ for all $i \in \mathcal{X}_{m}$ and $\mu_{m}^{\prime}(j)=0$ for all $j \in\left(\mathcal{X} \backslash \mathcal{X}_{m}\right)$.

It is easy to see that we can express $\mu$ as $\mu=$ $\sum_{m \in\{0, \cdots, \theta-1\}} \beta_{m} \mu_{m}^{\prime}$. This leads to the following properties:
P1) $\rho_{\mu}(k)=\mu \cdot M^{k}=\sum_{m \in\{0, \cdots, \theta-1\}} \beta_{m}\left(\mu_{m}^{\prime} \cdot M^{k}\right)$.This follows from the linearity of multiplication.
P2) $\Delta\left(\mu_{m}^{\prime} \cdot M^{k}, f_{m}^{\prime}\right)=\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}}\left|\left(\mu_{m}^{\prime} \cdot M^{\theta \cdot k^{\prime}}\right)(i)-f_{m}^{\prime}(i)\right|=$ $\sum_{j \in \mathcal{X}_{m}}\left|\left(\mu_{m} \cdot\left(\widehat{M}_{m}\right)^{k^{\prime}}\right)(j)-f_{m}(j)\right|=\Delta\left(\mu_{m} \cdot \widehat{M_{m}^{k^{\prime}}}, f_{m}\right)$. This follows easily from the definitions.
P3) For all $m$ such that $\beta_{m} \neq 0, \mu_{m}$ is a distribution of $\mathcal{X}_{m}$. As $k^{\prime} \geq K_{m}^{\epsilon}$, we have $\Delta\left(\mu_{m} \cdot \widehat{M}_{m}^{k^{\prime}}, f_{m}\right) \leq \epsilon$.
Now by (P1), we have $\Delta\left(\rho_{\mu}(k), \mathrm{g}_{\mu}^{k} \bmod \theta\right)=\Delta\left(\rho_{\mu}(k), \mathrm{g}_{\mu}^{0}\right)$ $=\Delta\left(\sum_{m \in\{0, \cdots, \theta-1\}} \beta_{m}\left(\mu_{m}^{\prime} \cdot M^{k}\right), \sum_{m \in\{0, \ldots, \theta-1\}} \beta_{m}\right.$. $\left.f_{m}^{\prime}\right)$. This implies $\Delta\left(\rho_{\mu}(k), \mathrm{g}_{\mu}^{k} \bmod \theta\right) \leq$ $\sum_{m \in\{0, \cdots, \theta-1\}} \beta_{m} \Delta\left(\mu_{m}^{\prime} \cdot M^{k}, f_{m}^{\prime}\right)$, by the triangular inequality.

Applying (P2) and then (P3), we obtain $\Delta\left(\rho_{\mu}(k), \mathrm{g}_{\mu}^{0}\right) \leq$ $\sum_{m \in\{0, \cdots, \theta-1\}}\left(\beta_{m} \epsilon\right)=\epsilon$, which completes the proof.

The other cases for $k=k^{\prime} \theta+m$ for $0<m<\theta$ are proved easily from there: $\Delta\left(\rho_{\mu}\left(k^{\prime} \theta+m\right), \mathrm{g}_{\mu}^{m} \bmod \theta\right)=\Delta\left(\rho_{\mu}\left(k^{\prime} \theta\right)\right.$. $\left.M^{m}, \mathrm{~g}_{\mu} \cdot M^{m}\right) \leq \Delta\left(\rho_{\mu}\left(k^{\prime} \theta\right), \mathrm{g}_{\mu}\right) \leq \epsilon$, due to the well known fact that $\Delta\left(\mu \cdot M, \mu^{\prime} \cdot M\right) \leq \Delta\left(\mu, \mu^{\prime}\right)$ for any Markov chain $M$.

We next turn to the construction of a Büchi automaton $\mathcal{B}$ such that the language accepted by this automaton $\mathcal{B}$ is nonempty if and only if $M,\left.\mu_{i n}\right|_{\bar{\epsilon}} \varphi$. As before, we let $\Sigma=2^{A P_{\varphi}}$ and first construct the non-deterministic Büchi automaton $\mathcal{A}=\left(Q, Q_{\text {in }}, \Sigma, \longrightarrow, A\right)$ running over infinite sequences in $\Sigma^{\omega}$ such that $L_{\mathcal{A}}$, the language accepted by $\mathcal{A}$ is exactly $\widehat{L}_{\varphi}$, the set of $\Sigma$-models of $\varphi$.

We let $S=\left\{\left(k, \mu_{i n} \cdot M^{k}\right) \mid 0 \leq k \leq K^{\epsilon}\right\}$. In addition, let $\mathcal{F}=\bigcup_{m} \mathcal{F}_{\mu_{i n}, m}$.

The required Büchi automaton $\mathcal{B}=\left(R, R_{\text {in }}, \Sigma, \Longrightarrow, B\right)$ is given by:

- $R=(S \cup \mathcal{F}) \times Q$ is the set of states.
- $R_{i n}=\left\{\left(0, \mu_{i n}\right)\right\} \times Q_{i n}$ is the set of initial states.
- The transition relation $\Longrightarrow$ is the least subset of $R \times \Sigma \times R$ satisfying the following conditions.
Suppose $((k, \mu), q)$ and $\left(\left(k^{\prime}, \mu^{\prime}\right), q^{\prime}\right)$ are in $R$ and $Y \subseteq$ $A P_{\varphi}$. Then $\left.\left.((k, \mu), q), Y,\left(k^{\prime}, \mu^{\prime}\right), q^{\prime}\right)\right) \in \Longrightarrow$ iff the following assertions hold:

1) $k^{\prime}=k+1$ and $\mu \cdot M=\mu^{\prime}$
2) Suppose $(i, d) \in A P_{\varphi}$. Then $(i, d) \in Y$ iff $\mu(i) \in d$
3) $\left(q, Y, q^{\prime}\right) \in \longrightarrow$

Next suppose $((k, \mu), q)$ and $\left(D, q^{\prime}\right)$ are in $R$ with $D \in$ $\mathcal{F}$. Let $Y \subseteq A P_{\varphi}$. Then $((k, \mu), q), Y,\left(D, q^{\prime}\right) \in \Longrightarrow$ iff $k=K^{\epsilon}$ and $(i, d) \in Y$ iff $\mu(i) \in d(i)$ for every $(i, d) \in$ $A P$. Furthermore, $D \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu_{i n}, 1}$ and $\left(q, Y, q^{\prime}\right) \in \longrightarrow$.
Finally suppose $(D, q)$ and $\left(D^{\prime}, q^{\prime}\right)$ are in $R$ and $Y \subseteq$ $A P_{\varphi}$. Then $(D, q), Y,\left(D^{\prime}, q^{\prime}\right) \in \Longrightarrow$ iff $\left(q, Y, q^{\prime}\right) \in \longrightarrow$ and $D \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu_{i n}, m}$ implies $D^{\prime} \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu_{i n}, m+1} \bmod \theta$. Moreover, $(i, d) \in D$ iff $(i, d) \in Y$ for every $(i, d) \in A P_{\varphi}$

- $B=\mathcal{F} \times A$.

