Quasi-Stationary distributions for Randomly perturbed dynamical systems

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Abstract: We analyze quasi-stationary distributions \( \{ \mu^\varepsilon \}_{\varepsilon>0} \) of a family of Markov chains \( \{ X^\varepsilon \}_{\varepsilon>0} \) that are random perturbations of a bounded, continuous map \( F : M \to M \), where \( M \) is a closed subset of \( \mathbb{R}^k \). Consistent with many models in biology, these Markov chains have a closed absorbing set \( M_0 \subset M \) such that \( F(M_0) = M_0 \) and \( F(M \setminus M_0) = M \setminus M_0 \). Under some large deviations assumptions on the random perturbations, we show that, if there exists a positive attractor for \( F \) (i.e. an attractor for \( F \) in \( M \setminus M_0 \)), then the weak* limit points of \( \mu^\varepsilon \) are supported by the positive attractors of \( F \). To illustrate the broad applicability of these results, we apply them to nonlinear branching process models of metapopulations, competing species, host-parasitoid interactions, and evolutionary games.

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1. Introduction

A fundamental issue in biology is what are the minimal conditions to ensure the long-term survivorship for all of the interacting components whether they be viral particles, bio-chemicals, plants, or animals. When these conditions are met the interacting populations are said to persist or coexist. Since the pioneering work of Lotka [1925] and Volterra [1926] on competitive and predator–prey interactions, Thompson [1924], Nicholson and Bailey [1935] on host–parasite interactions, and Kermack and McKendrick [1927] on disease outbreaks, nonlinear difference and differential equations have been used to understand conditions for persistence of interacting populations. For these deterministic models, persistence is often equated with an attractor bounded away from the extinction states in which case persistence holds over an infinite time horizon [Schreiber, 2006b]. In reality, extinction in finite time is inevitable due to finite population sizes and mortality events occurring with positive probability. However, for systems with large number of individuals or particles, these times to extinction may be sufficiently long that the system remains in a “metastable state” bounded away from extinction for a long time. To provide a rigorous mathematical basis for this intuition, we develop a general theory for randomly perturbed dynamical systems with absorbing states. Under the appropriate assumptions about the random perturbations, we show that the existence of a positive attractor (i.e. an attractor which is bounded away from extinction states) for the unperturbed system implies two things as the number of individuals or particles gets large. First, when they exist, quasi-stationary distributions concentrate on the positive attractors of the unperturbed system. Second, the expected time to extinction for systems starting according to this quasi-stationary distribution grows exponentially with the system size. In particular, we generalize earlier related work for one-dimensional randomly perturbed dynamical systems [Högnäs, 1997, Klebaner et al., 1998,
Ramanan and Zeitouni, 1999) to higher dimensional systems by extending a general theory of randomly perturbed systems without absorbing states [Kifer, 1988, 1989, 1990] to a general theory of randomly perturbed systems with absorbing states.

For the unperturbed, deterministic dynamics, we consider a bounded continuous map \( F : M \rightarrow M \), where \( M \) is a closed subset of \( \mathbb{R}^d \). A random perturbation of \( F \) is a family of homogeneous Markov chains \( \{X^\varepsilon \}_{\varepsilon > 0} \) on \( M \), whose transition kernels

\[
p^\varepsilon(x, \Gamma) = \Pr \left[ X^\varepsilon_{n+1} \in \Gamma \mid X^\varepsilon_n = x \right], \quad x \in M, \Gamma \text{ Borel subset of } M
\]

enjoy the following standing hypothesis:

**Standing Hypothesis 1.1** For any \( \delta > 0 \), \( \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \beta_\delta(\varepsilon) = 0 \) where

\[
\beta_\delta(\varepsilon) = \sup_{x \in M} p^\varepsilon \left( x, M \setminus N^\delta(F(x)) \right)
\]

and \( N^\delta(A) := \{ x \in M : \inf_{y \in A} \| x - y \| < \delta \} \) denotes the \( \delta \)-neighborhood of \( A \).

All Standing Hypotheses are assumed to hold throughout the paper. Standing Hypothesis 1.1 implies that \( p^\varepsilon(x, \cdot) \) converges uniformly to the Dirac measure \( \delta_{F(x)} \) at \( F(x) \) for the vague convergence of measures, i.e. for any continuous function \( g : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) with compact support,

\[
\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \sup_{x \in M} \left| \int_M g(y)p^\varepsilon(x, dy) - g(F(x)) \right| = 0.
\]

Consequently, for small \( \varepsilon > 0 \), the asymptotic behavior of the Markov chain \( \{X^\varepsilon_n\}_{n=1}^\infty \) should be related to the dynamics of iterating the map \( F \).

When the perturbed system admits an invariant measure (e.g. the Markov chains are irreducible), the correspondence between the deterministic dynamics and the perturbed counterpart was initially studied by Andronov et al. [1933], and more recently by Sinai [1972], Ruelle [1981], Freidlin and Wentzell [1984] and Kifer [1988, 1989, 1990]. Recall that a Borel probability measure \( \mu \) on \( M \) is called a stationary distribution for \( p^\varepsilon \) if

\[
\int_M p^\varepsilon(x, \Gamma)\mu(dx) = \mu(\Gamma), \text{ for any Borel set } \Gamma \subset M.
\]

These invariant measures describe the long-term statistical behavior of the perturbed system. Let us assume, for a moment, that for all \( \varepsilon > 0 \), the Markov chain \( X^\varepsilon \) admits (at least) one invariant measure \( \mu_\varepsilon \). We call \( \mu \) a limiting measure of the family of measure \( \{\mu_\varepsilon\}_{\varepsilon > 0} \) if \( \mu \) is the weak* limit of some sequence \( \{\mu_{\varepsilon_n}\}_{n=1}^\infty \), where \( \varepsilon_n \) decreases to zero. Natural questions about these limiting measures include: Are the limiting measures invariant for the deterministic dynamics? If so, what can be said about their support?

Kifer [1988, 1989, 1990] considered these questions under the assumption that the transition kernels \( p^\varepsilon \) satisfied the following large deviation assumption: there exists a continuous, non-negative rate function \( \rho \) such that

\[
\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \varepsilon \log p^\varepsilon(x, U) = -\inf_{y \in U} \rho(x, y),
\]

for any open set \( U \subset M \) and uniformly in \( x \in M \). Under suitable assumptions, Kifer proved that limiting measures are invariant for \( F \) (i.e. \( \mu(\Gamma) = \mu(F^{-1}(\Gamma)) \)) for all Borel set \( \Gamma \) and are supported by the attractors of the deterministic dynamics. In particular, Kifer’s approach allowed him to derive some of Freidlin and Wentzell’s results on the asymptotic behavior of invariant measures for diffusion processes \( X_t^\varepsilon \) generated by operators of the form \( L^\varepsilon = \varepsilon L + b \) where \( L \) is a “good” second-order elliptic differential operator and \( b \) a vector field [Freidlin and Wentzell, 1984, Chapter 6].
While Kifer’s results are applicable to a wide class of stochastic models for the physical sciences, they are not applicable to many models in ecology, epidemiology, immunology, and evolution. These stochastic models often have absorbing states $M_0 \subset M$ corresponding to the loss of one or more populations that satisfy the following standing hypothesis.

**Standing Hypothesis 1.2** The state space $M$ can be written $M = M_0 \cup M_1$, where

- $M_0$ is a closed subset of $M$;
- $M_0$ and $M_1$ are positively $F$-invariant, i.e. $F(M_0) \subseteq M_0$ and $F(M_1) \subseteq M_1$;
- the set $M_0$ is assumed to be absorbing for the random perturbations:

$$p^e(x, M_1) = 0, \text{ for all } e > 0, x \in M_0.$$  \hspace{1cm} (2)

For many of these biological models, the set $M_0$ of absorbing states is reached in finite time almost surely for any $e > 0$. Despite this eventual absorption, the process $\{X_n\}_{n=1}^\infty$ may spend an exceptionally long period of time in the set $M_1$ of transient states provided that $e > 0$ is sufficiently small. In applications, this “metastable” behavior may correspond to long-term persistence of an endemic disease, coexistence of interacting species, or maintenance of a genetic polymorphism. One approach to examining metastable behavior are quasi-stationary distributions which are invariant distributions when the perturbed process is conditioned on non-absorption. More specifically,

**Definition 1.3** A probability measure $\mu_\varepsilon$ on $M_1$ is a quasi-stationary distribution (QSD) for $p^\varepsilon$ provided there exists $\lambda_\varepsilon \in (0,1)$ such that

$$\int_{M_1} p^\varepsilon(x, \Gamma) \mu_\varepsilon(dx) = \lambda_\varepsilon \mu_\varepsilon(\Gamma) \text{ for all Borel } \Gamma \subset M_1.$$

Equivalently, dropping the index $\varepsilon$, a QSD $\mu$ satisfies the identity

$$\mu(\Gamma) = P_\mu (X_n \in \Gamma | X_0 \in M_1), \forall n,$$

where $P_\mu$ denotes the law of the Markov chain $\{X_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$, conditional to $X_0$ being distributed according to $\mu$. Quasi-stationary distributions can sometimes be defined through the so-called Yaglom limit:

$$\mu(\Gamma) = \lim_{n \to +\infty} P_x \{X_n \in \Gamma | X_0 \in M_1\},$$

when the limit exists and is independent of the initial state $x \in M_1$. When $P(X_1 \in \cdot) = \mu(\cdot)$, $\lambda$ is the probability of not being absorbed in the next time step. The existence of QSDs has been studied extensively [Darroch and Seneta, 1965, Seneta and Vere-Jones, 1966, Tweedie, 1974, Barbour, 1976, Nummelin and Arjas, 1976, Arjas et al., 1980, Kijima, 1992, Ferrari et al., 1995, Chan, 1998, Laserrre and Pearce, 2001, Gosselin, 2001, Coolen-Schrijner and van Doorn, 2006, Buckley and Pollett, 2010].

Högnäs [1997], Klebaner et al. [1998], Ramanan and Zeitouni [1999] studied weak* limit points $\mu$ of QSDs $\mu_\varepsilon$ as $\varepsilon \to 0$ for maps of the interval i.e. $M = [0,1]$ and $M_0 = \{0\}$. Under suitable assumptions, these authors have shown that if $F$ admits an attractor in $(0,1)$, then the limiting measure $\mu$ is $F$-invariant and concentrated on the attractors of $F$ in $(0,1)$. Moreover, $\lambda_\varepsilon \geq 1 - e^{-c/\varepsilon}$ for an appropriate constant $c > 0$. This final assertion implies that if the perturbed processes is initiated in the quasi-stationary state, then the expected time to absorption increases exponentially with exponent $1/\varepsilon$ as $\varepsilon$ decreases to zero.

Here, we extend these types of results to higher dimensional systems where $M$ is a subset of $\mathbb{R}^d$. The two main results of the paper are stated in Section 2. First, we state a general result that ensures that the QSDs concentrate on attractors of $F$ restricted to $M_1$. This result requires conditions on the topological dynamics and the rate at which $\beta_M(\varepsilon)$ in Standing Hypothesis 1.1 goes to zero. Second, for many applications, the randomly perturbed Markov chains
satisfy large deviation assumptions. We present a result that guarantees the conditions of the general theorem are satisfied. Proofs of these two results are presented in Sections 3 and 4, respectively. In Section 3, we also show how the main result of Klebaner et al. [1998] can be derived from our general theorem. In Section 5, we apply our results to stochastic models of metapopulation dynamics, competing species, host-parasitoid interactions, and evolutionary games. In Section 6, we conclude by verifying the large deviation assumptions for the examples in Section 5.

2. Statement of the main results

Let \{X^t\}_{t>0} be a family of Markov chains on a closed set \(M \subset \mathbb{R}^d\), which satisfies Standing Hypothesis 1.2. Since \(M\) is assumed to be a closed subset of \(\mathbb{R}^d\), every topological concept must be understood in terms of the topology induced in \(M\). In particular, in the following, a compact set \(K\) will always be a closed (in \(M\)) bounded set \(K \subset M\).

We assume that, for each \(\varepsilon > 0\), there exists at least one QSD \(\mu\) such that \(\lambda > 0\) such that \(\lambda \mu = Q^\varepsilon \mu\) where \(Q^\varepsilon\) is the operator defined on the set of finite Borel measures on \(M\) by

\[
Q^\varepsilon(\mu)(\Gamma) = \int_{M} p^\varepsilon(x,\Gamma) \mu(dx) \tag{1}
\]

Our main results concern characterizing the support of weak* limit points \(\mu\) of the \(\mu\) as \(\varepsilon \downarrow 0\). Under suitable assumptions, we show that these weak* limit points are supported by attractors of the map \(F\) that lie in \(M\) (see 2.1 for a definition of an attractor). In Section 2.1, we describe sufficient conditions for this result with suitable assumptions about the topological dynamics of \(F\) and \(\beta_\varepsilon(\varepsilon)\) in Standing Hypothesis 1.1 goes to zero. In Section 2.3, we describe large deviation assumptions which satisfy the assumptions presented Section 2.1 and which are easier to verify for applications presented in Section 5.

2.1. Absorption-preserving chain recurrence and convergence to attractors

We begin by recalling a few definitions from dynamical system theory. Let \(F^n\) be the \(n\)-iterate of \(F\). A set \(B \subset M\) is invariant for \(F\) if \(F(B) = B\). A compact set \(A\) is an attractor for \(F\) provided there exists an open neighborhood \(U\) of \(A\) such that \(\cap_{n \geq 1} F^n(U) = A\) and, for any open set \(V \supset A\), there exists \(n(V)\) such that \(F^n(U) \subset V\) for all \(n \geq n(V)\).

The key notions needed for our main result is absorption preserving pseudoorbits and chain recurrence introduced in Jacobs and Schreiber [2006]. These definitions generalize Conley [1978]'s notion of pseudoorbits and chain recurrence. Given \(\delta > 0\), a family of points \(\xi = (\xi_0, \ldots, \xi_n) \in M^{n+1}\) is called an absorption preserving \(\delta\)-pseudoorbit joining \(x\) to \(y\) (ap \(\delta\)-pseudoorbit for short) provided that

\[
\begin{align*}
& a) \ x = \xi_0, \ y = \xi_n, \\
& b) \ \xi_i \in M_0 \Rightarrow \xi_{i+1} \in M_0, \text{ and} \\
& c) \ d(\xi_{i+1}, F(\xi_i)) < \delta, \ i = 0, \ldots, n-1.
\end{align*}
\]

One can think of ap \(\delta\)-pseudoorbits as approximations of actual orbits of the dynamics of \(F\) with an error no greater than \(\delta\) and that preserve the absorbing set \(M_0\). For readers unfamiliar with these concepts, consider \(F\) to be the identity map on the interval \([0, 1]\). Then any two points on the interval are connected by \(\delta\)-pseudoorbits, for any \(\delta > 0\). However, as every point is a fixed point, none of the points are connected by iterating the map \(F\).

Given \(x, y \in M\), we say that \(x\) ap-chains to \(y\) and write \(x \prec_{ap} y\) if for any \(\delta > 0\) there exists an ap \(\delta\)-pseudoorbit joining \(x\) to \(y\). Notice that no point in \(M_0\) ap-chains to any point in \(M_1\). If \(x \prec_{ap} y\) and \(y \prec_{ap} x\) we shall write \(x \sim_{ap} y\). If \(x \sim_{ap} x\), then \(x\) is an ap-chain recurrent point. The set \(R_{ap}\) of ap-chain recurrent points is \(F\)-invariant. The relation \(\sim_{ap}\), restricted to this set defines an equivalence relation. The equivalent classes, \([x]_{ap}\) with \(x \in R_{ap}\), are
called *ap-basic classes*. In Section 3.1, we prove various properties of these equivalence classes e.g. $\omega(x) \subset \mathcal{R}_{ap}$ whenever $\omega(x) \subset M_0$ or $\omega(x) \subset M_1$.

Let $[x]_{ap}$ and $[y]_{ap}$ be two distinct ap-basic classes. We write $[x]_{ap} <_{ap} [y]_{ap}$ if $x <_{ap} y$. A maximal basic class $[x]_{ap}$ (i.e., $[x]_{ap} <_{ap} [y]_{ap}$ implies that $[x]_{ap} = [y]_{ap}$) is called an *ap-quasiattractor*. In general, an ap-quasiattractor need not be an attractor for $F$. A simple example is an increasing function $F : [0, 1] \to [0, 1]$ with $F(x) = x$ for $x = 1 - 1/n$ for all natural numbers $n$ and $F(x) \neq x$ otherwise. If $M_0 = \{0\}$, then $x = 1$ is a quasi-attractor but not an attractor for $F$.

We need three hypotheses in order to state the first main result. The first hypothesis requires that there are a finite number of ap-basic classes including at least one ap-quasiattractor in $M_1$. This assumption is satisfied for many important classes of mappings including gradient-like systems and Axiom A systems. When this hypothesis is satisfied, we prove in Section 3.2 that all the ap-quasiattractors are in fact attractors.

**Hypothesis 2.1** There exists only a finite number of ap-basic classes in $M_1 : \{K_i\}_{i=1,...,v}$. Moreover, we assume that they are closed sets and $\{K_i\}_{i=1,...,\ell}$ with $\ell \geq 1$ are the ap-quasiattractors and $\{K_i\}_{i=\ell+1,...,v}$ are the non ap-quasiattractors.

Our second hypothesis ensures the time spent near non ap-quasiattractors is not too long relative the $\beta_\delta(\varepsilon)$ described in Standing Hypothesis 1.1. For any Borel set $V$, we define the first passage time $\tau^V_\varepsilon = \min\{n : X^n_\varepsilon \notin V\}$.