By mildly modifying the arguments used to prove Theorem 2 in the previous section, we can now prove:

Theorem 4: $M,\left.\mu_{i n}\right|_{\bar{\epsilon}} \varphi$ iff the language accepted by $\mathcal{B}$ is non-empty.

To determine whether $M, \mu_{i n} \xlongequal{\epsilon}_{=} \varphi$ we first construct the automaton $\mathcal{A}^{\prime}$ which accepts $\widehat{L}_{\sim \varphi}$. We then use it instead of the automaton $\mathcal{A}$ to construct a Büchi automaton $\mathcal{B}^{\prime}$ such that $M, \mu_{i n} \stackrel{\epsilon}{ }_{\stackrel{\epsilon}{=}}^{\varphi}$ iff the language accepted by $\mathcal{B}^{\prime}$ is empty.

## B. The multiple initial distributions case

Let $M$ be an irreducible and periodic chain with period $\theta$. We assume that the set of of initial distributions is represented as a discretized distribution $D_{i n}$. We will assume the terminology and notations developed in the previous subsection. Given $\mu \in D_{i n}$, we already know how to compute the global final distribution $\mathrm{g}_{\mu}^{r}$ that $\mu \cdot M^{k \theta+r}$ will converge to. In fact as we proved in Lemma 4, there is a uniform bound $K^{\epsilon}$ on the number of steps after which every trajectory will be $\epsilon$-close to all its final distributions. Unfortunately, we cannot handle the trajectories in $D_{\text {in }}$ one at a time since there will be in general an infinite number of them. Hence we will group them into a finite number of equivalence classes as follows.

Let $\mu$ be a distribution in $D_{i n}$ and let $\left(\mathrm{g}_{\mu}^{0}, \ldots, \mathrm{~g}_{\mu}^{\theta-1}\right)$ be its associated global final distributions. Then we will say that $\mu$ has the $\epsilon$-approximate behavior $B=<$ $D_{1} D_{2} \cdots D_{K^{\epsilon}} ; \mathcal{D}_{0}, \ldots, \mathcal{D}_{\theta-1}>$ if $D_{k}=\xi_{\mu}(k)$ for $1 \leq k \leq$ $K^{\epsilon}$, and $\mathcal{D}_{m}=\mathcal{N}_{\epsilon}\left(\mathrm{g}_{\mu}^{m}\right)$ for $0 \leq m<\theta$. There are only a finite number of $\epsilon$-approximate behaviors due to the fact that $\mathcal{D}$ is a finite set.

Now suppose $\mu_{i n}, \mu_{i n}^{\prime} \in D_{i n}$ have the same $\epsilon$-approximate behavior. Then it is easy to see that $\left.\left(M, \mu_{i n}\right)\right|_{\epsilon} \varphi$ iff $\left(M, \mu_{i n}^{\prime}\right) \models_{\epsilon} \varphi$. And $\left(M, \mu_{i n}\right) \models^{\epsilon} \varphi$ iff $\left(M, \mu_{i n}^{\prime}\right) \models^{\epsilon} \varphi$ ). This leads to the notion of $\left.(M, B)\right|_{\bar{\epsilon}} \varphi$ which holds iff for some $\mu \in D_{\text {in }}$ whose $\epsilon$-approximate behavior is $B$, we have $\left.(M, \mu)\right|_{\bar{\epsilon}} \varphi$. Similarly $(M, B) \xlongequal{\epsilon}_{\models} \varphi$ holds iff for some $\mu \in D_{i n},(M, \mu) \xlongequal{\epsilon} \varphi$. Clearly the algorithm of the previous section can be used to answer whether $(M, B) \models^{\epsilon} \varphi$ and whether $\left.(M, B)\right|_{\bar{\epsilon}} \varphi$, for any $\epsilon$-approximate behavior $B$. The issue however is which $\epsilon$-approximate behaviors are witnessed (realized) by distributions in $D_{i n}$.

To address this, we observe that $D_{i n}$ is a convex set of concrete distributions. To bring this out, suppose $\mu$ is a distribution and $c \in[0,1]$, then $c \cdot \mu$ will be the map $c \cdot \mu: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow[0, c]$ given by $c \cdot \mu(i)=c(\mu(i))$ for every $i$. As usual, if $f, g: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow[0,1]$ then $f+g$ is the function given by $f+g(i)=f(i)+g(i)$ for every $i$. Now suppose $\mu, \mu^{\prime} \in D_{i n}$ and $c \in[0,1]$. Then it is
easy to check that $\mu^{\prime \prime}=c \cdot \mu+(1-c) \cdot \mu^{\prime}$ is a distribution and moreover $\mu^{\prime \prime} \in D_{i n}$. In fact the convex hull of any set of distributions in $D_{i n}$ will again be in $D_{i n}$. In other words, if $\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}, \ldots, \mu_{u} \in D_{\text {in }}$ and $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{u} \in[0,1]$ with $\sum_{l} c_{l}=1$ then $\mu=c_{1} \cdot \mu_{1}+c_{2} \cdot \mu_{2}+\ldots c_{u} \cdot \mu_{u}$ is a distribution and moreover $\mu \in D_{i n}$. A standard fact from the theory of linear programming [?] is that we can effectively find a finite set of corner points, $\left\{\mu_{i n}^{1}, \mu_{i n}^{2}, \ldots, \mu_{i n}^{J}\right\} \subseteq D_{i n}$, i.e., distributions in $D_{i n}$ such that for each $\mu \in D_{\text {in }}$ there exist $c_{1}, c_{2}, \ldots, c_{J} \in[0,1]$ such that $\sum_{l} c_{l}=1$ and $\mu=$ $c_{1} \cdot \mu_{i n}^{1}+c_{2} \cdot \mu_{i n}^{2}+\ldots+c_{J} \cdot \mu_{i n}^{J}$. This fact will play a crucial role in what follows. We first denote as $C P_{\text {in }}$, the set of corner points $\left\{\mu_{i n}^{1}, \mu_{i n}^{2}, \ldots, \mu_{i n}^{J}\right\}$ of $D_{i n}$ and for the rest of this subsection, will often drop the subscript "in".

Lemma 5: The set of stationary distributions of $M^{\theta}$ associated with every $\mu \in D_{i n}$ is the convex hull of the set of stationary distributions $\left(\mathrm{g}_{\mu^{u}}\right)_{1 \leq u \leq J}$ associated with the members of $C P_{\text {in }}$.

Proof: As before, let $\left(f_{m}\right)_{0 \leq m \leq \theta-1}$ be the unique stationary distribution for each component $\mathcal{X}_{m}$ of $\mathcal{X}$ and $\left(f_{m}^{\prime}\right)_{0 \leq m \leq \theta-1}$ denote their extentions over $\mathcal{X}$ (see Equation (3) from the previous subsection). For each $1 \leq u \leq J$, we compute the weights of $\mu^{u}$ as $\beta_{m}^{u}=\sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_{m}} \mu^{u}(x)$ for each $m$. Now suppose $\nu \in D_{i n}$ with $\nu=\sum_{1 \leq d \leq J} c_{u}$. $\mu^{u}$, where $c_{u} \in[0,1]$ and $\sum_{1 \leq u \leq J} c_{u}=1$. Also, let $\alpha_{m}=\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{m}} \nu(i)$ for each $m$. Then it is easy to see that $\alpha_{m}=\sum_{1 \leq u \leq J} c_{u} \cdot \beta_{m}^{u}$ for each $m \in\{0, \ldots, \theta-$ $1\}$. That is, the stationary distribution to which $\rho_{\nu}$ converges through $M^{\theta}$ is $\sum_{0 \leq m<\theta}\left[\sum_{1 \leq u \leq J} c_{u} \cdot \beta_{m}^{u}\right] f_{m}^{\prime}=$ $\sum_{1 \leq u \leq J} c_{u}\left[\sum_{m<\theta} \beta_{m}^{u} f_{m}^{\prime}\right]=\sum_{1 \leq u \leq J} c_{u} \mathrm{~g}_{\mu}^{u}$. We note that the tuples of distribution to which $\rho_{\nu \cdot M^{m}}$ will converge through repeated applications of $M^{\theta}$ is $\left(\sum_{1 \leq u \leq J} c_{d}\left(\mathrm{~g}_{\mu^{u}}^{m} \cdot M^{m}\right)\right)$ for $0 \leq m<\theta$.

Since one can effectively compute the set of corner points and their final distributions one can also effectively compute $K^{\epsilon}$.

Now given the sequence $D_{1} \cdots D_{K^{\epsilon}} \in \mathcal{D}$ and the $\theta$-tuple $\left(\mathcal{D}_{0}, \mathcal{D}_{2}, \ldots, \mathcal{D}_{\theta-1}\right)$ with $\mathcal{D}_{i} \subseteq \mathcal{D}$, we can decide whether there exists $c_{u} \in[0,1]$ with $1 \leq u \leq J$ such that

- $\sum_{1 \leq u \leq J} c_{u}=1$,
- for all $k<K^{\epsilon}, \sum_{1 \leq u \leq J} c_{u}\left(\mu_{i n}^{u} \cdot M^{k}\right) \in D_{k}$, and
- for all $0 \leq m \leq \theta=1, \mathcal{N}_{\epsilon}\left(\sum_{1 \leq u \leq J} c_{u}\left(\mathrm{~g}_{\mu_{i n}^{u}}^{m} \cdot M^{m}\right)\right)=$ $\mathcal{D}_{m}$.
We can decide this using the first order theory of reals. Consequently we can compute $\widehat{\mathcal{F}}$, the set of $\epsilon$-approximate behaviors of $M$ generated by distributions in $D_{i n}$. An important fact is $\widehat{\mathcal{F}}$ is a finite set. Hence for each $\epsilon$-approximate behavior in this set, we can use the procedure described in the previous section and by taking the conjunction of all the outcomes we can decide whether $\left.\left(M, D_{i n}\right)\right|_{\bar{\epsilon}} \varphi\left(\operatorname{resp} .\left.\left(M, D_{i n}\right)\right|^{\epsilon} \varphi\right)$.


## VI. The general case

We finally turn to the general case. Let $M$ be a Markov chain with $D_{i n}$ as the initial set of distributions. Let $\left\{S C_{1}, S C_{2}, \ldots, S C_{r}\right\}$ be the set of maximal (in terms of their node sets under inclusion) strongly connected components


Fig. 4. A general Markov chain (unlabelled transitions have probability 1) and (the Hasse diagram of) its poset of strongly connected components
of $G_{M}$, the graph of $M$. The relation $\preceq$ over this set is given by: $S C \preceq S C^{\prime}$ iff there exists a node $i$ in $S C$, a node $j$ in $S C^{\prime}$ and a path from $i$ to $j$ in $G_{M}$. Clearly $\preceq$ is a partial ordering relation and the maximal elements under $\preceq$ (the final strongly connected components) are called the positive recurrent classes. The chain restricted to each positive recurrent class is an irreducible chain which may be periodic or aperiodic. An example of a general Markov chain is shown in fig. 4(a) while the poset of its strongly connected components is shown in fig. 4(b) (each strongly component is represented by its set of nodes). If $i$ is a node that belongs to a nonmaximal strongly component then it is a transient node. If a node is not a transient node it is a recurrent node. Thus, for instance in the example from fig. 4, nodes $\{1,2,3,4\}$ are transient and $\{5,6,7,8,9\}$ are recurrent. The positive recurrent class $\{5,6,7\}$ is irreducible and periodic with period 3 while the positive recurrent class $\{8,9\}$ is irreducible and aperiodic.