**Hypothesis 2.2** Given any $\delta > 0$, there exist neighborhoods $V_i \subset N^\delta(K_i)$ of $K_i$ for $\ell + 1 \leq i \leq v$ and quantity $\delta_1 \in (0, 1)$ such that

$$\sup_{x \in V_i} \mathbb{P}_x \left[ \tau^V_{\varepsilon} > h(\varepsilon) \right] \leq \zeta(\varepsilon) \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \zeta(\varepsilon) = 0$$

for a function $h$ satisfying

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} b(\varepsilon)\beta_{\delta_1}(\varepsilon) = 0.$$  

Our final hypothesis provides a lower bound on the probability of absorption on the event $X^n_\varepsilon$ is sufficiently close to $M_0$.

**Hypothesis 2.3** There exists a neighborhood $V_0$ of $M_0$ such that

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \inf_{x \in V_0} \mathbb{P}^\varepsilon(x, M_0) = 0.$$  

We prove in section 3 that, if $M_0$ is a global attractor, then $\mu$ is supported by $M_0$ (see Theorem 3.12). The main result of this section is the following theorem. A proof is given in Section 3.

**Theorem 2.4** Assume that Hypotheses 2.1 and 2.2 hold. Then any weak* limit point $\mu$ of $\{\mu^\varepsilon\}_{\varepsilon > 0}$ satisfies $\mu(V_j) = 0$ for $j = \ell + 1, ..., v$. In addition, if Hypothesis 2.3 holds, then $\mu$ is supported by the union of the attractors $\bigcup_{i=1}^v K_i$.

Moreover, there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that $\lambda_\varepsilon \geq 1 - \beta_\delta(\varepsilon)$ for all $\varepsilon > 0$ sufficiently small.

### 2.2. Large deviation hypotheses

For applications, it is often easier to verify certain large deviation hypotheses rather than Hypotheses 2.2 and 2.3. To this end we consider the following large deviation hypothesis.

**Hypothesis 2.5** There exists a function $\rho : M \times M \to [0, +\infty]$ such that

(i) $\rho$ is continuous on $M_1 \times M$.  

(ii) \( \rho(x, y) = 0 \) if and only if \( y = F(x) \),

(iii) for any \( \beta > 0 \),

\[
\inf \{ \rho(x, y) : x \in M, y \in M, d(F(x), y) > \beta \} > 0
\]

where \( d(x, y) = \max_i |x_i - y_i| \),

(iv) for any open set \( U \), we have the large deviations lower bound

\[
\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \inf \varepsilon \log p^\varepsilon(x, U) \geq - \inf_{y \in U} \rho(x, y)
\]

that holds uniformly for \( x \) in compact subsets of \( M_1 \) whenever \( U \) is an open ball in \( M \). Additionally, for any closed set \( C \), we have the uniform upper bound

\[
\limsup_{\varepsilon \to 0} \sup_{x \in M} \varepsilon \log p^\varepsilon(x, C) \leq - \inf_{y \in C} \rho(x, y)
\]

Equations (3) and (5) imply that Standing Hypothesis 1.1 holds. Additionally, since \( M_0 \) is absorbing, (4) implies that \( \rho(x, y) = +\infty \) for all \( x \in M_0, y \in M_1 \). The upper bound (5) can be weakened as a uniform bound on compact subsets of \( M_1 \). In that case, Hypothesis 1.1 is no longer implied by Hypothesis 2.5.

We also make the following assumption that ensures absorption is reasonably likely when the process is near the absorbing states.

**Hypothesis 2.6** For any \( c > 0 \), there exists an open neighborhood \( V_0 \) of \( M_0 \) such that

\[
\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \inf_{x \in V_0} \varepsilon \log p^\varepsilon(x, M_0) \geq -c.
\]

To state our main result under these large deviation assumptions, we need to introduce an alternative notion of chain recurrence. Given \( n \in \mathbb{N}^* = \{0, 1, 2, 3, \ldots \} \), define the function \( A_n \) on \( M^{n+1} = M \times \cdots \times M \) by \( n + 1 \) times

\[
\xi = (\xi_0, \ldots, \xi_n) \mapsto A_n(\xi) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \rho(\xi_i, \xi_{i+1}).
\]

\( A_n \) measures the “cost” of \( X^\xi_n \) following the partial trajectory \( \xi \) where the cost is measured in terms of how much “noise” is required to move along this partial trajectory. For any \( x, y \) in \( M \), we define

\[
B_\rho(x, y) = \inf \{ A_n(\xi) \mid n \geq 1, \xi \in M^{n+1}, \xi_0 = x, \xi_n = y \}.
\]

The function \( B_\rho(x, y) \) represents the minimal cost in going from \( x \) to \( y \). \( B_\rho \) induces a partial order on \( M \) by writing \( x \leq y \) (i.e. “\( x \) \( \rho \)-chains to \( y \)”) if \( B_\rho(x, y) = 0 \). Roughly, \( x \) \( \rho \)-chains to \( y \) if there exist paths joining \( x \) to \( y \) with arbitrarily low costs. If \( x \leq y \) and \( y \leq x \), we write \( x \sim \rho y \).

We define the set of \( \rho \)-chain recurrent points \( \mathcal{R}_\rho \) to be the set of points \( x \in M \) such that \( x \sim \rho x \). The \( \rho \)-basic classes are the equivalence classes for \( \sim_\rho \) restricted to the \( \rho \)-chain recurrent set. Since a point in \( M_0 \) never \( \rho \)-chains to a point in \( M_1 \), the \( \rho \)-basic classes are included either in \( M_0 \) or in \( M_1 \). In general, the \( \rho \)-basic classes and the ap-basic classes introduced in Section 2.1 need not be equivalent. For example, consider \( F : [0, 1] \to [0, 1] \) given by the identity map \( F(x) = x \) for all \( x \) and \( M_0 = \emptyset \). Let \( \rho(x, y) = |x - y| \). Then every point \( \{x\} \) is a \( \rho \)-basic class but the only ap-basic class is \( [0, 1] \). However, unlike this example, if there are a finite number of \( \rho \)-basic classes, then we prove in Section 4 (see Theorem 4.12) that the ap-basic classes and \( \rho \)-basic classes agree.
Given a \( \rho \)-chain recurrent point \( x \), let \( [x]_\rho \) denote its \( \rho \)-basic class. We say that \( [x]_\rho <_\rho [y]_\rho \) if \( x <_\rho y \) and call \( \rho \)-quasiattractors the maximal \( \rho \)-equivalence classes. When a \( \rho \)-quasiattractor \( A \) is isolated (i.e. there is a neighborhood of the quasi-attractor containing no other \( \rho \)-chain recurrent point), we prove in Section 4 that \( A \) is an attractor for \( F \) (see Proposition 4.6).

In Section 4, we use Theorem 2.4 to prove the following result. Applications of Theorem 2.7 are given in Section 5.

**Theorem 2.7** Assume that Hypotheses 2.5 and 2.6 hold and that there exists a finite number of \( \rho \)-basic classes in \( M_1 \), which are closed. If

- there is at least one \( \rho \)-quasiattractor \( A \) among the \( \rho \)-basic classes in \( M_1 \), and
- \( \mu_\varepsilon(U) > 0 \) for any neighborhood \( U \) of \( A \) and \( \varepsilon > 0 \),

then any weak*-limit point of \( \{\mu_\varepsilon\}_{\varepsilon > 0} \) is \( F \)-invariant and is supported by the union of \( \rho \)-quasiattractors in \( M_1 \). Moreover, there exists \( c > 0 \) such that \( \lambda_\varepsilon \geq 1 - e^{-c/\varepsilon} \) for all \( \varepsilon > 0 \).

**Remark 2.8** Assume that there is a finite number of closed non-quasiattractors \([x_1]_\rho,\ldots,[x_N]_\rho\) in \( M_1 \) and \( A = (\mathcal{R}_\rho \cap M_1) \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^N [x_i]_\rho \) is an attractor for \( F \). Then the main result still holds: if \( \mu_\varepsilon(U) > 0 \) for any neighborhood \( U \) of \( A \) and \( \varepsilon > 0 \), then any weak*-limit point of \( \{\mu_\varepsilon\}_{\varepsilon > 0} \) is \( F \)-invariant and is supported by \( A \). Moreover, there exists \( C > 0 \) such that \( \lambda_\varepsilon \geq 1 - e^{-C/\varepsilon} \) for all \( \varepsilon > 0 \).

### 3. Proof of Theorem 2.4

In this section, we prove Theorem 2.4. We begin by proving several key results about ap-chain recurrence in Section 3.1 and 3.2. In Section 3.3, we prove some key properties of limiting quasi-stationary distributions. A proof of Theorem 2.4 is given in Section 3.4. In Section 3.5, we show how our proof of Theorem 2.4 provides an alternative proof of the main result of Klebaner et al. [1998]. In addition to the Standing Hypotheses, the results in Section 3.2 require Hypothesis 2.1, and the proofs in Sections 3.4 and 3.5 require Hypotheses 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3.

#### 3.1. Absorption preserving chain recurrence

We recall a few definitions and facts from dynamical systems. The \( \omega \)-limit set of \( B \subset M \) is given by \( \omega(B) = \cap_{n \geq 1} \bigcup_{p \geq n} F^p(B) \). It is the maximal invariant set in the closure of \( \cup_{n \geq 0} F^n(B) \). An equivalent definition of an attractor presented in Section 2.1 is that a compact set \( A \) is an attractor for \( F \) provided it admits an open neighborhood \( U \) such that \( \omega(U) = A \); the open set \( \{x \in M : \omega(x) \subset A\} \) is then called the basin of attraction of \( A \). By a classical result (see Conley [1978]), a compact set \( A \) is an attractor for \( F \) if and only if there exists an open set \( V \) which contains \( A \) and such that

\[
F(V) \subset V, \quad \cap_{n \in \mathbb{N}} F^n(V) = A. \tag{7}
\]

Our assumption that \( \|F\| = \sup_{x \in M} \|F(x)\| < \infty \) implies that the set \( \mathcal{R}_{ap} \) of ap-chain recurrent points is included in \( N\|F\|(0) \). The relation \( \sim_{ap} \), restricted to this set defines an equivalence relation. Unlike the ap-basic classes lying in \( M_0 \), the ap-basic classes lying in \( M_1 \) may not be closed. However, we have the following:

**Lemma 3.1** Let \( x \) be an ap-chain recurrent point in \( M_1 \). Then \( [x]_{ap} \subset M_0 \cup [x]_{ap} \). In particular,

\[
[x]_{ap} \subset M_1 \Rightarrow [x]_{ap} \text{ closed.}
\]
Proof. Let \( y \in \overline{[x]}_{ap} \). There exists a sequence \( \{ y_k \} \) in \( [x]_{ap} \) which converges to \( y \). Any \( \text{ap} \delta \)-pseudoorbit from \( x \) to \( y_k \) is an \( \text{ap} 2\delta \)-pseudoorbit from \( x \) to \( y \), provided \( k \) is chosen large enough. Hence \( x <_{ap} y \). On the other hand, assume that \( y \notin M_0 \) and consider an \( \text{ap} \delta \)-pseudoorbit \( (\xi_0, \ldots, \xi_n) \) chaining \( y_k \) to \( x \). We have

\[
d(F(y), \xi_1) \leq \delta + d(F(y), F(y_k)) \leq 2\delta,
\]

by continuity of \( F \) provided \( k \) is large enough. Consequently, \( (y, \xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n) \) is an \( \text{ap} 2\delta \)-pseudoorbit chaining \( y \) to \( x \) and \( y \in [x]_{ap} \).

The following lemma shows that \( \text{ap} \)-basic classes are invariant.

Lemma 3.2 Any \( \text{ap} \)-basic class \( [x]_{ap} \) is positively \( F \)-invariant: \( F([x]_{ap}) \subseteq [x]_{ap} \). If \( [x]_{ap} \subseteq M_1 \) (which implies that \( [x]_{ap} \) is closed), it is \( F \)-invariant: \( F([x]_{ap}) = [x]_{ap} \).

Proof. If \( [x]_{ap} \) is a singleton, then \( F(x) = x \) and there is nothing to prove. Assume that there exists \( y \neq x \) such that \( y \in [x]_{ap} \). For any \( \delta > 0 \), continuity and boundedness of \( F(M) \) implies that there exists a \( \delta/2 > \delta' > 0 \) such that

\[
d(z, F(z)) < \delta' \Rightarrow d(F(z), F^2(z)) < \delta/2 \text{ for all } z \in M.
\]

Pick an \( \delta' \)-pseudoorbit \( (x = \xi_0, \xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n = y) \) joining \( x \) to \( y \). Since \( d(\xi_1, F(x)) \leq \delta' \)

\[
d(F^2(x), \xi_2) \leq d(F^2(x), F(\xi_1)) + d(F(\xi_1), \xi_2) \leq \delta/2 + \delta' < \delta,
\]

and \( (F(x), \xi_2, \ldots, \xi_n) \) is an \( \text{ap} \delta \)-pseudoorbit joining \( F(x) \) to \( y \). Hence, \( F([x]_{ap}) \subseteq [x]_{ap} \).

Next, let us assume that \( [x]_{ap} \) is closed in \( M_1 \). For every \( y \in [x]_{ap} \), we need to prove that \( y = F(y') \) for some \( y' \in [x]_{ap} \). For any \( \delta > 0 \), choose an \( \text{ap} \delta \)-pseudoorbit \( (\xi^\delta_0, \ldots, \xi^\delta_n) \) joining \( y \) to itself. Now choose a compact set \( K \subseteq M_1 \) containing an open neighborhood of \( [x]_{ap} \). We prove in the next section (see Remark 3.7) that the families \( \xi^\delta \) can be chosen in such a way that they are contained in \( K \). In particular the family \( \xi^\delta_{n(\delta)-1} \) admits an accumulation point \( y' \) as \( \delta \rightarrow 0 \). By continuity of \( F \), \( F(y') = y \) and, therefore, \( y' \sim_{ap} y \sim_{ap} x \).

For classical chain recurrence, \( \omega(x) \) is contained in the chain recurrent set. While \( \text{ap} \)-chain recurrence shares this property whenever \( \omega(x) \subseteq M_0 \) or \( \omega(x) \subseteq M_1 \), in general it only satisfies a weaker property.

Lemma 3.3 For \( x \in M \), \( \omega(x) \cap R_{ap} \neq \emptyset \).

Proof. If \( x \in M_0 \) or \( \omega(x) \subseteq M_1 \), then the classical result for chain recurrence implies \( \omega(x) \subseteq R_{ap} \). Suppose \( x \in M_1 \) and \( y \in \omega(x) \cap M_0 \). Then \( \omega(y) \subseteq R_{ap} \). Since \( \omega(y) \subseteq \omega(x) \), the result follows.

Lemma 3.4 If \( [x]_{ap} \) is maximal then \( x \sim_{ap} z \) if and only if \( z \in [x]_{ap} \). In particular, any \( \text{ap} \)-quasiattractor \( [x]_{ap} \) is compact.

Proof. Let \( z \) be such that \( x <_{ap} z \). To prove that \( z \in [x]_{ap} \), we need to show that \( z \sim_{ap} x \). By Lemma 3.3, \( \omega(z) \cap R_{ap} \neq \emptyset \). Hence there exists \( z' \in \omega(z) \cap R_{ap} \). In particular, \( x <_{ap} z <_{ap} z' \). As \( z' \in R_{ap} \), maximality of \( [x]_{ap} \) implies that \( z' \in [x]_{ap} \). Thus \( z \sim_{ap} x \). In particular, if \( y \in [x]_{ap} \), then the proof of Lemma 4.1 implies that \( y >_{ap} x \). Hence, \( y \in [x]_{ap} \) and \( [x]_{ap} \) is closed.

The next result is an easy consequence of Proposition 4.2 in Kifer [1988]. A closed \( \text{ap} \) basic set is said to be isolated in \( M_1 \) if it admits an open neighborhood which is disjoint from any other \( \text{ap} \) basic class.

Theorem 3.5 Let \( [x]_{ap} \) be an isolated \( \text{ap} \)-quasiattractor in \( M_1 \). Then \( [x]_{ap} \) is an attractor.
3.2. Finiteness of the ap-basic classes

Throughout this subsection, we require Hypothesis 2.1. Namely, there exists a finite number of ap-basic classes \( \{K_i\}_{i=1}^r \) where the \( K_i \) are closed sets, \( \{K_i\}_{i=1}^r \) are ap-quasiattractors and \( \{K_i\}_{i=t+1}^\infty \) are non ap-quasiattractors.

The following result is proved in [Kifer, 1988, p. 217–8] for classical chain recurrence. We give a proof adapted to our settings for the convenience of the reader.

**Lemma 3.6**

a) For any \( \theta > 0 \) sufficiently small, there exists a quantity \( 0 < \delta(\theta) < \theta \) such that, if there is an ap \( \delta(\theta) \)-pseudoorbit \( (\xi_0, \ldots, \xi_n) \) satisfying

\[
d(\xi_0, K_i) < \delta(\theta), \quad d(\xi_j, K_i) > \theta \quad \text{and} \quad d(\xi_n, K_i') < \delta(\theta) \quad \text{for some} \; i, i' \in \{1, \ldots, v\}, \; j \in \{1, \ldots, n\}
\]

then \( i \neq i' \) and \( K_i' \supsetneq \text{ap} \; K_i \).

b) For any \( \delta' > 0 \), there exist \( \delta \in (0, \delta') \) and \( n_0 \geq 1 \) such that any ap \( \delta \)-pseudoorbit of length greater than \( n_0 \) must pass through \( N^{\delta'}(\text{Rap}) \).

**Proof.** Assume that, for any \( \delta > 0 \), there exists an ap \( \delta \)-pseudoorbit \( (\xi_0, \ldots, \xi_n(\delta)) \) such that

\[
d(\xi_0, K_i) \leq \delta \quad \text{and} \quad d(\xi_n(\delta), K_i') \leq \delta.
\]

Then there exists \( \delta_k \downarrow 0, \; y \in K_i \) and \( y' \in K_i' \) such that \( \lim_{k \to \infty} \xi_0^k = y \) and \( \lim_{k \to \infty} \xi_n^k(\delta_k) = y' \). Hence \( d(F(y), \xi_0^k) < \delta_k + d(F(y), \xi_n^k(\delta_k)) \leq \delta_k + d(\xi_n^k(\delta_k), y') \). Therefore, for any \( \delta > 0 \), \( (y, \xi_0^k, \ldots, \xi_n^k) \) is an ap \( \delta \)-pseudoorbit provided that \( k \) is large enough. This proves that \( K_i' >_{\text{ap}} K_i \). As a consequence, if \( K_i' >_{\text{ap}} K_i \) does not hold, this means that there exists some quantity \( \overline{\delta} > 0 \) such that, for any \( \theta < \overline{\delta}, \; \text{we cant have} \) (9). Now pick \( \theta > 0 \) smaller than \( \overline{\delta} \).

Now assume that \( i = i' \). Choose \( \theta \) small enough such that \( N^\theta(K_i) \subset M_i \). Assume that there exist a decreasing sequence \( \delta_k \downarrow 0 \) and ap \( \delta_k \)-pseudoorbits \( (\xi_0^k, \ldots, \xi_n^k) \) such that (8) holds with \( \xi = \xi_n^k, \; \delta = \delta_k \) and \( j = j_k \). Without loss of generality, we may assume that \( \lim_{k \to \infty} \xi_0^k = x \in K_i, \; \lim_{k \to \infty} \xi_{j_k}^k = y \in K \setminus N^\theta(K_i) \) and \( \lim_{k \to \infty} \xi_{n_k}^k = z \in K_i, \) where \( K \subset M_i \) is a compact set such that \( F(N^\theta(K_i)) \subset K \). We then have \( d(\xi_0^k, F(x)) \leq \delta_k + d(F(\xi_n^k), F(x)), \) \( d(y, F(\xi_{j_k}^k)) \leq d(y, \xi_{j_k}^k) + \delta_k, \) \( d(F(y), \xi_j^k) \leq \delta_k + d(F(y), \xi_n^k)), \) and \( d(z, F(\xi_{n_k}^k)) \leq d(y, \xi_{n_k}^k) + \delta_k \). By continuity of \( F \), this implies that, for any \( \delta > 0 \), the sequence \( (x, \xi_1^k, \ldots, \xi_{j_k}^k, y, \xi_{j_k+1}^k, \ldots, \xi_{n_k}^k, z) \) is an ap \( \delta \)-pseudoorbit, provided \( k \) is large enough. Consequently, \( x <_{\text{ap}} y <_{\text{ap}} z \) contradicting the fact that \( K_i \) is an ap-basic class.

We now prove point b). For any \( x \in M \) and \( \gamma > 0 \), Lemma 3.3 implies that the quantity

\[
n^\gamma(x) := \inf \{ n \in \mathbb{N} : \; F^n(x) \in N^\gamma(\text{Rap}) \}
\]

is finite. By continuity of \( F \), \( n^\gamma \) is upper-semicontinuous. Compactness of \( \overline{F(M)} \) and upper semicontinuity implies that \( n^\gamma := \max_{x \in M} n^\gamma(x) \leq \max_{y \in \overline{F(M)}} n^\gamma(y) + 1 < \infty \).

Now assume that there exists \( \delta' > 0 \) such that the statement of (b) is not true. In particular, for each \( k \) there exists an ap \( \delta_k = \delta'/k \)-pseudoorbit of length \( n^{\delta'/2} \), \( \xi_k = (\xi_0^k, \ldots, \xi_{n^{\delta'/2}}^k) \), which does not enter \( N^{\delta'}(\text{Rap}) \). Passing to a subsequence if necessary, we may assume that \( \lim_{k \to \infty} \xi_j^k = \xi_j \in M \) for any \( j = 1, \ldots, n^{\delta'/2} \). The sequence \( \xi \) is a partial solution of the discrete dynamical system induced by \( F \). The \( F(\xi_i) = \xi_{i+1} \) for \( i = 0, \ldots, n^{\delta'/2} - 1 \). The definition of \( n^{\delta'/2} \) implies that there exists \( j_0 \) such that \( d(\xi_{j_0}, \text{Rap}) \leq \delta'/2 \). Hence, \( \xi_{j_0} \in N^{\delta'}(\text{Rap}) \) for \( k \) large enough which contradicts the choice of \( \xi_k \).
Remark 3.7 Notice that, even without the finiteness assumption, the following statement still holds: given an ap-basic class \( [x]_{ap} \) in \( M_1 \) and \( \theta > 0 \), there exists a quantity \( \delta > 0 \) such that any ap \( \delta \)-pseudoorbit joining \( [x]_{ap} \) to itself remains into \( N^\theta([x]_{ap}) \).

Corollary 3.8 Given \( \delta' > 0 \), there exist isolating open neighborhoods \( \{ V_i \}_{i=1,...,v} \) of the ap-basic classes \( \{ K_i \}_{i=1,...,v} \), and positive constants \( \delta_1 \) and \( n_0 \) such that

a) \( \overline{N^\delta(K_i)} \subset V_i \) for \( 1 \leq i \leq v \),

b) Any ap \( \delta_1 \)-pseudoorbit starting in \( V_i \) remains in \( V_i \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, \ell \).

c) If there exists an ap \( \delta_1 \)-pseudoorbit \( (\xi_0, \ldots, \xi_n) \) such that \( \xi_0 \in N^\delta(K_i) \), \( \xi_n \in N^\delta(K_{i'}) \) and \( \xi_k \notin V_i \) for some \( 2 \leq k \leq n-1 \), then \( i \neq i' \) and \( K_{i'} > K_i \).

d) Any ap \( \delta_1 \)-pseudoorbit of length greater than \( n_0 \) must pass through \( N^\delta(R_{ap}) \).

Proof. Choose \( \theta \in (0, \delta') \) sufficiently small so that Lemma 3.6a holds and let \( \delta(\theta) > 0 \) be as given by Lemma 3.6a. Choose neighborhoods \( V_i \) of \( K_i \) such that \( \overline{N^\delta(K_i)} \subset V_i \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, v \) and \( F(V_i) \subset V_i \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, k \). The latter choice is possible as Lemma 3.1 implies that the ap-basic sets \( K_i \) are compact for \( i = 1, \ldots, v \) and Theorem 3.5 implies that \( K_i \) is an attractor for \( i = 1, \ldots, \ell \). Choose \( \delta_1 \in (0, \delta(\theta)) \) such that \( \delta_1 \) is less than the \( \delta \) given by Lemma 3.6b and such that any ap \( \delta_1 \)-pseudoorbit starting in \( V_i \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, \ell \) remains in \( V_i \). This latter choice is possible as \( F(V_i) \subset V_i \) for \( i = 1, \ldots, \ell \). \( \square \)

3.3. Limit behavior of quasi-stationary distributions

Throughout this section, we assume that there exists a decreasing sequence \( \varepsilon_n \downarrow 0 \) such that, for every \( n \in \mathbb{N} \), \( \mu_n \) is a quasi stationary probability measure for \( p^\varepsilon_n \) with associated eigenvalue \( \lambda_n \). Additionally, we assume that \( \mu_n \) converges weakly to a Borel probability measure \( \mu \). We note that the results in this subsection do not require Hypothesis 2.1 or Hypothesis 2.3. Recall from Standing Hypothesis 1.1 that \( \beta_\delta(\varepsilon) = \sup_{x \in M} p^\varepsilon \left( x, M \setminus N^\delta(F(x)) \right) \).

Lemma 3.9 We have the following:

a) \( \liminf_{n \to \infty} \lambda_n \geq \mu(M_1) \). In particular, if \( \mu \) is supported by \( M_1 \), then \( \lim_{n \to \infty} \lambda_n = 1 \). Alternatively, if \( \lim_{n \to \infty} \lambda_n = 0 \) then \( \mu \) is supported by \( M_0 \).

b) If there exists an attractor \( A \subset M_1 \) such that \( \mu_n(U) > 0 \) for every \( n \) and every open neighborhood \( U \) of \( A \), then there exists \( \delta > 0 \) such that

\[
\lambda_n \geq 1 - \beta_\delta(\varepsilon_n)
\]

for all \( n \).

b') If, in addition to the assumption of b), there exists some neighborhood \( V_0 \) of \( M_0 \) such that

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \inf_{x \in V_0} p^\varepsilon_n(x, M_0) = 0,
\]

then \( \mu(V_0) = 0 \).

Proof. a) Let \( (\delta_k)_k \) be a positive sequence, decreasing to zero and define

\[
V_k := \{ x \in M_1 : d(x, M_0) > \delta_k \}, \quad U_k := F^{-1}(V_k).
\]
Notice that \((U_k)_k\) is an increasing sequence of open sets such that \(U_k \subset M_1\) (by \(F\)-invariance of \(M_0\)) and \(\cup_k(U_k) = M_1\) (by closedness of \(M_0\)). We have

\[
\lambda_n \geq \int_{U_k} \mu_n(dx) p^n(x, M_1) \\
\geq \mu_n(U_k) \inf_{x \in U_k} p^n(x, M_1) \\
= \mu_n(U_k)(1 - \sup_{x \in U_k} p^n(x, M_0)).
\]

Since \(F(U_k) \subset V_k\), we have \(N^\delta_k(F(U_k)) \subset M_1\). Thus

\[
\lambda_n \geq \mu_n(U_k)(1 - \sup_{x \in U_k} p^n(x, N^\delta_k(F(x))^c)).
\]

By weak* convergence, the definition of \(\lambda_n\), and Standing Hypothesis 1.1,

\[
\liminf_n \lambda_n \geq \liminf_n \mu_n(U_k) \geq \mu(U_k)
\]

for all \(k\). Point a) follows since \(\lim_k \mu(U_k) = \mu(M_1)\).

b) Choose an open neighborhood \(U\) of \(A\) such that \(F(U) \subset U\) and \(\delta > 0\) such that \(N^\delta(F(U)) \subset U\). We have

\[
\lambda_n \mu_n(U) \geq \mu_n(U)(1 - \sup_{x \in \overline{U}} p^n(x, U^c)).
\]

Since \(p^n(x, U^c) \leq p^n(x, (N^\delta(F(U))^c)^c)\), and \(\mu_n(U) > 0\), we get that \(\lambda_n \geq 1 - \beta \delta(\varepsilon_n)\).

\(b')\) By assumption, we have

\[
1 - \beta \delta(\varepsilon_n) \leq \lambda_n \\
= \lambda_n \left(1 - p^n(x, M_0)\right) \mu_n(dx) \\
\leq \mu_n(M \setminus V_0) + \mu_n(V_0) \left(1 - \inf_{x \in V_0} p^n(x, M_0)\right),
\]

which gives

\[
\mu_n(V_0) \leq \frac{\beta \delta(\varepsilon_n)}{\inf_{x \in V_0} p^n(x, M_0)}.
\]

Since \(V_0\) is open and \(\lim_{n \to \infty} \mu_n = \mu\) in the weak* topology, the result follows. □

**Remark 3.10** Notice that we actually have a better result, as the quantity \(\beta \delta(\varepsilon_n)\) could be replaced by the smallest quantity

\[
\sup_{x \in U} p^n(x, (N^\delta(F(U))^c)^c)
\]

**Proposition 3.11** If \(\lim_{n \to \infty} \lambda_n = 1\), then the probability measure \(\mu\) is \(F\)-invariant. In particular, \(\mu\) is supported by the closure of \(\mathcal{R}_{ap}\).

**Proof.** It suffices to verify that

\[
\int_M g(x) \mu(dx) = \int_M g(F(x)) \mu(dx) \quad (10)
\]
for any bounded continuous function $g : M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Uniform continuity of $g$ on $\mathbb{N}^{\|F\|+\delta}(0)$ and Hypothesis 1.1 imply

$$
\lim_{n \to \infty} \sup_x \left| \int_M (g(y) - g(F(x))) p^\tau_n(x, dy) \right| = 0.
$$

Therefore,

$$
\left| \int_M (g(x) - g(F(x))) \mu_n(dx) \right| = \left| \int_M \left( \lambda_n \int_M g(y) p^\tau_n(x, dy) - g(F(x)) \right) \mu_n(dx) \right|
\leq 2(1 - \lambda_n)\|g\| + \left| \int_M \left( \int_M (g(y) - g(F(x))) p^\tau_n(x, dy) \right) \mu_n(dx) \right|
\leq 2(1 - \lambda_n)\|g\| + \sup_x \left| \int_M (g(y) - g(F(x))) p^\tau_n(x, dy) \right|.
$$

Sending $n$ to infinity implies (10) for any continuous bounded $g$. Hence, $\mu$ is $F$-invariant. $F$-invariance of $\mu$ implies that the support of $\mu$ is contained in the Birkhoff center of $F$, i.e. the closure of recurrent points of $F$: $\{x \in M : x \in \omega(x)\}$, which is in turn included in the closure of $R_{ap}$. ■

The following theorem provides a sufficient condition for the support of the limiting measure $\mu$ to lie on the absorbing set $M_0$.

**Theorem 3.12** Assume that $M_0$ is a global attractor. Then $\mu$ is supported by $M_0$.

**Proof.** If $\liminf_{n \to \infty} \lambda_n = 0$, Lemma 3.9 implies that $\mu(M_0) = 1$. Assume that $\liminf_{n \to \infty} \lambda_n > 0$ and let $c = \inf_n \lambda_n > 0$. Given $\alpha > 0$, pick an open neighborhood $U$ of $M_0$, $\delta_1 > 0$ and $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $U \subset N^\alpha(M_0)$, $F(U) \subset U$, any ap $\delta_1$-pseudoorbit starting in $U$ remains in $U$ and any ap $\delta_1$-pseudoorbit of length at least $n_0$ eventually enters $U$ (see Corollary 3.8).

Let $\mathcal{E}_{n,k}$ be the event $\{ (X_{j,n}^\varepsilon)_{j=0,...,k} \text{ is an ap } \delta_1 \text{-pseudoorbit } \}$. Since a $\delta_1$-pseudoorbit of length at least $n_0$ ends in $U$, we have

$$
\mathbb{P}_x [X_k^{\varepsilon_n} \in U^c] \leq \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \mathbb{P}_x \left( d(X_{j+1}^{\varepsilon_n}, F(X_j^{\varepsilon_n})) > \delta_1 \right) + 0
\leq \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \mathbb{P}_x \left( d(X_{j+1}^{\varepsilon_n}, F(X_j^{\varepsilon_n})) > \delta_1 \right) + 0
\leq k\beta_{\delta_1}(\varepsilon_n)
$$

for $k \geq n_0$ and $x \in M$. The last inequality follows from the definition of $\beta_\delta(\varepsilon)$ and the second inequality from the fact that the event $\mathcal{E}_{n,k}$ is included in the union of the $k$ events $\{ d(X_{j+1}^{\varepsilon_n}, F(X_j^{\varepsilon_n})) > \delta_1 \}$. By the definition of $\mu_n$,

$$
\mu_n(U^c) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda_n} \int_M \mu_n(dx) \mathbb{P}_x [X_k^{\varepsilon_n} \in U^c] \leq \frac{n_0\beta_{\delta_1}(\varepsilon_n)}{\varepsilon_n^{n_0}}
$$

and the last quantity goes to zero as $n$ goes to infinity. Since $\alpha > 0$ was arbitrary, $\mu(M_1) = 0$. ■

**Remark 3.13** The proof is not needed in the particular case where $\lambda_n$ goes to one since $\mu$ is then $F$-invariant and the Birkhoff center is contained in $M_0$. 

\[\text{imsart-generic ver. 2011/11/15 file: QSD_arxiv_nov2013.tex date: November 22, 2012}\]
3.4. Proof of Theorem 2.4

We assume Hypotheses 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3 hold. Recall that, under the finiteness assumption, the ap-quasiattractors \( \{K_i\}_{i=1,...,\ell} \) are actually attractors (see Theorem 3.5). Also, there exists \( \delta_0 > 0 \) such that \( \lambda_n \geq 1 - \beta_{\delta_0}(\varepsilon_n) \) (see Lemma 3.9b). Let \( \{V_i\}_{i=1,...,\ell} \) and \( \delta_1 \leq \delta_0 \) be chosen as in Corollary 3.8. Given a Borel set \( V \) define \( \tau_V^i = \inf \{ j \geq 0 : X_j^{\varepsilon_n} \notin V \} \).

Call \( b = v - \ell \) the number of non ap-quasiattractors in \( M_1 \) and \( K = \bigcup_{i=1}^v K_i \). Choose sequences \( \{m_n\}_{n \geq 1} \) and \( \{m'_n\}_{n \geq 1} \) such that

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \beta_{\delta_1}(\varepsilon_n)m_n = 0, \quad \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{m'_n}{m_n} = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{h(\varepsilon_n)}{m'_n} = 0.
\]

The presence of an attractor inside \( M_1 \) such that \( \mu_n(U) > 0 \) for any \( n \) and any open neighborhood \( U \) implies that \( \lim_{n \to \infty} \lambda_n = 1 \), by Lemma 3.9b. Proposition 3.11 implies that \( \mu \) is \( F \)-invariant and supported by the closure of \( \mathcal{R}_{ap} \).