We will first sketch the main ideas for a single initial distribution $\mu_{i n}$. As before, given any Markov chain $M, \mu$ and $\epsilon>0$, our goal is to compute ( $i$ ) the positive integer $\theta$, depending only on $M$, (ii) the positive integer $K^{\epsilon}$, depending on $M$ and $\epsilon$, and (iii) define for each distribution $\mu$, the final classes $\left(\mathcal{F}_{\mu, m}\right)_{m \in\{0, \ldots \theta-1\}}$ such that Lemma 1 holds, i.e., for every $k>K^{\epsilon}, \xi_{\mu}(k) \in \mathcal{F}_{\mu, k} \bmod \theta$ ( $\xi_{\mu}$ being the symbolic trajectory generated by $\mu$ ). In the three following subsections, we will define these quantities and then prove the lemma.

## A. Determining $\theta$

Given Markov chain $M$ and its graph $G_{M}$, let $\mathcal{X}_{t r n}$ denote the set of transient nodes and $\mathcal{X}_{\text {rec }}$ the set of recurrent nodes. Further, let $\left\{\mathcal{X}_{1}, \mathcal{X}_{2}, \ldots \mathcal{X}_{u}\right\}$ be the node sets of the $\preceq-$ maximal strongly connected components of $M$. In the example above, $\{5,6,7\}$ and $\{8,9\}$ are the node sets of the two $\preceq-$ maximal components.

We now have, $\bigcup_{1 \leq v \leq u} \mathcal{X}_{v}=\mathcal{X}_{r e c}$. Further, $M$ restricted to each $\mathcal{X}_{v}$ is an irreducible Markov chain and hence as in Section V-A, it has a period, say $\theta_{v}$. We define $\theta$ to be the lcm (least common multiple) of $\theta_{1}, \cdots, \theta_{u}$.

## B. Determining $K^{\epsilon}$

The positive integer $K^{\epsilon}$ will be defined as the sum of two integers $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$ with $K_{1}$ determined by the transient nodes and $K_{2}$ by the the recurrent nodes.

As $M$ is iteratively applied to $\mu_{i n}$, the total probability mass of the transient nodes will tend to 0 . To see this let $i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}$. Then there exists $k \leq\left|\mathcal{X}_{t r n}\right|$ and $j \in \mathcal{X}_{\text {rec }}$ such that $M^{k}(i, j)>0$. Next we note that if $i_{1} \ldots i_{k}$ is a path in $G_{M}$ and $i_{\ell} \in \mathcal{X}_{\text {rec }}$ for some $\ell$ with $\ell<k$, then $i_{v} \in \mathcal{X}_{\text {rec }}$ for every $v$ satisfying $\ell \leq v \leq k$. Consequently we can find a $p>0$ such that for every $i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}$, there exists $j \in \mathcal{X}_{\text {rec }}$ such that $M^{\left|\mathcal{X}_{t r n}\right|}(i, j) \geq p$. This implies $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}}\left(\mu_{i n} \cdot M^{\left|\mathcal{X}_{t r n}\right|}\right)(i) \leq(1-p) \cdot \mu_{i n}(i)$ for each $i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}$. Since $p>0$, we have $1-p<1$ and hence for any $\delta>0$ there exists a computable $k$ such that $\left(\mu_{i n} \cdot M^{k}\right)(i)<\delta$. Let $K$ be the least positive integer such that $\left(\mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K}\right)(i) \leq \frac{\epsilon}{4}$. We now set $K_{1}=K \cdot \theta$ and can easily show:
Lemma 6: for all $k \geq K_{1}, \sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}} \mu_{i n} \cdot M^{k}(i) \leq \frac{\epsilon}{4}$.
As noted above, for any $\delta>0$ there exists $k$ such that ( $\mu_{i n}$. $\left.M^{k}\right)(i)<\delta$. Thus $\mu_{i n}$ will tend to a distribution $\mu_{i n}^{\prime}$ (as $M$ is iteratively applied to $\mu_{i n}$ ) with $\mu_{i n}^{\prime}(i)=0$ for every $i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}$. Using $G_{M}$, we can explicitly compute the recurrent component of $\mu_{i n}^{\prime}$ as follows. Recall that $\left\{\mathcal{X}_{1}, \mathcal{X}_{2}, \ldots \mathcal{X}_{u}\right\}$ are the node sets of the $\preceq$-maximal elements of $\left\{S C_{1}, S C_{2}, \ldots, S C_{r}\right\}$ and hence $\bigcup_{1 \leq v \leq u} \mathcal{X}_{v}=\mathcal{X}_{r e c}$.
$M$ restricted to each $\mathcal{X}_{v}$ is an irreducible Markov chain and thus we can decompose each $\mathcal{X}_{v}$ into its set of irreducible and aperiodic components $\mathcal{X}_{v, 0}, \mathcal{X}_{v, 1}, \ldots, \mathcal{X}_{v, \theta_{v}-1}$, as done in Section V-A. Consequently, $M^{\theta}$ restricted to $\mathcal{X}_{v, m}$ will be an irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain for $1 \leq m \leq \theta_{v}$ and $1 \leq v \leq u$ with the unique stationary distribution $f_{v, m}$. Hence, by Lemma 3, for any given $\delta>0$ we can fix a constant $K_{v, m}^{\delta}$ for each of these components that will satisfy: for every $k \geq K_{v, m}^{\delta}$, for any distribution $\nu_{v, m}$ of $\mathcal{X}_{v, m}$, the distribution $\nu_{v, m} \cdot M^{\left(\theta_{v} k\right)}$ is $\delta$-close to $f_{m, v}$. We now set $\delta=\frac{\epsilon}{2}$ and $K_{2}=$ $\theta \cdot \max \left\{K_{v, m}^{\delta}\right\}$. The reason for fixing $K_{2}$ in this fashion will become subsequently clear.

Finally, we set $K^{\epsilon}=K_{1}+K_{2}$. We note that by construction $K_{1}$ and $K_{2}$ and therefore $K^{\epsilon}$ are all multiples of $\theta$.

## C. Determining the final classes

We will use the same strategy as in Section V-A to define the final classes. To this end, let $i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}$ and $1 \leq v \leq r$ and $0 \leq m \leq \theta-1$ where $r$ and $\theta$ as define above. Then for $k \geq 0$, we define $p_{k}(i, v, m)=\sum_{j \in \mathcal{X}_{v, m}} M^{k \cdot \theta}(i, j)$, the probability, starting from $i$, to reach $\mathcal{X}_{v, m}$ in $k \theta$ steps of $M$ (that is in $k$ steps of $M^{\theta}$ ). Notice that for all $v, m, \mathcal{X}_{v, m}$ is a trap for $M^{\theta}$, that is, if $x \in \mathcal{X}_{v, m}$, then $x \cdot M^{\theta} \in \mathcal{X}_{v, m}$. We now define $p(i, v, m)=\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} p_{k}(i, v, m)$.

To see that this quantity exists (i.e., is well-defined), we note that $p_{k}(i, v, m)$ is bounded from above by 1 . Also, it monotonically increases with $k$ as for any path in $G_{M}$ of the form $x_{0} x_{1}, \ldots x_{u \theta} \ldots x_{u^{\prime} \theta}$ with $x_{0}=i$, if $x_{u \theta} \in \mathcal{X}_{v, m}$ then $x_{u^{\prime} \theta} \in \mathcal{X}_{v, m}$, for $0 \leq u \leq u^{\prime}$. Hence, by the monotone convergence theorem $p(i, v, m)$ exists. In term of LTL formula, $p(i, v, m)$ is the probability of the property $i \wedge\left(E \mathcal{X}_{v, m}\right)$ [5]. We will follow [5] in order to to compute these numbers $p(i, v, m)$.

For all $v, m$, we define the linear operator $O p_{v, m}$ : $[0,1]^{\mathcal{X}_{t r n}} \rightarrow[0,1]^{\mathcal{X}_{t r n}}$ by

$$
O p_{v, m}(x)=b+x \cdot A
$$

where $A$ is the matrix restriction of $M$ to $\mathcal{X}_{t r n}$, and $b$ : $\mathcal{X}_{t r n} \rightarrow[0,1]$ is defined by $b(s)=\sum_{s^{\prime} \in \mathcal{X}_{v, m}} M\left[s, s^{\prime}\right]$. Now, one can notice (see Theorem 10.15 in $^{v, m}$ [5]) that $\left(p_{k}(i, v, m)\right)_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}}=O p_{v, m}^{k}(0)$, for 0 the null vector. We thus have $(p(i, v, m))_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}}=\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} O p_{v, m}^{k}(0)$. This leads to $O p_{v, m}\left((p(i, v, m))_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}}\right)=(p(i, v, m))_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}}$ for all $v, m$. One can compute the set of solutions of this system of linear equations, for all $v, m$. The values for $(p(i, v, m))_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}}$ is one of these solutions. Equivalently, $(p(i, v, m))_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}}$ is a fix point of $O p_{v, m}$. As stated in Theorem 10.15 of [5], $(p(i, v, m))_{\in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}}$ is actually the least fix point of $O p_{v, m}$ (in the space $[0,1]^{\mathcal{X}_{\text {trn }}}$ ). This fact allows to determine uniquely the value of $p(i, v, m)$ for all $i, v, m$. Indeed, take any fix point $y \in$ $[0,1]^{\mathcal{X}_{t r n}}$ of $O p_{v, m}$. That is, $O p_{v, m}(y)=y$. Now, $y(i) \geq 0$ for all $i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}$. That is $y$ is bigger or equal to the null vector 0 . Now, $y$ being a fix point and $O p_{v, m}$ being a positive operator, we get $y=O p_{v, m}^{k}(y) \geq O p_{v, m}^{k}(0)=\left(p_{k}(i, v, m)\right)_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}}$ for all $k$. Hence at the limit for $k \rightarrow \infty, y(i) \geq p(i, v, m)$ for all $i \in \mathcal{X}_{v, m}$, which shows that $(p(i, v, m))_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}}$ is indeed the least fix point of $O p_{v, m}$.

Once $p(i, v, m)$ is computed, for every distribution $\mu$ over $\mathcal{X}$, we set $\alpha_{v, m}^{\mu}=\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}} \mu(i) p(i, v, m)$ and $\mathrm{h}_{\mu}=$ $\sum_{v, m} \alpha_{v, m} f_{v, m}^{\prime}$. As before, $f_{v, m}^{\prime}$ is just $f_{v, m}$ extended over $\mathcal{X}$ in the natural way. Also, as before, we define $\mathrm{h}_{\mu}^{m}=\mathrm{h}_{\mu} \cdot M^{m}$ for all $0 \leq m<\theta$. We now define the final classes as:

$$
\mathcal{F}_{\mu_{i n}, m}=\left\{D \in \mathcal{D} \mid \exists \mu^{\prime} \in D, \Delta\left(\mathrm{~h}_{\mu_{i n}}^{m}, \mu^{\prime}\right) \leq \epsilon\right\}
$$

for $m \in\{0, \ldots, \theta-1\}$.

## D. The main result

The key to deriving the main result is:
Lemma 7: $\Delta\left(\rho_{\mu_{i n}}\left(K^{\epsilon}\right), \mathrm{h}_{\mu_{i n}}\right) \leq \epsilon$.
Proof: By definition of $K_{1}$ and Lemma 6, after $K_{1}$ steps we have that $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}} \mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}(i) \leq \epsilon / 4$. This implies that

$$
\begin{align*}
& \sum_{v, m} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{v, m}}\left(\mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}(i)\right)=\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{\text {rec }}} \mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}(i) \\
& =1-\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}} \mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}(i) \geq(1-\epsilon / 4) \tag{3}
\end{align*}
$$

Also, we have for all $k \cdot \theta \geq K_{1}$, and for all $j, m$, $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{j, m}} \mu_{i n} \cdot M^{k \cdot \theta}(i) \geq \sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{j, m}} \mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}(i)$ since $\mathcal{X}_{j, m}$ is an invariant set for $M^{\theta}$. Now, in particular,

$$
\begin{align*}
& \alpha_{v, m}^{\mu_{i n}}=\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}} \mu_{i n}(i) \cdot \lim _{k \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j \in \mathcal{X}_{v, m}} M^{k \cdot \theta}(i, j) \\
& =\lim _{k \rightarrow \infty}\left(\sum_{j \in \mathcal{X}_{j, m}} \mu_{i n} \cdot M^{k \cdot \theta}(j)\right) \geq \sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{v, m}} \mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}(i) \tag{4}
\end{align*}
$$