Let us prove the first statement of Theorem 2.4. Let \( j \in \{\ell + 1, \ldots, v\} \) be fixed. By definition of \( \lambda_n \),

\[
\mu_n(V_j) = \frac{1}{\lambda_n} \int_{x \in M} \mu_n(dx) \mathbb{P}_x [X^{\varepsilon_n}_i \in V_j], \quad \forall r \in \mathbb{N}^*.
\]

For \( i = \{1, \ldots, b\} \), call \( t'_n \) the integer \( \lfloor m_n/i \rfloor \). Let \( \mathcal{E}_n \) and \( \mathcal{E}'_n \) be the events respectively defined by

\[
\mathcal{E}_n = \{(X^{\varepsilon_n})_{i=1,\ldots,m_n} \text{ is a } \delta_1\text{-pseudoorbit}\}
\]

and

\[
\mathcal{E}'_n = \{\forall i \in \{\ell + 1, \ldots, v\}, \forall q \geq m'_n, \text{ } X_p^{\varepsilon_n} \in N^{\delta_1}(K_i) \Rightarrow X_{p+q}^{\varepsilon_n} \notin N^{\delta_1}(K_i)\}.
\]

The set \( \mathcal{E}'_n \) is the event “after its first entry in any \( N^{\delta_1}(K_i) \), the Markov chain will have escaped from this set after \( m'_n \) steps and will never come back.”

On the event \( \mathcal{E}_n \cap \mathcal{E}'_n \), the process \( (X^{\varepsilon_n}_1, \ldots, X^{\varepsilon_n}_{m_n}) \) is an ap-\( \delta_1 \)-pseudoorbit and therefore gets trapped in \( \bigcup_{i=1}^\ell V_i \) if it enters in this set. Corollary 3.8 implies that it cannot spend more than \( b \) blocks of length at most \( m'_n \) in \( \bigcup_{i=\ell+1}^v N^{\delta_1}(K_i) \). In particular, for \( n \) large enough, \( X^{\varepsilon_n}_{m_n} \) is in \( V_j \) only if \( X^{\varepsilon_n}_{t'_n} \in (N^{\delta_1}(K))' \) for some \( i \in \{1, \ldots, b\} \).

Therefore,

\[
\mathbb{P}_x \left[ \{X^{\varepsilon_n}_{m_n} \in V_j \} \cap \mathcal{E}_n \cap \mathcal{E}'_n \right] \leq \sum_{i=1}^b \mathbb{P}_x \left[ X^{\varepsilon_n}_{t'_n} \notin N^{\delta_1}(K) \right].
\]

On the other hand on the event \( \mathcal{E}_n \), starting from \( N^{\delta_1}(K_i) \), the chain cannot enter back into \( N^{\delta_1}(K_i) \) once it exited \( V_i \) (by Corollary 4.9c). Hypothesis 2.2 implies

\[
\mathbb{P}_x [(\mathcal{E}'_n)' \cap \mathcal{E}_n] \leq \sum_{i=\ell+1}^v \sup_{y \in V_i} \mathbb{P}_y \left[ \tau_{V_i}^n \geq m'_n \right] \leq b \zeta(\varepsilon_n),
\]

as \( m'_n > h(\varepsilon_n) \) for \( n \) sufficiently large. Consequently,

\[
\mathbb{P}_x [X^{\varepsilon_n}_{m_n} \in V_j] \leq \mathbb{P}_x [(\mathcal{E}_n)'] + \mathbb{P}_x [(\mathcal{E}'_n)' \cap \mathcal{E}_n] + \sum_{i=1}^b \mathbb{P}_x \left[ X^{\varepsilon_n}_{t'_n} \notin N^{\delta_1}(K) \right]
\]

\[
\leq m_n \beta_{\delta_1}(\varepsilon_n) + b \zeta(\varepsilon_n) + \sum_{i=1}^b \mathbb{P}_x \left[ X^{\varepsilon_n}_{t'_n} \notin N^{\delta_1}(K) \right].
\]
for \( n \) sufficiently large. Therefore we have, using the invariance properties of \( \mu_n \),

\[
\int \mu_n(dx) \mathbb{P}_x [X_{m_n}^\varepsilon \in V_j] \leq m_n \beta_{\delta_1}(\varepsilon_n) + b\xi(\varepsilon_n) + \sum_{i=1}^{b} \int \mu_n(dx) \mathbb{P}_x \left[ X_{t_i}^{\varepsilon_n} \notin N_{\delta_i}(K) \right]
\]

\[
\leq m_n \beta_{\delta_1}(\varepsilon_n) + b\xi(\varepsilon_n) + \sum_{i=1}^{b} \lambda_{\delta_i}^n \mu_n((N_{\delta_i}(K))^c)
\]

\[
\leq m_n \beta_{\delta_1}(\varepsilon_n) + b\xi(\varepsilon_n) + b\mu_n((N_{\delta_1}(K))^c)
\]

which converges to 0 as \( n \to \infty \). By our choice of the sequence \( m_n \),

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \lambda_{\mu_n}^{m_n} \geq \lim_{n \to \infty} \inf (1 - \beta_{\delta_1}(\varepsilon_n))^{m_n} = 1.
\]

Hence, \( \lim_{n \to \infty} \lambda_{\mu_n}^{m_n} = 1 \) and

\[
\lim_{n \to \infty} \mu_n(V_j) = \lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{1}{\lambda_{\mu_n}^{m_n}} \int \mu_n(dx) \mathbb{P}_x [X_{m_n}^\varepsilon \in V_j] = 0.
\]

The proof of the first statement is complete since \( \mu(V_j) \leq \lim inf \mu_n(V_j) \).

Now, under Hypothesis 2.3, Lemma 3.9 implies that the support of \( \mu \) is contained in \( M \setminus V_0 \). In particular, \( \mu(R_{ap} \cap M_1) = 1 \). Hence, \( \mu(\cup_{i=1}^{l} K_j) = 1 \) and the second statement of Theorem 2.4 follows.

### 3.5. A derivation of Theorem 3 of Klebaner et al. [1998]

We assume Hypotheses 2.1, 2.2, and 2.3 hold. We can obtain Theorem 3 of Klebaner et al. [1998] as a consequence of our proof of Theorem 2.4. To see why, we describe how their assumptions (A1)-(A6) imply our main assumptions. For the sake of brevity, we do not state their assumptions here. Rather we refer the interested reader to their article. Under their assumptions (A1)-(A6), Klebaner et al. [1998] prove nonconvergence to the finite set of unstable equilibria for one-dimensional maps. Their assumptions (A1) and (A2) guarantee the following, calling \( M_0 = \{0, 1\} \) to fit our settings\(^1\), we have:

\( a) \ f(M_0) \subset M_0 \) and \( f(M_1) \subset M_1 \);

\( b) \) the absorbing state \( \{0\} \), the unstable equilibria \( (x_i^*)_{j=0,\ldots,k} \) and the stable equilibria \( (s_i)_{i=1,\ldots,t} \) form a Morse decomposition for the dynamical system induced by \( f \); hence there is a finite number of ap-basic classes (see Proposition 5.1) and the ap-quasiattractors in \( M_1 \) are the \( (s_i)_{i=1,\ldots,t} \). Our Hypothesis 2.1 is verified.

By their assumption (A4), we derive the uniform (in \( x \)) upper bound

\[
\exists \lambda_0 > 0, C > 0 \text{ such that } P_t(x, N^\delta(f(x))^c) \leq Ce^{-\lambda_0 \delta / \varepsilon},
\]

for any \( \delta > 0, \varepsilon > 0 \). Hence our Standing Hypothesis 1.1 is satisfied, with \( \beta_{\delta}(\varepsilon) = Ce^{-\lambda_0 \delta / \varepsilon} \).

There remains to check Hypothesis 2.2. The nonattractors in this case are the unstable equilibria \( (x_i^*)_{j=0,\ldots,k} \). Let \( \delta_1 \) be the positive parameter associated with the stable points \( (s_i)_{i=1,\ldots,t} \) in our Corollary 3.8. By their assumption (A5), there exists \( \beta > 0 \) such that we have, for \( j = 1, \ldots, k, \varepsilon \) and \( \delta \) small enough,

\[
\inf_{x \in V_j} P_x (\xi^\varepsilon(x) > \varepsilon) \geq \beta, \quad \inf_{x \in V_j} P_x (\xi^\varepsilon(x) < -\varepsilon) \geq \beta,
\]

\[^1\text{in the quoted paper, } M_1 = [0, 1] \text{ and } M_0 = [0, 1]^c \text{ but it does not change the problem as they consider continuous state space, see Ramanan and Zeitouni [1999]}

where $V_j = N^δ(x_j^*)$. Call $α_n = δ/ε_n$ and assume without loss of generality that it is an integer. Using the fact that $x_j^*$ is an unstable equilibrium, for $n$ large enough,

$$\inf_{x \in V_j} P_x (|X^{ε_n} - x_j^*| ≥ δ) ≥ β^{α_n}.$$ 

Now choose $0 < a < λ_0 δ_1$. We have, by Markov property,

$$\sup_{x \in V_j} P_x \left( τ_{V_j}^n ≥ e^{a/ε_n} \right) ≤ (1 - β^{α_n})^{ν_n},$$

where $ν_n = \frac{ε_n e^{a/ε_n}}{δ}$. By construction, $e^{a/ε_n} β_δ(ε_n)$ goes to zero as $n$ goes to infinity. Additionally

$$(1 - β^{α_n})^{ν_n} \sim_{n \to +∞} \exp \left( -\frac{ε_n e^{a/ε_n} e^{δ \log(δ)/ε_n}}{δ} \right).$$

This quantity vanishes as $n$ goes to infinity if we choose $δ$ small enough (more precisely, $δ$ must be chosen smaller than $-a/\log β$). Therefore, we have verified Hypothesis 2.2 and we can apply our result to conclude that the support of weak* limit points of the QSDs do not include the unstable equilibria $x_j^*$.

4. Properties of $ρ$-basic sets and proof of Theorem 2.7

In this section, we assume that the assumptions of Theorem 2.7 hold. We prove that Hypotheses 2.5, 2.6, and finiteness of the $ρ$-basic classes imply Hypotheses 2.1, 2.2 and 2.3. From these implications, it follows that Theorem 2.4, Lemma 3.9 and Proposition 3.11 imply that Theorem 2.7 holds. Indeed, by Lemma 3.9, we obtain the lower bound for $λ_ε$ and, by Proposition 3.11, that any weak*-limit point of $\{μ_ε\}_{ε > 0}$ is $F$-invariant. The fact that these limiting measures sit on $ρ$-quasiattractors follows from Theorem 2.4.

**Lemma 4.1** Hypotheses 2.5 and 2.6 imply Hypothesis 2.3.

**Proof.** Let $δ_0 > 0$ be given. Assertion (iii) of Hypothesis 2.5 implies that

$$c = \frac{1}{4} \inf \{ ρ(x, y) : x, y ∈ M, d(F(x), y) > δ_0 \} > 0.$$ 

It follows from the definition of $β_δ$ and inequality (5) that $β_δ(ε) ≤ \exp(-3c/ε)$ for $ε > 0$ sufficiently small. Hypothesis 2.6 implies that there exists an open neighborhood $V_0$ of $M_0$ such that $p^ε(x, M_0) ≥ \exp(-2c/ε)$ for $ε > 0$ sufficiently small and $x ∈ V_0$. Hence,

$$\lim_{ε \to 0} \frac{β_δ(ε)}{\inf_{x ∈ V_0} p^ε(x, M_0)} ≤ \lim_{ε \to 0} \exp(-c/ε) = 0.$$ 

$\blacksquare$

For the remaining implications, we need to gain some insights about the relation between $ap$ and $ρ$-chain recurrence. As their ap counterparts, the $ρ$-basic classes whose closure is in $M_1$ are actually closed. This follows from the next two lemmas. We consider the quantity

$$α^* = \sup_{δ > 0} \inf \{ ρ(x, y) : x ∈ M, y ∈ M, d(F(x), y) > δ \} ∈ (0, +∞].$$
Lemma 4.2 For any $0 \leq \alpha < \alpha^*$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that, for any $\xi = (\xi_0, \ldots, \xi_n)$ satisfying $A_n(\xi) < \alpha$, we have $\|\xi_i\| \leq \|F\| + \delta$ for $i = 1, \ldots, n$. In particular, $\mathcal{R}_\rho$ is bounded.

Proof. Given $0 \leq \alpha < \alpha^*$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$\rho(x, y) < \alpha \Rightarrow d(F(x), y) < \delta.$$  

Therefore, if $A_n(\xi) < \alpha$, then $\rho(\xi_i, \xi_{i+1}) < \alpha$ for $i = 0, \ldots, n - 1$, which implies that $d(\xi_{i+1}, F(\xi_i)) < \delta$ for $i = 0, \ldots, n - 1$. \[\blacksquare\]

Lemma 4.3 We have the following:

(i) The function $B_\rho$ is upper semicontinuous on $M_1 \times M_1$.

(ii) Let $\eta \in (0, \alpha^*)$ and $y \in M$. If the set $\{x \in M : B_\rho(x, y) \leq \eta\}$ has its closure in $M_1$ then it is closed.

(iii) Let $x \in M_1$. Assume that the set $\{y \in M : B_\rho(x, y) \leq \eta\}$ has its closure in $M_1$ for $\eta$ small enough. Then there exists $\eta_0$ such that, for any $\eta < \eta_0$, $\{y \in M : B_\rho(x, y) \leq \eta\}$ is closed.

Proof. Part (i) is proved in [Kifer, 1988, Lemma 5.1, pg. 58]. It relies on the continuity of $\rho$ on $M_1 \times M_1$.

For part (ii), let $\{x_k\}_{k \geq 1}$ be a sequence of points in $M_1$, such that $\lim_{k \to \infty} x_k = x \in M_1$ and $B_\rho(x_k, y) \leq \eta$. Pick $r > 0$ such that $\overline{N^r(x)} \subset M_1$. For any $\gamma > 0$ and any $k \geq 1$ there exists $\xi^\gamma = (\xi^\gamma_0, \ldots, \xi^\gamma_n)$ such that $\xi^\gamma_0 = x_k$, $\xi^\gamma_n = y$ and $A_n(\xi^\gamma) \leq \eta + \gamma$. By Lemma 4.2, for $\gamma < \alpha^* - \eta$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $\|\xi^\gamma_n\| \leq \|F\| + \delta$. Since $\overline{N^r(x)}$ is a compact set contained in $M_1$ and $\rho$ is uniformly continuous on $N^r(x) \times N^\|F\|+\delta(0)$, we have

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} |\rho(x, \xi^\gamma) - \rho(x_k, \xi^\gamma)| = 0.$$  

Therefore,

$$B_\rho(x, y) \leq \liminf_{k \to \infty} \left( \rho(x, \xi^\gamma) + \rho(\xi^\gamma, \xi^\gamma_k) + \cdots + \rho(\xi^\gamma_n, y) \right) \leq \liminf_{k \to \infty} |\rho(x, \xi^\gamma) - \rho(x_k, \xi^\gamma)| + A_n(\xi^\gamma) \leq \eta + \gamma$$

Since this holds for any $\gamma > 0$, part (ii) follows.

Proof of part (iii) is similar. However we have to be careful since $\rho$ is not continuous on $M_0 \times M$. Let $x \in M_1$ be given and assume that there exists $\overline{\eta} > 0$ such that $K = \{y \in M : B_\rho(x, y) \leq \overline{\eta}\} \subset M_1$. Define $\alpha = d(M_0 \cap N^\|F\|+\delta(0), K) > 0$. Since $\rho$ is continuous on $M_1 \times M$ and $\rho(z, y) = 0$ if and only if $y = F(z)$, there exists $\alpha > 0$ such that

$$\rho(z, y) < \alpha \Rightarrow d(F(z), y) < \min(a/2, 1)$$

for all $z, y \in M$. Let $\eta_0 = \min(\alpha, \overline{\eta})$ and choose $0 < \eta < \eta_0$. We claim that $\{y \in M : B_\rho(x, y) \leq \eta\}$ is closed. To see why, let $\{y_k\}_{k \geq 1}$ be a sequence in $M_1$ such that $\lim_{k \to \infty} y_k = y \in M_1$ and $B_\rho(x, y_k) \leq \eta$ for all $k$. For any $\gamma > 0$, there exists a family $\xi^\gamma = (\xi^\gamma_0, \ldots, \xi^\gamma_n)$ such that $\xi^\gamma_0 = x, \xi^\gamma_n = y$ and $A_n(\xi^\gamma) \leq \eta + \gamma$. For $\gamma < \eta_0 - \eta, \rho(\xi^\gamma_{n-1}, y_k) < \alpha$. Therefore $d(F(\xi^\gamma_{n-1}), y_k) < \min(a/2, 1)$, which implies that $d(F(\xi^\gamma_{n-1}), M_0) > a/2$. By continuity of $F$ and $F$-invariance of $M_1$, the sequence $\{\xi^\gamma_{n-1}\}_{k}$ is bounded away from $M_0$. Since $\eta_0 < \alpha$, Lemma 4.2 implies that there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $\{\xi^\gamma_{n-1}\} \subset N^\|F\|+\delta(0)$. The remainder of the proof is as for part (ii), with $\xi^\gamma_{n-1}$ playing the role of $\xi^\gamma_1$.