In the following, we will write $\alpha_{v, m}$ to mean $\alpha_{v, m}^{\mu_{i n}}$ purely to avoid the cumbersome notation. It will be clear from the context that we mean the latter. Hence by (4), $\sum_{v, m} \mid \alpha_{v, m}-$ $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{v, m}} \mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}(i) \mid=\sum_{v, m}\left(\alpha_{v, m}-\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{v, m}} \mu_{i n}\right.$. $\left.M^{K_{1}}(i)\right)=\sum_{v, m}\left(\alpha_{v, m}\right)-\sum_{v, m}\left(\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{v, m}} \mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}(i)\right) \leq$ $1-(1-\epsilon / 4)=\epsilon / 4$, where the inequality follows by using (3). Thus, we have:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left.\sum_{v, m} \mid \alpha_{v, m}-\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{v, m}} \mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}(i)\right) \mid \leq \epsilon / 4 \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Intuitively, this implies that $\rho_{\mu_{i n}}\left(K_{1}\right)$ is $\epsilon / 2$ close to a distribution $\mu^{\prime}$ (which we define formally below) satisfying the following properties:

1) $\mu^{\prime}(i)=0$ for all $i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}$, and
2) $\sum_{j \in \mathcal{X}_{v, m}} \mu^{\prime}(j)=\alpha_{v, m}$ for all $v, m$

Intuitively, one can understand $\mu^{\prime}$ as $\mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}$ where the very small probabilities in $\mathcal{X}_{t r n}$ has been removed and placed in $\mathcal{X}_{\text {rec }}$. Notice that $\mathrm{h}_{\mu_{i n}}$ also satisfies these two requirements. The second one is by definition, and the first one is because

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { if } i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n} \text {, then } \mathrm{h}_{\mu_{i n}}(i)=0 \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

This statement (6) follows due to the fact that when $i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}$, then $i \notin X_{v, m}$ for any $v, m$ and so $f_{v, m}^{\prime}(i)=0$. Now, it is possible that $\mu^{\prime}(i) \neq \mathrm{h}_{\mu_{i n}}(i)$ for some $i \in \mathcal{X}_{r e c}$. But $\mu^{\prime}$ will converge to $h_{\mu_{i n}}$ following the arguments of the previous section, so it suffices to wait another $K_{2}$ steps to get that $\rho_{\mu_{i n}}\left(K_{1}+K_{2}\right)$ will be $\epsilon$-close to $\mathrm{h}_{\mu_{i n}}$. This intuition is made precise in what follows.

More formally, we set: $\mu^{\prime}(i)=0$ for all $i \in \mathcal{X}_{t r n}$, and for all $j, m$, define $\beta_{j, m}=\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{j, m}} \mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}(i)$, and $\mu^{\prime}(i)=$ $\frac{\alpha_{j, m}}{\beta_{j, m}} \cdot\left(\mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}(i)\right)$ for all $i \in \mathcal{X}_{j, m}$. It is easy to check that: $\mathrm{C} 1)$ for all $v, m, \sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{v, m}} \mu^{\prime}(i)=\frac{\alpha_{j, m}}{\beta_{j, m}} \cdot \sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{j, m}}\left(\mu_{i n}\right.$. $\left.M^{K_{1}}(i)\right)=\alpha_{j, m}$.
C2) $\Delta\left(\mu^{\prime}, \rho_{\mu_{i n}}\left(K_{1}\right)\right)=\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}}\left|\mu^{\prime}(i)-\mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}(i)\right|=$ $\sum_{i \mathcal{X}_{t r n}} \mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}(i)+\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{r e c}} \mu^{\prime}(i)-\mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}(i) \leq$ $\epsilon / 4+\sum_{j, m}\left(\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{j, m}} \mu^{\prime}(i)-\mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}(i)\right)=\epsilon / 4+$ $\left.\sum_{j, m}\left(\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{j, m}} \mu^{\prime}(i)-\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{j, m}} \mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}(i)\right)\right)=\epsilon / 4+$
$\sum_{j, m}\left(\alpha_{j, m}-\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}_{j, m}} \mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}(i)\right) \leq \epsilon / 2$.
The last inequality in Condition C2) holds thanks to (5). Now, Condition C 1 ) implies that the stationary distribution $\mathrm{g}_{\mu^{\prime}}$ associated with $\mu^{\prime}$ in the sense of the previous section satisfies $\mathrm{g}_{\mu^{\prime}}=\mathrm{h}_{\mu_{i n}}$. Therefore, applying the same reasoning as in the previous section, as $K_{2} \geq \max \theta \cdot K_{v, m}^{\epsilon / 2}$, we get that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta\left(\mu^{\prime} \cdot M^{K_{2}}, h_{\mu_{i n}}\right) \leq \epsilon / 2 \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
& \Delta\left(\rho_{\mu_{i n}}\left(K^{\epsilon}\right), \mathrm{h}_{\mu_{i n}}\right)=\Delta\left(\mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}+K_{2}}, \mathrm{~h}_{\mu_{i n}}\right) \\
& \leq \Delta\left(\mu^{\prime} \cdot M^{K_{2}}, \mathrm{~h}_{\mu_{i n}}\right)+\Delta\left(\mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}+K_{2}}, \mu^{\prime} \cdot M^{K_{2}}\right)  \tag{8}\\
& \leq \epsilon / 2+\Delta\left(\mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K_{1}}, \mu^{\prime}\right)  \tag{9}\\
& \leq \epsilon \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

The inequality (8) holds by the property of the norm. To prove (9), we use (7) and the standard fact that any Markov chain $M$, satisfies $\Delta\left(\mu \cdot M, \mu^{\prime} \cdot M\right) \leq \Delta\left(\mu, \mu^{\prime}\right)$ for any distributions $\mu, \mu^{\prime}$. Hence $\Delta\left(\mu \cdot M^{K_{2}}, \mu^{\prime} \cdot M^{K_{2}}\right) \leq \Delta\left(\mu, \mu^{\prime}\right)$, where $\mu=\mu_{\text {in }}$. $M^{K_{1}}$. Finally (10) follows by Condition C2) which completes the proof.