Since boundedness of $\rho$-basic classes follows from Lemma 4.2, Lemma 4.3 implies that given a $\rho$-chain recurrent point $x$, if $[x]_\rho \subset M_1$ then $[x]_\rho$ is compact. Clearly, if $x$ is $\rho$-chain recurrent and $[x]_\rho$ is closed then $x$ is ap-chain.
recurrant and \([x]_\rho \subset [x]_{ap}\) but the converse is not true in general. For example consider a situation where the \(\delta\)-chains joining \(x\) to itself have arbitrarily large length as \(\delta\) goes to zero, in which case we could have \(x \sim_{ap} x\) but \(x \not\sim_{\rho} x\). While Remark 3.7 holds for \(\rho\)-chain recurrence, it is not immediate and therefore we provide a short proof.

In the sequel, we will call \(\delta\)-\(\rho\)-pseudoorbit any family \(\xi_0, \ldots, \xi_n\) such that \(A_n(\xi) \leq \delta\).

**Lemma 4.4** Let \([x]_\rho\) be a closed \(\rho\)-basic class in \(M_1\). For any \(\theta > 0\), there exists \(\delta > 0\) such that any \(\delta\)-\(\rho\)-pseudoorbit joining \([x]_\rho\) to itself is contained in \(N^\theta([x]_\rho)\).

**Proof.** Pick \(\theta\) small enough so that \(N^\theta([x]_\rho) \subset M_1\). Since \(F\) is \(M_1\)-invariant and \(N^\theta([x]_\rho)\) is compact and contained in \(M_1\), so is its image by \(F\). Hence, by closedness of \(M_0\), there exists a compact set \(K \subset M_1\), which contains the \(\gamma\)-neighborhood of \(F(N^\theta([x]_\rho))\), for some \(\gamma > 0\). Assume, by contradiction, that there exist a decreasing sequence \(\delta_k \downarrow 0\) and \(\delta_k\)-\(\rho\)-pseudoorbits \((\xi_{0k}, \ldots, \xi_{nk})\) (i.e. \(A_n(\xi_k) \leq \delta_k\)) such that \(\lim_{k \to \infty} \xi_{0k}^k = u \in [x]_\rho\), \(\lim_{k \to \infty} \xi_{nk}^k = w \in [x]_\rho\) and \(j_k = \min\{j \geq 1 : \xi_j^k \not\in N^\theta([x]_\rho)\} < n_k\). For \(k\) large enough, we have

\[
\rho(z, y) < \delta_k \Rightarrow d(F(z), y) < \gamma
\]

for all \(z, y \in M\). Since \(\xi_{jk}^k \in N^\theta([x]_\rho)\), we have \(\xi_{jk}^k \in K\) for \(k\) large enough. By passing to a subsequence if necessary, \(\xi_{jk}^k\) converges to some point \(v \in K \setminus N^\theta([x]_\rho)\). On the other hand, consider the pseudoorbits \(\tilde{\xi}_j^k = (\xi_{0j}^k, \ldots, \xi_{jk-1}^k, v)\). They satisfy

\[
\lim_{k \to \infty} A_j(\tilde{\xi}_j^k) \leq \lim_{k \to \infty} A_n(\xi_j^k) + \lim_{k \to \infty} |\rho(\xi_{jk-1}^k, v) - \rho(\xi_{jk-1}^k, \tilde{\xi}_j^k)| = 0
\]

due to \(A_n(\xi_j^k) \leq \delta_k\) and by uniform continuity of \(\rho\) on \(K\times K\). Hence, \(x \not\sim_\rho v\). Similarly, one can show that \(v \not\sim_\rho x\). Consequently, \(v \in [x]_\rho\), a contradiction. 

**Lemma 4.5** The \(\rho\)-basic classes \([x]_\rho\) closed in \(M_1\) are invariant: \(F([x]_\rho) = [x]_\rho\).

**Proof.** Since \(F(x) >_{ap} x\), \(F([x]_\rho) \subset [x]_\rho\) follows if we prove that \(F(x) \not\sim_\rho x\). Since \([x]_\rho\) is compact and contained in \(M_1\) (see Lemma 4.2), we can find a compact set \(K\) bounded away from \(M_0\), \(\delta_k \downarrow 0\) and a family of \(\delta_k\)-\(\rho\)-pseudoorbits \(\xi^k = (\xi_0^k, \ldots, \xi_n^k)\) in \(K\) such that \(\xi_0^k = \xi_n^k = x\). Consider the family \(\tilde{\xi}^k = (F(x), \xi_2^k, \ldots, \xi_{nk}^k, x)\). By uniform continuity of \(\rho\) on \(K\times K\) and the fact that \(\rho(x, y) = 0\) if and only if \(y = F(x)\), we may assume by passing to a subsequence if necessary that \(\lim_{k \to \infty} \xi_1^k = F(x)\).

\[
\lim_{k \to \infty} A_{n-1}(\tilde{\xi}_1^k) \leq \lim_{k \to \infty} A_n(\xi_1^k) + \lim_{k \to \infty} |\rho(F(x), \xi_2^k) - \rho(\xi_1^k, \xi_2^k)| = 0
\]

as \(A_n(\xi_1^k) \leq \delta_k\) and using uniform continuity of \(\rho\) on \(K \times K\). Hence, \(F(x) \not\sim_\rho x\).

For the inclusion \([x]_{ap} \subset F([x]_{ap})\), pick \(y \in [x]_\rho\) such that \(y \neq F(y)\) (if there is no such \(y\), there is nothing to prove). For \(\delta_k \downarrow 0\), choose a family of \(\delta_k\)-\(\rho\)-pseudoorbits \(\xi^k = (\xi_0^k, \ldots, \xi_n^k)\) in \(K\) such that \(\xi_0^k = \xi_n^k = y\). Passing to a subsequence if necessary, we can assume that \(\lim_{k \to \infty} \xi_{nk-1}^k = z \in K\). Clearly, \(F(z) = y\) and \(z \sim_\rho y\). Hence, \([x]_\rho \cap F([x]_\rho)\).

The following proposition is a straightforward consequence of Proposition 5.1 in Kifer [1988].

**Proposition 4.6** Let \([x]_\rho\) be an isolated \(\rho\)-quasiattractor in \(M_1\). Then it is an attractor and \([x]_\rho = \cap_{\eta > 0} D_\eta\), where

\[
D_\eta = \{y \in M : B_\rho(x, y) < \eta\}.
\]

Define the maximum distance on \(M^{n+1}\) by \(d_n(\xi, \zeta) = \max_{j=0, \ldots, n} d(\xi_j, \zeta_j)\) for \((\xi_0, \ldots, \xi_n), (\zeta_0, \ldots, \zeta_n) \in M^{n+1}\). The following theorem and lemma are analogous to the statements of Theorem 5.2 a) and Lemma 5.3 in [Kifer, 1988, pgs 66 and 72, respectively]. We provide a proof of Theorem 4.7 that slightly differs from the proof of Kifer. The proof of Lemma 4.8 follows directly from Kifer’s proof of his Lemma 5.3.
Theorem 4.7 Let $K \subset M_1$ be a compact set. Given $\eta, \delta, N > 0$, there exists $\varepsilon_0 > 0$ such that

$$\mathbb{P}_x [d_n((X_0^\varepsilon, \ldots, X_n^\varepsilon), \xi) < \eta] \geq \exp \left( -\frac{A_n(\xi) + \delta}{\varepsilon} \right),$$

for any $x \in K$, $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_0$, $n \leq N$ and $\xi = (\xi_0, \ldots, \xi_n) \in K^{n+1}$ with $\xi_0 = x$.

Proof. Analogous to Kifer’s proof, we introduce the quantity

$$n^K_\gamma = \sup \{|\rho(y, z) - \rho(y', z')| : y, y' \in K, d(y, y') \leq \gamma, d(z, z') \leq \gamma\}.$$

By uniform continuity of $\rho$ on compact subsets of $M_1 \times M_1$, $\lim_{\gamma \to 0} n^K_\gamma = 0$. Let $\eta, \delta,$ and $N$ be given. Choose $0 < \gamma < \eta$ such that $n^K_\gamma < \delta/2N$ and $N^\gamma(K) \subset M_1$. Now let $\xi = (\xi_0 = x, \xi_1, \ldots, \xi_n) \in K^{n+1}$. By the uniform lower bound (4) of Hypothesis 2.5 there exists a function $g: [0, +\infty] \to [0, +\infty]$ such that $\lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} g(\varepsilon) = 0$ and

$$\varepsilon \log p^\varepsilon(x, N^\gamma(\xi_i)) \geq -\inf_{y \in N^\gamma(\xi_i)} \rho(x, y) - g(\varepsilon)$$

for any $x \in N^\gamma(K)$ and $1 \leq i \leq n$.

Hence we have

$$\mathbb{P}_x [d_n(X^\varepsilon, \xi) < \eta] \geq \mathbb{P}_x [d_n(X^\varepsilon, \xi) < \gamma]$$

$$\geq \int_{x_1 \in N^\gamma(\xi_1)} \int_{x_n \in N^\gamma(\xi_n)} p^\varepsilon(x_1, dx_1) \ldots \int_{x_n \in N^\gamma(\xi_n)} p^\varepsilon(x_{n-1}, dx_{n-1})$$

$$\geq p^\varepsilon(x, N^\gamma(\xi_1)) \prod_{i=1}^{n-1} \inf_{x_i \in N^\gamma(\xi_i)} p^\varepsilon(x_i, N^\gamma(\xi_{i+1}))$$

$$\geq \exp \left( -\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \left( \inf_{y \in N^\gamma(\xi_1)} \rho(x, y) + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sup_{x_i \in N^\gamma(\xi_i)} \inf_{y_i \in N^\gamma(\xi_{i+1})} \rho(x_i, y_i) + ng(\varepsilon) \right) \right)$$

$$\geq \exp \left( -\frac{1}{\varepsilon} (A_n(\xi) + ng(\varepsilon) + n n^K_\gamma) \right).$$

The result follows by choosing $\varepsilon_0$ small enough so that $g(\varepsilon) \leq \delta/2N$, for every $\varepsilon < \varepsilon_0$. 

Lemma 4.8 Let $K$ be a compact set in $M$ which does not contain any entire semi-orbits $\{F^i(x), i \in \mathbb{N}\}$. Then there exists $a > 0$ and $N \in \mathbb{N}$ (which depend on $K$) such that

a) For any sequence $\xi \in K^n$ with $n > N$, we have $A_n(\xi) > (n - N)a$,

b) there exists $\varepsilon_0 > 0$ such that, for any $n > N$ and any $0 < \varepsilon < \varepsilon_0$,

$$\sup_{x \in K} \mathbb{P}_x [\tau^\varepsilon_K > n] \leq e^{-\frac{(a - N)a}{\varepsilon}},$$

where $\tau^\varepsilon_K = \inf \{j \geq 0 : X^\varepsilon_j \notin K\}$.

Recall that $\omega(x) = \cap_{n \geq 1} \cup_{m \geq n} F^m(x)$ and that a point $x \in M$ is called non-wandering if for all open neighborhoods $U$ of $x$ and any $N \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists $n \geq N$ such that $F^n(U) \cap U \neq \emptyset$. We denote by $NW(F)$ the set of non-wandering points of $F$. Note that $\omega$-limit points are always non-wandering: $\{y \in M : y \in \omega(x), \text{ for some } x \in NW(F)\}$.

Lemma 4.9 The set $NW(F) \cap M_1$ is contained in $\mathcal{R}_p$. In particular, any $\omega$-limit point in $M_1$ is also in $\mathcal{R}_p$. 
Proof. Let \( x \in M_1 \cap NW(F) \) and \( \delta > 0 \) be given. By continuity of \( \rho \) in \( M_1 \times M \) and \( \rho(x, F(x)) = 0 \) for all \( x \), there exists \( \gamma > 0 \) such that
\[
\rho(x, F(y)) < \delta/2 \quad \text{and} \quad \rho(z, x) < \delta/2
\]
for \( y \in N^\gamma(x) \) and \( F(z) \in N^\gamma(x) \). Since \( x \) is non-wandering, there exists \( n \geq 1 \) such that
\[
F^n(N^\gamma(x)) \cap N^\gamma(x) \neq \emptyset.
\]
Pick \( y, z \in N^\gamma(x) \) such that \( F^n(y) = z \). Now consider the chain \( \xi = (x, F(y), \ldots, F^{n-1}(y), x) \). Since \( F(F^{n-1}(y)) = z \in N^\gamma(x) \), we have \( A(\xi) = \rho(x, F(y)) + \rho(F^{n-1}(y), x) < \delta \). Taking \( \delta \downarrow 0 \) yields \( x \sim_{\rho} x \) as claimed. \( \blacksquare \)

Corollary 4.10 Assume that \( \mu \) is an \( F \)-invariant probability measure whose support \( S \) lies in \( M_1 \). Then \( S \subset R_\rho \).

Proof. By the Poincaré recurrence theorem, \( S \) is included in the set
\[
\{ x \in M_1 : x \in \omega(x) \} \subset NW(F).
\]
Applying Lemma 4.9 completes the result. \( \blacksquare \)

Corollary 4.11 Assume that \( R_\rho \cap M_1 \) admits a neighborhood \( U \), whose closure lies in some compact set \( K \subset M_1 \). Then there exists \( N \in \mathbb{N} \) such that any partial solution \( \zeta = (x, F(x), \ldots, F^n(x)) \in K^{n+1} \) with \( n \geq N \) must pass through \( U \).

Proof. The set \( K \setminus U \) does not contain any entire semiorbit of \( F \), by Lemma 4.9. Since \( A_n(\zeta) = 0 \), applying Lemma 4.8a completes the proof. \( \blacksquare \)

We already stated that if \( [x]_\rho \) is a closed \( \rho \)-basic class then \( [x]_\rho \subset [x]_{ap} \). Under the finiteness assumption of Theorem 2.7, we derive the equality between \( ap \) and \( \rho \)-basic classes. Call \( K_1, \ldots, K_\ell \), the \( \rho \)-basic classes in \( M_1 \) (recall that they are supposed to be closed) and label \( K_1, \ldots, K_\ell \) the quasi-attractors among them. Proposition 4.6 implies that \( K_1, \ldots, K_\ell \) are attractors. The following lemma implies that finiteness of the \( \rho \)-basic classes in \( M_1 \) implies finiteness of the \( ap \)-basic classes in \( M_1 \). In particular, Hypothesis 2.1 holds under the assumptions of Theorem 2.7.

Theorem 4.12 Assume that there is a finite number of \( \rho \)-basic classes in \( M_1 \). Then \( R_\rho \cap M_1 = R_{ap} \cap M_1 \) and \( [x]_\rho = [x]_{ap} \) for any \( x \in R_{ap} \cap M_1 \).

Proof. Let \( x \in R_{ap} \cap M_1 \). We prove that \( x \in R_\rho \cap M_1 \) and \( [x]_{ap} \subset [x]_\rho \). If \( [x]_{ap} = \{ x \} \), then \( x \) is a fixed point and there is nothing to left to prove. Let \( y \in [x]_{ap} \), \( y \neq x \) and \( \alpha > 0 \).

Remark 3.7 implies there exist a compact set \( K \subset M_1 \) with \( \cup_i K_i \subset K \), a sequence \( \delta_k \downarrow 0 \) and a family \( \xi^k = (\xi^k_1 = x, \ldots, \xi^k_{n_k} = y) \in K^{n_k+1} \) of \( \delta_k \)-pseudoorbits joining \( x \) to \( y \).

Let \( \gamma > 0 \) be chosen so that \( B_\rho(a, b) < \alpha \) for all \( i = 1, \ldots, v \) and \( a, b \in N^\gamma(K_i) \), the closure of \( U = \cup_i N^\gamma(K_i) \) is contained in \( K \) and \( N^\gamma(K_i) \) is an isolating neighborhood for \( K_i \) for all \( i \). Corollary 4.11 implies that there exists a positive integer \( N \) such that every partial solution \( \{ x, F(x), \ldots, F^n(x) \} \) in \( K \) of length \( n \geq N \) must pass through \( U \). Consequently, by compactness of \( K \) and continuity of \( F \), we can find \( k_0 \) such that \( \xi^k \) can not have more than \( N \) consecutive terms in \( K \setminus U \) for \( k \geq k_0 \).

Now, given \( k \in \mathbb{N} \), define \( \sigma_0(k) = 0 \) and \( \tau_0(k) = \min\{ j > 0 : \xi^k_j \notin U \} \). For \( i \geq 1 \), define inductively the terms \( \sigma_i(k) = \min\{ j > \tau_{i-1}(k) : \xi^k_j \notin U \} \) and \( \tau_i(k) = \min\{ j > \sigma_i(k) : \xi^k_j \notin U \} \). This defines two sequences \( \{ \tau_i(k) \}_{i=0,\ldots,p_k} \) and \( \{ \sigma_i(k) \}_{i=0,\ldots,q_k} \). Notice that \( q_k = p_k \) if \( y \notin \cup_i K_i \) and \( q_k = p_k + 1 \) otherwise. By truncating multiple entries of ap pseudoorbits into each set \( N^\gamma(K_i) \), we can assume that \( q_k \leq v - 1 \). After truncation, these pseudoorbits may only
satisfy \( d(F(\xi_j^k), \xi_{j+1}^k) \leq \delta_k \) for \( \tau_i(k) - 1 \leq j \leq \sigma_{i+1}(k) \). Therefore

\[
B_\rho(x, y) \leq \sum_{i=0}^{p_k} \left( B_\rho(\xi^k_{\tau_i(k)}, \xi^k_{\tau_i(k)-1}) + B_\rho(\xi^k_{\tau_i(k)-1}, \xi^k_{\sigma_{i+1}(k)}) + B_\rho(\xi^k_{\sigma_{i+1}(k)}, \xi^k_{\sigma_{i+1}(k)-1}) + B_\rho(\xi^k_{\sigma_{i+1}(k)-1}, \xi^k_{\tau_i(k)-1}) \right)
\]

\[
+ B_\rho(\xi^k_{\tau_i(k)}, y)
\]
in the case where \( y \in \cup_i K_i \), and

\[
B_\rho(x, y) \leq \sum_{i=0}^{p_k} \left( B_\rho(\xi^k_{\tau_i(k)}, \xi^k_{\tau_i(k)-1}) + B_\rho(\xi^k_{\tau_i(k)-1}, \xi^k_{\sigma_{i+1}(k)}) \right)
\]

\[
+ \sum_{i=0}^{p_k-1} \left( B_\rho(\xi^k_{\tau_i(k)}, \xi^k_{\sigma_{i+1}(k)-1}) + B_\rho(\xi^k_{\sigma_{i+1}(k)-1}, \xi^k_{\tau_i(k)-1}) + B_\rho(\xi^k_{\sigma_{i+1}(k)-1}, y) \right)
\]

otherwise. In either case, our choice of \( \gamma \) implies

\[
B_\rho(x, y) \leq \nu a + (v(N + 2) + 1) \sup \{ \rho(a, b) : d(F(a), b) \leq \delta_k, a, b \in K \}
\]

for \( k \) sufficiently large. Uniform continuity of \( \rho \) on \( K \times K \) implies that \( \lim_{k \to \infty} \sup \{ \rho(a, b) : d(F(a), b) \leq \delta_k, a, b \in K \} = 0 \) and we obtain that \( B_\rho(x, y) \leq \nu a \). Since this holds for any \( a > 0 \) we get that \( x < \rho y \). Similarly, \( y < \rho x \), which yields \( x \sim \rho y \). Therefore, \( x \in R_\rho \) and \( |x| = |x|_{ap} \).

The next proposition shows that Hypothesis 2.2 holds.

**Proposition 4.13** Let \( j \in \{ \ell + 1, \ldots, v \} \). We can find \( \eta > 0 \) such that, for any \( \gamma > 0 \), there exists \( \varepsilon_0 > 0 \) (which depends on \( \eta \) and \( \gamma \)) and a function \( \zeta \) on \( (0, \varepsilon_0) \) such that \( \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \zeta(\varepsilon) = 0 \) and

\[
\sup_{x \in N^v(K_j)} \mathbb{P}_x[\tau_{N^v(K_j)} > \varepsilon^{-1/\varepsilon}] \leq \zeta(\varepsilon)
\]

for any \( \varepsilon < \varepsilon_0 \).

**Proof.** First of all, by definition of a non-\( \rho \)-quasiattractor, there exists \( \eta > 0 \) such that the closure of \( N^{2\eta}(K_j) \) belongs to \( M_1 \) and, for any \( \gamma > 0 \) and any \( x \in N^v(K_j) \), there exists a sequence \( \xi^\gamma = (\xi^\gamma_0, \ldots, \xi^\gamma_n) \) such that

\[
\xi^\gamma = x, \xi^\gamma_n \notin N^{2\eta}(K_j) \quad \text{and} \quad A_{n(\gamma)}(\xi^\gamma) < \gamma.
\]

Call \( U = N^{2\eta}(K_j) \). Since \( M_1 \) is invariant by \( F \), \( F(\overline{U}) \) is compact and contained in \( M_1 \). Hence there exists \( r > 0 \) and a compact set \( K \subset M_1 \) such that

\[
N^r(F(\overline{U})) \subset K.
\]

By continuity of \( \rho \) on \( \overline{U} \times M \) and since \( \rho \) is strictly positive on the compact set \( \overline{U} \times (N^r(F(\overline{U})))^c \), there exists \( \gamma_0 > 0 \) such that

\[
\rho(x, y) > \gamma_0 \quad \text{for all} \quad x \in \overline{U}, \ y \in K^c.
\]

In particular, this means that, for \( \gamma < \gamma_0 \), the sequence \( \xi^\gamma \) must pass through \( K \setminus U \) and we can therefore assume without loss of generality that \( \xi^\gamma_n \in K \setminus U \) and \( \xi^\gamma \) lives in \( K \).
Pick \( \delta > 0 \). We now apply Theorem 4.7 in the compact set \( K \), with \( \delta, \eta \) and \( N = n(\gamma) \): there exists \( \varepsilon_0 > 0 \) (which depends on \( \eta, \delta \) and \( n(\gamma) \)) such that, for any \( \varepsilon < \varepsilon_0 \),
\[
\mathbb{P}_x \left[ d_{n(\gamma)}(X^{\varepsilon}, \xi^\gamma) < \eta \right] \geq \exp \left( -\frac{\gamma + \delta}{\varepsilon} \right).
\]
Consequently there exists \( \varepsilon_0 > 0 \) such that, for any \( 0 < \varepsilon < \varepsilon_0 \) (up to changing slightly \( n(\gamma) \)), we have
\[
\mathbb{P}_x \left[ \tau_{N^\eta(K^i)} \leq n(\gamma) \right] > e^{-\gamma/\varepsilon}.
\]
Consequently,
\[
\mathbb{P}_x \left[ \tau_{N^\eta(K^i)} \geq e^{2\gamma/\varepsilon} \right] \leq (1 - e^{-\gamma/\varepsilon})^{e^{\gamma/\varepsilon}/n(\gamma)}.
\]
The last quantity is of order \( \exp \left( -e^{\gamma/\varepsilon}/(2n(\gamma)) \right) \) and therefore goes to zero. \( \blacksquare \)

By assumption of Theorem 2.7, there is at least one \( \rho \)-quasiattractor (which turns out to be an attractor by Proposition 4.6) among the \( \rho \)-basic classes included in \( M_1 \), such that \( \mu_n(U) > 0 \) for all \( n \), for all open neighborhoods \( U \). Hence, by Lemma 3.9 there exists \( \delta_0 > 0 \) such that \( \lambda_n > 1 - \beta_0(\varepsilon_n) > 1 - e^{-c_0/\varepsilon_n} \), where
\[
c_0 = \frac{1}{2} \inf \{ \rho(x,y) : (x,y) \in M_1 \times M, d(F(x), y) \geq \delta_0 \} > 0.
\]
Let \( \delta_1 < \delta_0 \) and \( \{ V_i \}_{i=1,...,v} \) be chosen so that Corollary 3.8 holds.

We are now ready to prove Theorem 2.7. Since Assumptions 2.1 and 2.3 are satisfied, it remains to verify Hypothesis 2.2. Choose the neighborhoods \( \{V_i\}_{i=\ell+1,...,v} \) such that \( V_i \subset N^\eta(K_i) \), where \( \eta \) is given by Proposition 4.13. Choose \( \gamma < \frac{\delta}{\eta} \) where
\[
0 < c_1 = \inf \{ \rho(x,y) : (x,y) \in M_1 \times M, d(F(x), y) \geq \delta_1 \} \leq 2c_0.
\]
Define \( h(\varepsilon) = e^{\gamma/\varepsilon} \). Proposition 4.13 implies that there exists \( \varepsilon_0 > 0 \) and a function \( \zeta \) such that \( \lim_{\varepsilon \to 0} \zeta(\varepsilon) = 0 \) and
\[
\sup_{x \in N^\eta(K_i)} \mathbb{P}_x[\tau_{N^\eta(K^i)} > h(\varepsilon_n)] \leq \zeta(\varepsilon_n) \to 0
\]
for any \( \varepsilon < \varepsilon_0 \). Since \( \lim_{n \to \infty} h(\varepsilon_n) \beta_1(\varepsilon_n) = 0 \), Hypothesis 2.2 holds. This completes the proof of Theorem 2.7.

5. Applications

Our results are broadly applicable to many Markov chain models in population biology. To give some flavor of this applicability, we introduce two classes of Markov chains satisfying our probabilistic assumptions and some illustrative applications to metapopulation dynamics, competing species, host-parasitoid interactions, and evolutionary games. For each application there are two ingredients for verifying the conditions of Theorem 2.7. The probabilistic ingredient involves verifying that there exist quasi-stationary distributions and verifying the large deviation assumptions. We defer verifying these conditions until Section 6. The dynamical ingredient involves verifying there is a finite number of \( \rho \)-basic classes and identifying the attractors. For the second ingredient, we introduce a proposition that is applicable to most of our examples.
5.1. A dynamical proposition

To state the proposition, we need a few definitions from dynamical systems. For $x \in M$, let $\omega(x) = \{ y : \text{there exists } n_k \to \infty \text{ such that } F^n(x) = y \}$ be the $\omega$-limit set for $x$ and $\alpha(x) = \{ y : \text{there exist } n_k \to \infty \text{ and } y_k \in M \text{ such that } F^n(y_k) = x \text{ and } \lim_{k \to \infty} y_k = y \}$ be the $\alpha$-limit set for $x$. Our assumption that $F$ is bounded implies that there exists a global attractor given by the compact, $F$-invariant set $\Lambda = \cap_{n \geq 0} F^n(M)$. For all $x \in \Lambda$, $\omega(x)$ and $\alpha(x)$ are compact, non-empty, $F$-invariant sets.

A Morse decomposition of the dynamics of $F$ is a collection of $F$-invariant, compact sets $K_1, \ldots, K_k$ such that

- $K_i$ is isolated i.e. there exists a neighborhood of $K_i$ such that it is the maximal $F$-invariant set in the neighborhood, and
- for every $x \in \Lambda \setminus \bigcup K_i$, there exist $i > j$ such that $\omega(x) \subset K_i$ and $\alpha(x) \subset K_j$.

Modulo replacing the invariant sets $K_i$ by points, one can think of $F$ being gradient-like as all orbits move from lower indexed invariant sets to higher indexed invariant sets.

**Proposition 5.1** Assume Hypothesis 2.5 holds. If $F$ admits a Morse decomposition $K_1, \ldots, K_k$ such that

- $K_i \subset M_1$ or $K_i \subset M_0$ for each $i$, and
- $K_i$ is transitive whenever $K_i \subset M_1$ i.e. there exists $x \in K_i$ such that $\{ x, F(x), F^2(x), \ldots \}$ is dense in $K_i$,

then $\rho$-basic classes in $M_1$ are given by the $K_i \subset M_1$. In particular, there is a finite number of $\rho$-basic classes in $M_1$ and each of them is closed.

**Proof.** Let $K_1, \ldots, K_k$ be a Morse decomposition for $F$. Let $I \subset \{1, \ldots, k\}$ be such that $K_i \subset M_1$ if and only if $i \in I$. By assumption, $K_i \subset M_0$ for $i \not\in I$, and $K_i$ is transitive for $i \in I$. Transitivity of $K_i$ for $i \in I$ and continuity of $\rho$ restricted to $M_1 \times M$ implies that $K_i$ is contained in a $\rho$-basic class for $i \in I$ i.e. $x \sim \rho y$ for all $x, y \in K_i$. As shown in Section 4, assertion (iii) of Hypothesis 2.5 implies that the $\rho$-basic classes are contained in the $\epsilon$-chain recurrent set of $F$ which is contained in $\bigcup_i K_i$. Hence, the $\rho$-basic classes in $M_1$ are given by $\{K_i\}_{i \in I}$. □

5.2. Nonlinear Poisson branching processes

To describe structured populations with $k$ types of individuals (e.g. different genotypes or species, individuals living in different spatial locations), let $x$ represents the vector of population densities which lies in the non-negative cone $\mathbb{R}_+^k$ of $\mathbb{R}^k$. A widely used class of models in population biology [Caswell, 2001] are nonlinear matrix models of the form $F(x) = A(x)x$ where $A(x)$ are non-negative matrices representing transitions births, deaths, and transitions between types of individuals (e.g. due to mutation or dispersal).

Since real populations involve finite numbers of individuals, these deterministic models can be viewed as approximations of more realistic, stochastic representations of the population dynamics. More specifically, let $1/\epsilon$ that represents the "size" (e.g. area, volume) of the habitat. Let $N^\epsilon_i \in \mathbb{Z}_+^k$ denote the vector of population abundances where $\mathbb{Z}_+^k$ is the non-negative cone of the $k$-dimensional integer lattice. Then $X^\epsilon_i = \epsilon N^\epsilon_i \in \epsilon \mathbb{Z}_+^k$ is the vector of population densities. For every $x \in \mathbb{R}_+^k$, let $Z_1(x), Z_2(x), \ldots$ be a sequence of i.i.d. random vectors with independent components, and whose $i$ component has a Poisson distribution with mean $x_i$. Given $N^\epsilon_i \in \mathbb{Z}_+^k$, we can define the Markov chains $\{X^\epsilon_i\}$ iteratively by

$$N^\epsilon_{i+1} = Z_{i+1}(A(X^\epsilon_i)N^\epsilon_i) \text{ and } X^\epsilon_{i+1} = \epsilon N^\epsilon_{i+1}.$$ 

Equivalently, we can write $X^\epsilon_{i+1} = \epsilon Z_{i+1}(F(X^\epsilon_i)/\epsilon)$.
A useful observation about these Poisson processes, from the modelling standpoint, is that multinomial sampling of a Poisson process still corresponds to a Poisson process. More specifically, consider a multinomial random vector \( (X_1, \ldots, X_k) \) where the number of samples \( N \) is Poisson distributed with mean \( \lambda > 0 \) and the sampling probabilities are \( (p_1, \ldots, p_k) \). Then

\[
P[X_1 = x_1, \ldots, X_k = x_k] = \frac{(x_1 + \cdots + x_k)!}{x_1! \cdots x_k!} p_1^{x_1} \cdots p_k^{x_k} \exp(-\lambda) \frac{\lambda^{x_1+\cdots+x_k}}{(x_1 + \cdots x_k)!}
\]

Hence, \( X_1, \ldots, X_k \) are independent Poisson random variables with rate parameters \( p_1 \lambda, \ldots, p_k \lambda \). We make repeated use of this observation in the examples provided below.

Since \( F \) is bounded, one can show quite generally that these Markov chains support quasi-stationary distributions whenever there are absorbing sets. For all of our examples, these absorbing sets are \( \{0\} \) or \( \partial \mathbb{R}_+^k = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}_+^k : \prod x_i = 0 \} \).

A proof of this assertion is given in Proposition 6.1 of Section 6. Under slightly stronger assumptions (namely \( A \) is continuous and \( F_1 \) is strictly positive), we show in Proposition 6.3 of Section 6 that these Poisson processes also satisfy our large deviation Hypotheses 2.5 and 2.6.

To provide a taste of the possible applications, we apply our results to three particular classes of nonlinear Poisson branching processes.

**Metapopulation dynamics**

A fundamental question in population biology is how do local demographic processes such as reproduction and survivorship interact with dispersal (a regional demographic process) to determine spatial-temporal patterns of abundance [Earn et al., 2000, Hastings and Botsford, 2006, Earn and Levin, 2006, Schreiber, 2010]. This issue has been studied extensively with discrete-time deterministic models representing space as a finite collection of patches connected by dispersal. To illustrate how our results apply to these metapopulation models, we introduce a stochastic version of the spatial Ricker map, which was originally studied by [Hastings, 1993] for 2 patches, and for which we allow an arbitrary number, \( k \), of patches.

Let \( 1/\varepsilon > 0 \) be the area or volume of a single patch, \( N_{i,t}^{x,i} \) denote the number of individuals in patch \( i \), \( N_t^x = (N_{1,t}^x, \ldots, N_{k,t}^x) \) the vector of population abundances across space, and \( X_t^x = \varepsilon N_t^x \) the vector of population densities. To describe reproduction within a patch, let \( f(x) = f_0 \exp(-x) \) be the mean fecundity of an individual when the local population density is \( x \) and the “intrinsic” fitness is \( f_0 > 0 \). The map \( x \mapsto xf(x) \) is known as the Ricker map in theoretical ecology and is commonly used to describe the population dynamics of a single species [Ricker, 1954, Hastings, 1997, Wysham and Hastings, 2008]. Let \( D = (d_{ij}) \) be an irreducible, row-stochastic matrix where \( d_{ij} \) corresponds to the probability of an individual dispersing from patch \( i \) to patch \( j \). Given \( N_t^x \), we define the spatial Ricker process as follows

- Each individual in patch \( i \) independently produces a Poisson-distributed number of offspring with mean \( f(X_{t}^{x,i}) \) to replace themselves. Let \( Z_{t+1}^{x,i} \) be the total number of offspring produced in patch \( i \), which is Poisson distributed with mean \( N_{i,t}^{x,i} f(X_{t}^{x,i}) \). We assume that the \( Z_{t+1}^{x,1}, \ldots, Z_{t+1}^{x,k} \) are independent; there are no correlations in the reproductive output between distinct patches.
- Independent of one another, offspring in patch \( i \) move to patch \( j \) with probability \( d_{ij} \). To represent this movement, let \( W_{t+1}^{x,i}(i) = (W_{t+1}^{x,1}(i), \ldots, W_{t+1}^{x,k}(i)) \) be a multinomial random vector with sampling probabilities

\[
\mathbb{P}[X_1 = x_1, \ldots, X_k = x_k] = \frac{\lambda^{x_1+\cdots+x_k}}{(x_1 + \cdots x_k)!} \prod_{i=1}^k \frac{(p_i \lambda)^{x_i}}{x_i!} \exp(-p_i \lambda)
\]
implies the process implies the process Ramanan and Zeitouni

3.9

3.12

b

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We remark that in the special case of a single patch, \(k\)

If all the entries of \(F\)

the dynamics of the map \(\{\}

By our earlier observation about multinomial sampling of a Poisson random variable, \(\{X^\varepsilon_i\}\)

\(X^\varepsilon_i\) is a nonlinear Poisson process with

\[F_i(x) = \sum_j d_j x_j f(x_j).\]

Since \(\|F\| \leq f_0 \|D\|\) and \(D\) is irreducible, Proposition 6.1 implies the process \(\{X^\varepsilon_i\}\) has a quasi-stationary distribution \(\mu\) with respect to the absorbing state \(M_0 = \{0\}\) for all \(\varepsilon > 0\).