We can now easily extend the above lemma to show that for all $k \geq K^{\epsilon}$ with $k \bmod \theta=r, \Delta\left(\rho_{\mu_{i n}}(k), \mathrm{h}_{\mu_{i n}}^{r}\right) \leq \epsilon$. This, follows by applying the same reasoning as in the last step of proof of Lemma 4, i.e., by iterating $M$ sufficiently many times from $\mu_{i n} \cdot M^{K^{\epsilon}}$. Finally, since $K^{\epsilon}$ does not depend on $\mu_{i n}$, the result holds starting from any distribution $\mu$. Thus, we have established Lemma 1 for the general case.

Again since $K^{\epsilon}$ does not depend on $\mu_{i n}$, as done in the previous section, we can compute the corner points of $D_{i n}$, and deduce the convex set of stationary distributions. Then we can compute the finite set of $\epsilon$-approximate behaviors, and apply to each $\epsilon$-approximate behavior the procedure of the previous section to decide whether it satisfies $\varphi$ from below (or above). This leads to our main result, namely, Theorem 1, which states that $\epsilon$-approximate model checking (from below and above) is decidable.

## VII. Conclusion

We have initiated here the study of the symbolic dynamics of finite state Markov chains. We have done so by discretizing the probability value space $[0,1]$ into a finite set of intervals $\mathcal{I}$. This leads to the notion of a discretized distribution. The infinite set of distributions over $\mathcal{X}$, the set of nodes of the Markov chain, are then represented symbolically -and unambiguously- by the finite set of discretized distributions $\mathcal{D}$. Given an initial set of distributions, the trajectory generated by each initial distribution will induce an infinite sequence over $\mathcal{D}^{\omega}$. Consequently the dynamics of the Markov chain with a given set of initial distributions is symbolically represented by $L_{M} \subseteq \mathcal{D}^{\omega}$. Here we have focused on the problem of determining whether $L_{M}$ meets the specification $\varphi$ where $\varphi$ is a formula of $L T L_{\mathcal{I}}$, a simple linear time temporal logic. In this logic only the atomic propositions have a probabilistic flavor and they will assert that the current probability of a node of $M$ falls in $d$, where $d$ is an interval in $\mathcal{I}$. Since an exact solution to this problem is out of reach due to the complicated steady state behavior $M$, we have developed the notion of an $\epsilon$-approximation. This in turn leads to the the notions of $\left(M, D_{i n}\right) \epsilon$-approximately satisfying the specification $\varphi$ from below and above. Our main result is that both these model checking problems are decidable for all finite state Markov chains.

In the present study we have used a discretized distribution to specify the initial set of distributions. An alternative approach would be to present this set as the convex hull of a finite set of concrete distributions $I N=\left\{\mu_{i n}^{1}, \mu_{i n}^{2}, \ldots \mu_{i n}^{u}\right\}$. As explained in Section V-B, as soon as the members of $I N$ have rational coordinates, all our constructions will go through with minor modifications.

As pointed out at the end of Section IV, it follows that we can allow the atomic propositions to express polynomial constraints over the distributions contained in the current $\mathcal{D}$ distributions while preserving decidability.

An interesting application we plan to explore is the dynamics of biochemical networks modeled by the Chemical Master Equation [27]. In the discrete time version of numerically solving the Chemical Master Equation, we feel that our symbolic dynamics approach can bring considerable benefits. Further, given the nature of the application, the errors incurred through the $\epsilon$-approximation method will be entirely acceptable. As mentioned in the introduction, we have not paid close attention to complexity issues. We are however confident that suitable geometric representations and linear algebraic techniques can considerably reduce the complexity of many
of our constructions. We plan to address this in our future work.

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## VIII. Appendix

We explain here how to obtain a better value of $K^{\epsilon}$, by computing some contraction factor $\delta$ around the stationary distribution of an aperiodic and irreducible Markov Chain. Actually, considering another basis and the norm associated with it, we even get the optimality of this factor $\delta$.

Lemma 8: One can effectively compute in $O\left(|\mathcal{X}|^{4}\right)$ time a number $\delta$ with $0<\delta<1$ such that $\Delta\left(\mu \cdot M^{|\mathcal{X}|^{2}}, f\right)<\delta$. $\Delta(\mu, f)$.

It follows from this lemma that for any choice of $k^{\prime}$, if $k>$ $k^{\prime} \cdot|\mathcal{X}|^{2}$, then $\Delta\left(\mu \cdot M^{k}, f\right)<\delta^{k^{\prime}} \cdot \Delta(\mu, f)$. Now $0<\delta<1$ and in addition, 2 is an upper bound for $\Delta(\mu, f)$. Therefore, by choosing a large enough $k^{\prime}$ we can set $K^{\epsilon}=k^{\prime} \cdot|\mathcal{X}|^{2}$ such that for every $\mu, \Delta\left(\mu \cdot M^{k}, f\right)<\epsilon$ for all $k \geq K^{\epsilon}$.

Proof: First, note that the value of the unique stationary point $f$ can be computed by solving the system of equations $\left\{(\mu \cdot M)=\mu, \sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}} \mu_{i}=1\right\}$. Since this is a system of $|\mathcal{X}|+$ 1 equations with $|\mathcal{X}|$ unknowns, it can be solved using say, Gaussian elimination in $O\left(|\mathcal{X}|^{3}\right)$ time.

Given $f$ computed from above, we can write $f=$ $\left(f_{1}, \ldots, f_{n}\right)$ such that $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}} f_{i}=1$. With the standard basis $e_{1}=(1,0, \ldots, 0)$ and $e_{2}=(0,1, \ldots, 0), \ldots, e_{n}=$ $(0, \ldots, 0,1)$, we can write $f=\sum_{i} f_{i} e_{i}$. There exists $i^{\prime} \in \mathcal{X}$ such that $f_{i^{\prime}}>\frac{1}{|\mathcal{X}|}$. Without loss of generality we let $i^{\prime}=1$ and denote $\mathcal{X}^{\prime}=\mathcal{X} \backslash\{1\}$. Let $|\mathcal{X}|=n$.

Now, we will rewrite the vectors in a new orthogonal basis with center $f$, namely the set of vectors $B=\left\{b_{1}, \ldots b_{m}\right\}$ such that $b_{1}=\left(f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{n}\right)=f, b_{2}=\left(-\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{n}, 0, \ldots, 0\right), b_{3}=$ $\left(-\frac{1}{n}, 0, \frac{1}{n}, 0, \ldots, 0\right), \ldots, b_{n}=\left(-\frac{1}{n}, 0, \ldots, 0, \frac{1}{n}\right)$. Working in this new basis, and in a new norm (that we will define soon) is quite useful, as we will show below.