Let \(\mu\) be a weak* limit point of \(\mu\), as \(\varepsilon \to 0\). To say something about the support of \(\mu\), we need to understand the dynamics of the map \(F(x)\). The simplest applicable result is a persistence and extinction dichotomy. Since \(F_i(x) \leq f_0 x_i\), it follows that 0 is a global attractor for \(F(x)\) whenever \(f_0 < 1\). Alternatively, when \(f_0 > 1\), a result of Kon et al. [2004, Theorem 3] implies that \(F(x)\) has a positive attractor. Lemma 3.9 b’) and Theorem 3.12 imply the following result.

**Proposition 5.2** Let \(\mu\) be a weak* limit point for quasi-stationary distributions \(\mu\), of the spatial Ricker process \(\{X^\varepsilon_i\}\). Then

- **Extinction** if \(f_0 < 1\), then \(\mu(\{0\}) = 1\).
- **Metastability** if \(f_0 > 1\), then there exists a \(\delta > 0\) such that \(\mu(N^\delta(\{0\})) = 0\).

In the limiting cases where the population is either weakly-mixed or well-mixed, we can say more about the support of the limiting measure \(\mu\). These stronger assertions rely on the one-dimensional map \(x \mapsto f_0 x \exp(-x)\) having a linearly stable periodic orbit, call it \(S = \{p, F(p), \ldots, F^{n-1}(p)\}\) where \(n\) is the period. Kozlovski [2003, Theorem C] proved that, for an open and dense set of \(f_0\) values, such a stable periodic orbit exists. Hence, this assumption is not very restrictive.

**Theorem 5.3** Assume the one-dimensional map \(x \mapsto f_0 x \exp(-x)\) has a linearly stable periodic orbit, call it \(S = \{p, F(p), \ldots, F^{n-1}(p)\}\), and \(D\) is an irreducible, non-negative matrix whose row sums equal one (i.e. a row stochastic matrix).

- **weakly mixing** If \(D\) is sufficiently close to the identity matrix, then there exists \(n_k\) linearly stable periodic orbits for \(F(x)\) and \(\mu\) is supported by the union of these stable periodic orbits.
- **strongly mixing** If all the entries of \(D\) are sufficiently close to \(1/k\) and the column sums of \(D\) equal one (i.e. \(D\) is doubly stochastic), then there exists a unique globally stable periodic orbit for \(F(x)\) and the support of \(\mu\) is given by this periodic orbit.

We remark that in the special case of a single patch, \(k = 1\), we recover results of Högnäs [1997], Klebaner et al. [1998], and Ramanan and Zeitouni [1999] for one-dimensional maps on a compact interval. See Section 3.5 for further discussion about this point.

**Proof.** To prove the first assertion, consider the uncoupled map

\[\bar{F}(x) = (x_1 f(x_1), x_2 f(x_2), \ldots, x_k f(x_k)).\]

Each of the components of this limiting map are given by the one-dimension map \(g(x_i) = x_i f(x_i)\) which by assumption has a linearly stable periodic orbit \(S = \{p, g(p), \ldots, g^{n-1}(p)\}\). This linearly stable periodic orbit gives rise to \(n^k\) periodic orbits of the form \((g^{n_j}(p), \ldots, g^{n_i}(p))\) with \(0 \leq n_j < n\) for \(\bar{F}\). Since \(g\) has a negative Schwartzian derivative
and a single critical point, van Strien [1981, Theorem A] proved that the complement of the basin of attraction of \( S \) for \( g \) can be decomposed into a finite number of compact, \( g \)-invariant sets which have a dense orbit and are hyperbolic repellers: there exists \( C > 0 \) and \( \lambda > 1 \) such that \( |g^n(x)| \geq C \lambda^n \) for all points \( x \) in the set and \( n \geq 1 \). Consequently, the \( k \)-dimensional mapping \( \tilde{F} \) is an Axiom A endomorphism [Przytycki, 1976, pg. 271]: the derivative of \( \tilde{F} \) is non-singular for all points in the non-wandering set \( \Omega(\tilde{F}) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}_+^k : \text{for every neighborhood} \ U \ \text{of} \ x, \ \tilde{F}^n(U) \cap U \neq \emptyset \ \text{for some} \ n \} \), \( \Omega(\tilde{F}) \) is a hyperbolic set, and the periodic points are dense in \( \Omega(\tilde{F}) \). Results of Przytycki [1976, 3.11-3.14 and 3.17] imply that key attributes of Axiom A endomorphism are \( (i) \ \Omega(\tilde{F}) \) decomposes in a finite number of invariant sets \( \Omega(\tilde{F}), \ldots, \Omega^m(\tilde{F}) \), \( (ii) \) for each orbit \( \{ x_n \} \subset \Omega(\tilde{F}) \) of \( \tilde{F} \), the unstable manifold at \( x_0 \) intersects \( \Omega(\tilde{F}) \) in a dense set, and \( (iii) \) maps \( F \) sufficiently \( C^1 \) close to \( \tilde{F} \) are Axiom A endomorphisms. Property \( (ii) \) implies that \( F(x) = D\tilde{F}(x) \) is an Axiom A endomorphism provided that \( D \) is sufficiently close to the identity matrix. Property \( (ii) \) implies that each of the invariant sets \( \Omega(\tilde{F}) \) is a \( \rho \)-equivalence class. Linear stability of the \( n^k \) periodic orbits \( (g^{n_1}(p), \ldots, g^{n_k}(p)) \) with \( 0 \leq n_j < n \) for \( \tilde{F} \) implies that, for sufficiently small perturbations \( F \) of \( \tilde{F} \), \( n^k \) of the invariant sets \( \Omega(\tilde{F}) \) correspond to linearly stable periodic points, while the remaining invariant sets are either either hyperbolic repellers or saddles. Since the stable periodic orbits are the only \( \rho \)-quasi-attractors, Theorem 2.7 implies the first assertion of the proof.

We prove the second assertion. Since \( D \) is doubly stochastic, the non-negative half-line \( \mathcal{L} = \{ x : x_1 = \cdots = x_k \geq 0 \} \) is \( F \)-invariant i.e. \( F(x_1 \mathbf{1}) = g(x_1) \mathbf{1} \) where \( \mathbf{1} \) is the vector of ones. As in the case of the proof of the first assertion, the dynamics of \( \tilde{F} \) restricted \( \mathcal{L} \) has the stable periodic point \( (p_1, \ldots, g^{n-1}(p) \mathbf{1}) \) and the complement of its basin of attraction can be decomposed into a finite number, say \( m \), of compact, \( g \)-invariant sets which have a dense orbit and are hyperbolic repellers. Define \( \tilde{D} \) by \( d_{ij} = d_{ij} - d_{ik} \) for all \( i, j \). By choosing \( d_{ij} \) sufficiently close to \( 1/k \) for all \( i, j \), we can make the matrix \( \tilde{D} \) as close to zero as we want. Hence, Earn and Levin [2006, Theorem 1] implies that \( \mathcal{L} \) is a global attractor for the dynamics of \( F \). Moreover, the stable periodic orbit for \( F \) restricted to \( \mathcal{L} \) is stable for \( F \). Proposition 5.1 implies that each of these invariant sets is a \( \rho \)-equivalence class. Since the stable periodic orbit is the only \( \rho \)-quasi-attractor, Theorem 2.7 implies the second assertion.

Competing species

During the mid twentieth century, laboratory experiments played a key role in establishing the competitive exclusion principle in ecology. One classic set of competition experiments was conducted by Park [1948, 1954] with flour beetles. To model the dynamics of these competing beetles, collaborators of Park [Leslie and Gower, 1958] used difference equations, rather than the classical Lotka-Volterra differential equation model of competition. Cushing et al. [2004] showed that these difference equations exhibit the same dynamical outcomes as the Lotka-Volterra models. Namely, one or both species may go extinct for all initial conditions, may coexist about a globally stable equilibrium, or may exhibit contingent exclusion where the initially “more abundant” species excludes the other species. Here, we consider a stochastic counterpart of the Leslie-Gower model.

Let \( N^x_t = (N^{x,1}_t, N^{x,2}_t) \) and \( X^x_t = \varepsilon N^x_t \) denote the abundances and densities of the competing species at time \( t \). Once again, \( 1/\varepsilon \) corresponds to the volume of their habitat. The per-capita mean fecundity \( f_i(x) \) for species \( i \) is given by \( f_i(x) = \frac{b_i}{1+c_{ij}x_i+c_{ij}x_j} \) where \( j \neq i \), \( b_i > 0 \) is the “intrinsic” birth rate, \( c_{ij} > 0 \) is the strength of intraspecific competition, and \( c_{ij} > 0 \) is the strength of interspecific competition. If individual births are independent given the current density of individuals and Poisson distributed with means \( f_i(X^x_t) \) \( i = 1, 2 \), then \( N^{x,1}_t \) is a nonlinear Poisson process associated with the map \( F(x) = (f_1(x)x_1, f_2(x)x_2) \). Proposition 6.1 implies the Leslie-Gower process has quasi-stationary distributions \( \mu_x \) for \( \varepsilon > 0 \) with \( M = \mathbb{R}_+^2 = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_i \geq 0 \} \) and \( M_0 = \partial \mathbb{R}_+^2 = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}_+^2 : x_1x_2 = 0 \} \).

Results of Cushing et al. [2004, Theorem 4], our Theorem 3.12, and our Theorem 2.7 imply the following result.

**Theorem 5.4** Let \( \mu_x \) be a quasi-stationary distribution for the Leslie-Gower process \( \{ X^x_t \} \). Let \( \mu \) a weak* limit point
of these quasi-stationary distributions.

**Coexistence** If \( b_i > 1 \) for \( i = 1, 2 \) and \( c_i(b_j - 1) < b_i - 1 \) for \( i = 1, 2 \) and \( i \neq j \), then \( \mu \) is a Dirac measure supported by the point

\[
\left( \frac{b_2 - 1}{c_1 c_2 - 1}, \frac{b_1 - 1}{c_1 c_2 - 1} \right) \cdot \left( \frac{b_1 - 1}{c_1 c_2 - 1}, \frac{b_2 - 1}{c_1 c_2 - 1} \right)
\]

**Extinction or Exclusion** If \( b_i < 1 \) for some \( i \), or \( b_i > 1 \) for \( i = 1, 2 \), \( b_2 - 1 > (b_1 - 1)/c_1 \) and \( b_1 - 1 > (b_2 - 1)/c_2 \), or \( b_i > 1 \) for \( i = 1, 2 \), \( b_2 - 1 < (b_1 - 1)/c_1 \) and \( b_1 - 1 < (b_2 - 1)/c_2 \), then \( \mu \) is supported by \( \partial \mathbb{R}^2_+ \).

The case for which our results are not conclusive is when the dynamics of the Leslie-Gower model are bistable (i.e. \( b_i > 1 \) for \( i = 1, 2 \) and \( c_i(b_j - 1) > b_i - 1 \) for \( i = 1, 2 \) and \( i \neq j \)) in which case there is a positive unstable equilibrium and all initial conditions not lying on its stable manifold (which has dimension one) go to \( \partial \mathbb{R}^2_+ \). However, we conjecture that \( \mu \) is supported on the boundary of the positive quadrant in this case.

**Host-parasitoid interactions**

Predator-prey interactions involve one species benefiting by harming another species. These interactions are the fundamental building block for all food webs. An important class of predators are parasitoids such as wasps or flies whose young develop in and ultimately kill their host [Godfray, 1994]. Mathematical models of these interactions have been studied for almost a century [Thompson, 1924, Nicholson and Bailey, 1935, Hassell, 1978, 2000, May, 1995, Schreiber, 2006a, 2007, Gidea et al., 2011]. As predator-prey interactions are inherently oscillatory, these studies often focused on identifying mechanisms that stabilize predator-prey interactions.

Here, we introduce a stochastic analog of these deterministic models. Let \( H^\varepsilon_t \) and \( P^\varepsilon_t \) denote the abundances of host and the parasitoid in generation \( t \), respectively. Let \( X^\varepsilon_t = \varepsilon N^\varepsilon_t = \varepsilon (H^\varepsilon_t, P^\varepsilon_t) \) be their densities where \( 1/\varepsilon \) is the size of the environment. Let \( f(X^\varepsilon_{t-1}) \) be the mean number of offspring produced by an individual host. Let \( g(X^\varepsilon_t) \) be the probability that an offspring escapes parasitism from the parasitoids. We update the population state \( X^\varepsilon_t \) according to the following rules:

- Each adult host independently produces a Poisson distributed number of offspring with mean \( f(X^\varepsilon_{t-1}) \). Let \( M_{t+1} \) be the total number of offspring which is Poisson distributed with mean \( H^\varepsilon_t f(X^\varepsilon_{t-1}) \).
- Each offspring survives parasitism independently with probability \( g(X^\varepsilon_t) \). Let \( H^\varepsilon_{t+1} \) equal the number of surviving offspring and \( P^\varepsilon_{t+1} = M_{t+1} - H^\varepsilon_{t+1} \) be the number of parasitized offspring which all emerge as parasitoids in the next generation.

Since \((H^\varepsilon_{t+1}, P^\varepsilon_{t+1})\) is binomial distributed with \( M_{t+1} \) trials, \((H^\varepsilon_{t+1}, P^\varepsilon_{t+1})\) are independent Poisson random variables. Hence, \( X^\varepsilon_t \) is a nonlinear Poisson process associated with the map

\[
F(x) = (f(x_1)x_1g(x), f(x_1)x_1(1 - g(x))).
\]

on \( \mathbb{R}^2_+ = \{(x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_i \geq 0\} \). Provided that \( F \) is continuous and \( f \) is a compact map, Proposition 6.1 implies that there is a quasi-stationary distribution \( \mu_{\varepsilon} \) for \( X^\varepsilon_t \) with \( \varepsilon > 0 \).

To understand the support of the weak* limit points \( \mu \) of \( \mu_{\varepsilon} \), we focus on a generalized Thompson model [Thompson, 1924, Getz and Mills, 1996, Schreiber, 2006a, 2007]. For this model, \( f(x_1) = \exp(r(1 - x_1/K)) \) is given by the Ricker equation where \( r > 0 \) is the intrinsic rate of growth of the host and \( K > 0 \) is the host’s carrying capacity. The escape function \( g(x) = (1 + x_2/(bx_1 k))^{-k} \) corresponds to a negative binomial escape function with egg-limited encounter rates. Here, \( b > 0 \) is the attack rate of the parasitoid and \( 1/k > 0 \) represents how “clumped” or “aggregated” parasitoid attack are, i.e. smaller \( k \) correspond to greater aggregation of parasitoid attacks. Notice that while \( g \) is not
defined at \( x_1 = 0 \), the map \( F \) extends continuously to \( x_1 = 0 \) whenever \( x_1 = 0 \). Combining results from Schreiber [2007, Theorem 3.1, 3.2] and Theorem 2.7 yields the following results for \( k < 1 \) i.e. parasitoid attacks are sufficiently aggregated [Hassell et al., 1991].

**Theorem 5.5** Let \( \mu \) be a weak* limit point of the quasi-stationary distributions for the Thompson host-parasitoid process \( X_t^\varepsilon \). Assume \( k < 1 \) and define
\[
y^* = \max\{y \geq 0 : \exp(-r) \left((1 + y/(bk))^k - 1\right) = y\}.
\]

Then
- **Extinction** If \( \exp(r)(1 + y^*/(bk))^{-k} < 1 \), then \( \mu \) is supported by the \( \partial \mathbb{R}_+^2 = \{x \in \mathbb{R}_+^2 : x_1 x_2 = 0\} \).
- **Coexistence** If \( \exp(r)(1 + y^*/(bk))^{-k} > 1 \), then \( \mu \) is supported by \( \mathbb{R}_+^2 \setminus \partial \mathbb{R}_+^2 \). Moreover, for an open and dense set of parameter values \((r, b)\) satisfying \( \exp(r)(1 + y^*/(bk))^{-k} > 1 \), \( \mu \) is supported by a periodic orbit.

When \( k \geq 1 \) (i.e. parasitoid attacks are not sufficiently aggregated), Schreiber [2007, Theorem 3.1] implies coexistence does not occur for the deterministic model. However, this extinction often involves unstable sets in the interior of \( \mathbb{R}_+^2 \). Consequently, our results are not applicable. Nonetheless, we conjecture that \( \mu \) is supported by \( \partial \mathbb{R}_+^2 \).

### 5.3. Multinomial processes

Consider a landscape with \( N \) sites that can be in one of \( k \) states. These states may correspond to occupation by individuals playing different strategies in the context of evolutionary games, or different genotypes in the context of population genetics. Let \( M = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^k : x_i \geq 0, \sum_{i=1}^k x_i = 1\} \) be the \( k \)-simplex and \( F : M \to M \) be a continuous map.

For each \( x \in M \), let \( Z_1(x), Z_2(x), \ldots \) be a sequence of independent random vectors with a multinomial distribution with \( N \) trials, \( k \) possible outcomes, and probability \( x_i \) of producing type \( i \) in a single trial. If \( \varepsilon = 1/N \) and \( X_0^\varepsilon \in M \cap \varepsilon \mathbb{Z}^k \) is given, then we can define a Markov chain \( \{X_t^\varepsilon\}_{t=0}^\infty \) on \( M \cap \varepsilon \mathbb{Z}^k \) iteratively by
\[
X_{t+1}^\varepsilon = \varepsilon Z_{t+1}(F(X_t^\varepsilon))
\]

Since \( \{X_t^\varepsilon\} \) is a finite-state Markov chain, quasi-stationary distributions exist uniquely whenever the transition matrix restricted to the transient states is aperiodic and irreducible [Darroch and Seneta, 1965]. When \( M_0 \) is the boundary of the simplex and \( F_i(x) = x_i f_i(x) \), with \( f_i \) continuous and positive, we therefore always have a unique quasi-stationary distribution, and we prove in Proposition 6.5 of Section 6 that the large deviation hypotheses are satisfied. As a particular application of these multinomial processes, we consider evolutionary games.