Notice that for all $i \geq 2$, we have $f+b_{i}$ is a distribution. This is because each $\left(f+b_{i}\right)=\left(f_{1}-\frac{1}{n}, \ldots, f_{i}+\frac{1}{n}, \ldots, f_{n}\right)$ and we have

1) $f_{1}>\frac{1}{n}$ and
2) for each $i \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}, f_{i}<1-\frac{1}{n}$ (since $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}} f_{i}=1$ ) and
3) $\sum_{j \in \mathcal{X}}\left(f+b_{i}\right)_{j}=f_{1}+\ldots+f_{n}=1$.

Also, for any distribution $\mu$, we can write it as $f+\sum_{i \geq 2} \alpha_{i} b_{i}$. In particular, the coefficient in the first component is always 1. Indeed, taking any distribution $\mu=\left(\mu_{1}, \cdots, \mu_{n}\right)$ (in the standard basis), we have $\sum\left(\mu_{i}-f_{i}\right)=\sum \mu_{i}-\sum f_{i}=0$.

Now, for two distributions $\mu=f+\sum_{i \geq 2} \alpha_{i} b_{i}$ and $\nu=f+$ $\sum_{i \geq 2} \beta_{i} b_{i}$, we have the new norm $\Delta^{\prime}(\mu, \nu)=\sum_{i \geq 2}\left|\alpha_{i}-\beta_{i}\right|$. Notice that since the dimension $|\mathcal{X}|=n$ is finite, this norm $\Delta^{\prime}$ is equivalent to $\Delta$, that is there exists $0<\eta_{1}, \eta_{2}<1$ s.t.:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\eta_{1} \cdot \Delta\left(\mu, \mu^{\prime}\right) \leq \Delta^{\prime}\left(\mu, \mu^{\prime}\right) \leq \eta_{2} \cdot \Delta\left(\mu, \mu^{\prime}\right) \text { for all } \mu, \mu^{\prime} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

The values of $\eta_{1}$ and $\eta_{2}$ can be computed by writing $\mu, \mu^{\prime}$ in the standard basis and comparing the values obtained.

Now, we let for all $i \geq 2, w_{i}=\left(f+b_{i}\right) \cdot M^{n^{2}}$ where $n=$ $|\mathcal{X}|$, and $\lambda_{i}=\frac{\Delta^{\prime}\left(w_{i}, f\right)}{\Delta^{\prime}\left(\left(f+b_{i}\right), f\right)}$. We also let $\lambda=\max _{i \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}} \lambda_{i}$. Now, since $M$ is irreducible and aperiodic, by fact (F1) and Lemma 3, we obtain that $M^{n^{2}}$ has all strictly positive entries and now by fact (F2), we conclude that $\Delta^{\prime}\left(w_{i}, f\right)<\Delta^{\prime}\left(\left(f+b_{i}\right), f\right)$. Which in turn implies that each $\lambda_{i}<1$ and so $\lambda<1$. Now, we have the following contraction property on the norm $\Delta^{\prime}$.

Claim 1: For all $\mu, \Delta^{\prime}\left(\mu \cdot M^{n^{2}}, f\right) \leq \lambda \cdot \Delta^{\prime}(\mu, f)$.
Proof: Fix $\mu=f+\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}} \alpha_{i} b_{i}$. We have $\Delta^{\prime}(\mu, f)=$ $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}}\left|\alpha_{i}\right|$. Also, for all $j \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}$, we write $w_{j}=\left(f+b_{j}\right)$. $M^{n^{2}}=f+\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}} \beta_{i} b_{i}$, from which we get $b_{j} \cdot M^{n^{2}}=$ $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}}\left(\beta_{i} b_{i}\right)$ and $\Delta^{\prime}\left(w_{j}, f\right)=\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}}\left|\beta_{i}\right|$. Thus by definition of $\lambda$ we have,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}}\left|\beta_{i}\right|=\Delta^{\prime}\left(w_{j}, f\right) \leq \lambda \cdot \Delta^{\prime}\left(\left(f+b_{j}\right), f\right) \leq \lambda \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now, again by linearity of $M$, we have $\left(\mu \cdot M^{n^{2}}\right)=f+$ $\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}} \alpha_{i}\left(b_{i} \cdot M^{n^{2}}\right)=f+\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}} \alpha_{i} \sum_{k \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}} \beta_{k} b_{k}=f+$ $\sum_{k \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}}\left[\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}} \alpha_{i} \beta_{k}\right] b_{k}$. Hence

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\Delta^{\prime}\left(\mu \cdot M^{n^{2}}, f\right)=\sum_{k \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}}\left|\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}} \alpha_{i} \beta_{k}\right| \leq \sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}} \sum_{k \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}}\left|\alpha_{i}\right|\left|\beta_{k}\right| \\
=\sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}}\left|\alpha_{i}\right| \sum_{k \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}}\left|\beta_{k}\right| \leq \sum_{i \in \mathcal{X}^{\prime}}\left|\alpha_{i}\right| \cdot \lambda=\lambda \cdot \Delta^{\prime}(\mu, f)
\end{array}
$$

(end of Claim 1)
Notice that by the definition $\lambda$ and because of this claim, this value of $\lambda$ is an optimal contraction factor for the norm $\Delta^{\prime}$. Indeed, there exists at least one distribution $\mu$ for which $\lambda$ is reached, so no $\lambda^{\prime}<\lambda$ fits.

Now since $\lambda<1$, from Equation (1) and Claim 1, we have for any $k \geq 1, \eta_{1} \cdot \Delta\left(\mu \cdot M^{\left(n^{2} \cdot k\right)}, f\right) \leq \Delta^{\prime}\left(\mu \cdot M^{\left(n^{2} \cdot k\right)}, f\right) \leq$ $\lambda^{k} \cdot \Delta^{\prime}(\mu, f) \leq \eta_{2} \cdot \Delta(\mu, f)$ where, $\eta_{1}$ and $\eta_{2}$ are the bounds on the norm $\Delta^{\prime}$ computed earlier. Then, we just choose $k=\ell^{\prime}$ such that $\delta=\frac{\lambda^{\ell^{\prime}} \eta_{2}}{\eta_{1}}<1$, which gives the proof of Lemma 2.
(end of Lemma 2)