*Evolutionary game dynamics*

Evolutionary game theory studies the dynamics of populations of players, each programmed to play a fixed strategy throughout their life time [Hofbauer and Sigmund, 1998, 2003, Cressman, 2003]. These populations often exhibit frequency dependent selection; the reproductive success of a player changes in time due to the composition of strategies in the population. The study of evolutionary games has led to fundamental insights into the evolution of animal conflicts [Maynard Smith, 1974], cooperation [Nowak et al., 2004, Imhof and Nowak, 2010], habitat selection [Schreiber et al., 2000, Cressman et al., 2004], and mating systems [Sinervo and Lively, 1996].

A basic deterministic model for evolutionary games is the discrete-time replicator equation [Hofbauer and Sigmund, 2003]
\[
F_i(x) = x_i \sum_j a_{ij} x_j + c \sum_j a_{ij} x_j x_i + c
\]
where $x_i$ is the frequency of strategy $i$ in the population, the entries $a_{ij}$ of the “pay-off” matrix $A$ describe the fitness gain to strategy $i$ when interacting with strategy $j$, and $c$ is the “basal” fitness of an individual. The dynamics of this discrete system have been studied extensively [Hofbauer and Sigmund, 1998, 2003]. Here, we describe a stochastic analog of these games that account for finite population sizes. In the case of two-strategies, this stochastic analog corresponds to the frequency dependent Wright-Fisher processes studied by Imhof and Nowak [2006].

Let $N^ε_i$ and $X^ε_i$ denote the abundance and frequency of the $i$-th strategy at time $t$. Here, $1/ε$ is assumed to be an integer that corresponds to the total population size which does not change over time. If we update $N^ε_i$ by taking a multinomial random variable with $1/ε$ trials and probabilities $F(X^ε_i)$, then we get a multinomial process. One can interpret this process as individuals producing many offspring proportional to their fitness and randomly selecting individuals from the offspring “pool” to replace their parents. For this stochastic process $\{X^ε_t\}$, $M_0 = \{x \in M : \prod x_i = 0\}$ is an absorbing set that corresponds to the loss of one or more strategies.

We can leverage two results from the theory of replicator dynamics to describe the support of the quasi-stationary distributions $\mu_ε$ when $ε > 0$ is sufficiently small and the basal payoff $c$ is sufficiently large. To first order in $1/c$,

$$F_i(x) \approx x_i + x_i \frac{1}{c} \left( \sum_j a_{ij} x_j - \sum_{jl} a_{jl} x_j x_l \right)$$

and the dynamics of the map $x \mapsto F(x)$ can be viewed as a Cauchy-Euler approximation to the classical continuous time replicator equations

$$\frac{dx_i}{dt} = x_i \left( \sum_j a_{ij} x_j - \sum_{jl} a_{jl} x_j x_l \right). \quad (11)$$

Using this observation and work of Hofbauer and Sigmund [1998], Garay and Hofbauer [2003], we can prove a sufficient condition for the stochastic replicator processes exhibiting metastable persistence for $ε > 0$ small and $c > 0$ large.

**Theorem 5.6** Let $\mu$ be a weak* limit point of the quasi-stationary distributions $\mu^ε$ for the replicator process with $c > 0$ sufficiently large. If there exists $p_i > 0$ such that

$$\sum_j p_i \left( \sum_j a_{ij} x_j - \sum_{jl} a_{jl} x_j x_l \right) > 0$$

at every equilibrium $x \in M_0$ for $F$, then $\mu$ is supported by $M_1$.

**Proof.** Hofbauer and Sigmund [1998, Theorem 13.6.1] implies that the continuous-time replicator equations (11) have a global attractor $A \subset M_1$ whenever there positive weights $p_1, \ldots, p_k$ such that

$$\sum_j p_i \left( \sum_j a_{ij} x_j - \sum_{jl} a_{jl} x_j x_l \right) > 0$$

at every equilibrium $x \in M_0$ for $F$. In particular, in the terminology of Garay and Hofbauer [2003, Definition 2.1], (11) admits a good average Lyapunov function whenever these positive weights exist. Consequently, Garay and Hofbauer [2003, Theorem 8.3] implies that the discrete-time replicator equation $F$ admits a global attractor $A \subset M_1$ whenever $c$ is sufficiently large. This global attractor, however, need not be a unique $\rho$-quasi attractor. However, as suggested by Comment 3.8, we can apply Lemma 3.9b’ to conclude that $\mu(V_0) = 0$ for some neighborhood $V_0$ of $M_0$. ■
As an interesting special case consider the rock-paper-scissor game where the payoff-matrix is of the form

\[
A = \begin{pmatrix}
0 & -a_2 & b_3 \\
-b_1 & 0 & -a_3 \\
-a_1 & b_2 & 0
\end{pmatrix}
\]

with \(a_i\) and \(b_i\) positive. Zeeman [1980] proved that if \(\det(A) > 0\), then the persistence condition of Theorem 5.6 is satisfied. Moreover, for the continuous-time replicator equations, there is a globally stable internal equilibrium. For \(c > 0\) sufficiently large, this equilibrium is also globally stable for the map \(F\) and, consequently \(\mu\) is a Dirac measure supported by this equilibrium. When \(\det(A) < 0\), Zeeman proved that the internal equilibrium is unstable and all other orbits of the continuous-time deterministic system approach the boundary and one can show that the same conclusion holds for the discrete-time system when \(c > 0\) is sufficiently large. Since the boundary is not a global attractor in this case, we can not apply Theorem 3.12. None the less, we conjecture that \(\mu\) is supported on the boundary \(M_0\) in this case.

6. Large deviation results for Poisson and multinomial models

In this section we prove the existence of quasi-stationary distributions (as needed) and verify our large deviation hypotheses for the Poisson and multinomial models introduced in Section 5.

6.1. Nonlinear Poisson branching model

We first prove the existence of quasi-stationary distributions for the nonlinear Poisson processes introduced in Section 5.2.

**Proposition 6.1** If \(\sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}_+} \|F(x)\| < \infty\) and \(F_i(x) > 0\) for all \(x \in M \setminus M_0\) and \(i\), then the nonlinear Poisson process \(\{X_t^x\}\) associated with \(F\) has at least one quasi-stationary distribution supported on \(M \setminus M_0\).

**Proof.** For notational convenience, we prove this result for the Markov chain \(\{N_t^x\}\) and call \(p^\varepsilon(x,y)\) its transition kernel. Let \(X = \mathbb{Z}_+^k \setminus M_0\) and \(q^\varepsilon(x,y)\) denote the restriction of \(p^\varepsilon\) to \(X\). Let \(l^1(X)\) denote absolutely summable functions from \(X\) to \(\mathbb{R}\). For \(u \in l^1(X)\), define \(\|u\|_1 = \sum_{x \in X} |u(x)|\).

We can define a linear operator \(Q^\varepsilon\) from \(l^1(X)\) to \(l^1(X)\) by \((uQ^\varepsilon)(x) = \sum_{y \in X} q^\varepsilon(y,x)u(y)\). Recall that \(\mu^\varepsilon\) is a QSD for the Markov chain \(N^\varepsilon\) if and only if it is a non negative eigenvector of the operator \(Q^\varepsilon\). Since \(F_i(x) > 0\) for all \(i\) and \(x \in M \setminus M_0\), \(q^\varepsilon(x,y) > 0\) for all \(x, y \in X\).

Next, we show \(Q^\varepsilon\) is a compact operator i.e. the image of the unit ball under \(Q^\varepsilon\) is precompact. Recall that a closed set \(C\) in \(l^1(X)\) is compact if and only if it is bounded and equisummable: for all \(\delta > 0\), there exists \(N\) such that \(\sup_{u \in C} \sum_{x \in X} |u(x)| \leq \delta\). Defining \(G(x) = F(\varepsilon x)/\varepsilon\), we get

\[
q^\varepsilon(x,y) = \prod_{i=1}^k \frac{G_i(x)^{y_i}}{y_i!} \exp(-G_i(x)) \leq \prod_{i=1}^k \frac{m^{y_i}}{y_i!}, \text{ where } m = \sup_{x \in X} \|G(x)\|
\]
Hence, for \( u \) with \( \| u \|_1 \leq 1 \),
\[
\| u Q^v \|_1 = \sum_x \left| \sum_y q^v(y, x) u(y) \right| \\
\leq \sum_x \left( \sum_y \prod_{i=1}^k \frac{m_{x_i}}{x_i!} \right) |u(y)| \\
\leq \sum_x \prod_{i=1}^k \frac{m_{x_i}}{x_i!} = e^{km}
\]

Moreover, given \( \delta > 0 \), choose \( N > 0 \) such that \( \sum_{|x| \geq N} \prod_{i=1}^k m_{x_i}/x_i! < \delta \). Then \( \sum_{|x| \geq N} |(u Q^v)(x)| \leq \delta \) for all \( u \) such that \( \| u \|_1 \leq 1 \). Hence, \( Q^v \) is a compact operator.

On the other hand, given that \( q^v \) is strictly positive on \( X \times X \), we have for any \( Y \subset X \),
\[
\sum_{x \notin Y} \sum_{y \in Y} q^v(x, y) > 0
\]

Applying the following result of Jentzsch on Kernel positive operators completes the proof of this proposition.

**Theorem 6.2** [Schaefer, 1974, Theorem V.6.6] Let \( E = L^p(\mu) \), where \( 1 \leq p \leq +\infty \) and \( (X, \Sigma, \mu) \) is a \( \sigma \)-finite measure space. Suppose \( Q \in \mathcal{L}(E) \) is an operator given by a \((\Sigma \times \Sigma)\)-measurable kernel \( q \geq 0 \), satisfying the following two assumptions:

(i) Some power of \( Q \) is compact,

(ii) \( Y \subset \Sigma, \mu(Y) > 0 \) and \( \mu(\Sigma \setminus Y) > 0 \) implies
\[
\int_{X \setminus Y} \int_Y q(x, y) \mu(dx) \mu(dy) > 0.
\]

Then the spectral radius \( r(Q) \) is positive, is a simple eigenvalue, its unique renormalized eigenvector \( v \) satisfies \( v(x) > 0 \), \( \mu \) almost surely and \( r(Q) \) is the only eigenvalue of \( Q \) with a positive eigenvector. Moreover, if \( q(x, y) > 0 \) (\( \mu \otimes \mu \)) almost surely then every other eigenvalue of \( Q \) has modulus strictly smaller than \( r(Q) \). ■

The following proposition verifies the large deviation hypotheses of Section 2 for the nonlinear Poisson processes.

**Proposition 6.3** Assume that \( x \mapsto F(x) \) is continuous, \( F_i(x) > 0 \) for all \( i \) and \( x \in M \setminus M_0 \), and \( \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}_+^k} \| F(x) \| < \infty \). Then the nonlinear Poisson process \( \{ X^x_t \} \) associated with \( F \) satisfies Hypotheses 2.5 and 2.6.

**Proof.** Let \( \mu^x \) denote the distribution of the Poisson random vector \( X^x_{t+1} \) conditional to \( X^x_t = x \). The logarithmic moment generating function relative to \( \mu^x \) is given by
\[
\Lambda_{\varepsilon, x}(\lambda) = \log \mathbb{E} \left( e^{\varepsilon \varepsilon Z_1(F(x)/\varepsilon)} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{F_i(x)}{\varepsilon} (e^{\varepsilon \lambda_i} - 1)
\]

Hence, the family \( \varepsilon \Lambda_{\varepsilon, x} \) is identically equal on \( \mathbb{R}_+^k \) to the function \( \Lambda_x(\lambda) = \sum_{i=1}^k F_i(x)(e^{\lambda_i} - 1) \). Thus, by the Gärtner-Ellis Theorem (see, e.g., [Dembo and Zeitouni, 1993, Theorem 2.3.6]), the family \( \mu^x \) satisfies a large deviation principle with convex rate function \( \Lambda^*(y) = \sum_{i=1}^k y_i \log \frac{y_i}{F_i(x)} + F_i(x) - y_i \), i.e. for any closed set \( F \subset \mathbb{R}_+^k \) and \( x \in \mathbb{R}_+^k \),
\[
\limsup_{\varepsilon \to 0} \varepsilon \log \mu^x(\varepsilon F) \leq - \inf_{y \in F} \Lambda^*(y)
\]
and for any open set \( G \subset \mathbb{R}^k_+ \)
\[
\liminf_{\varepsilon \to 0} \varepsilon \log \mu^\varepsilon(x)(G) \geq -\inf_{y \in G} \Lambda^\varepsilon_y(y).
\]

Hence, if we define
\[
\rho(x, y) = \Lambda^\varepsilon_y(y)
\]
then \( \rho \) immediately satisfies (i), (ii) and the upper bound of (iv) of Hypothesis 2.5.

Now let us derive the uniform lower bound of Hypothesis 2.5. Pick a compact set \( K \subset M_1 \) and an open ball \( B \subset M \). Let \( B^\varepsilon = B \cap (\varepsilon \mathbb{N}^k) \) be the \( \varepsilon \)-lattice on \( B \). Let \( \alpha > 0 \). For every \( x \in K \), there exists \( y(x) \in B \) such that \( \rho(x, y(x)) \leq \inf_{y \in B} \rho(x, y) + \alpha \). Choose \( \varepsilon_0 > 0 \) small enough such that
\[
d(y, y') < \varepsilon_0 \Rightarrow |\rho(x, y) - \rho(x, y')| < \alpha
\]
for all \( y, y' \in B \) and \( x \in K \). For each \( x \in K \) and each \( 0 < \varepsilon < \varepsilon_0 \), we can choose a point \( y_\varepsilon(x) = \varepsilon(n_\varepsilon^1, \ldots, n_\varepsilon^k) \) such that \( d(y_\varepsilon(x), y(x)) < \varepsilon \) and, consequently, \( \rho(x, y_\varepsilon(x)) \leq \inf_{y \in B} \rho(x, y) + 2\alpha \). For all \( 0 < \varepsilon < \varepsilon_0 \) and all \( x \in K \), we have
\[
\mu^\varepsilon(B) \supset \mu^\varepsilon(B_\varepsilon) = \Pi_{i=1}^k e^{-F_i(x)/\varepsilon} (F_i(x)/\varepsilon)^{n_i^\varepsilon}/n_i^\varepsilon!.
\]
Recall that, for any \( p \in \mathbb{N} \), \( -p - \log p! + p \log p \geq -(1 + \log p) \) and define \( I_+ = \{ i \in \{1, \ldots, k \} : n_i^\varepsilon > 0 \} \). A straightforward computation gives
\[
\varepsilon \log \mu^\varepsilon(B) \geq -\sum_{i=1}^k F_i(x) + \sum_{i \in I_+} \left( \varepsilon n_i^\varepsilon \log \frac{F_i(x)}{\varepsilon} - \varepsilon \log(n_i^\varepsilon!) \right)
\]
\[
= -\rho(x, y_\varepsilon(x)) + \sum_{i \in I_+} \varepsilon n_i^\varepsilon \left( -1 - \frac{1}{n_i^\varepsilon} \log(n_i^\varepsilon!) + \log n_i^\varepsilon \right)
\]
\[
\geq -2\alpha - \inf_{y \in B} \rho(x, y) - \varepsilon \sum_{i \in I_+} (1 + \log n_i^\varepsilon) .
\]
The last quantity goes to zero as \( \varepsilon \) goes to zero, independently of \( x \) since \( n_i^\varepsilon \) is of order \( (y_\varepsilon(x))_i / \varepsilon \) and the quantities \( (y_\varepsilon(x))_i \), are bounded. Hence, we have shown that the lower bound (4) holds uniformly for any compact set \( K_+ \times M_1 \) and open ball \( B \).

To verify that \( \rho \) satisfies (iii) of Hypothesis 2.5, we first prove the following lemma:

\underline{Lemma 6.4} Define \( g : (0, \infty) \times [0, \infty) \to [0, \infty) \) by \( g(x, y) = y \log \frac{y}{x} + x - y \). Then for all \( \delta > 0 \) and \( m > 0 \),
\[
\inf \{ g(x, y) : |x - y| \geq \delta, x \leq m \} \geq a > 0
\]

\underline{Proof}. Let \( m > 0 \) and \( \delta > 0 \). We have that \( C := \{ (x, y) : |x - y| \geq \delta, x \leq m \} = A \cup B \) with \( A = \{ (x, y) : m \geq x \geq \delta, 0 \leq y \leq x - \delta \} \) and \( B = \{ (x, y) : y \geq \delta, 0 < x \leq y - \delta \} \). Since \( A \) is compact and \( g \) restricted to \( A \) is positive and continuous, \( \inf_{(x,y) \in A} g(x, y) > 0 \). Restricted to \( B \), \( g(x, y) \) is positive and increasing in \( y \). Hence, \( \inf_{(x,y) \in B} g(x, y) = \inf_{0 < x \leq m} g(x, x + \delta) \). Since
\[
\frac{d}{dx} g(x, x + \delta) = \log(1 + \delta/x) - \delta/x < 0
\]
we get \( \inf_{0 < x \leq m} g(x, x + \delta) = g(m, m + \delta) > 0 \). Thus, \( \inf_{(x,y) \in C} g(x, y) > 0 \).  ■
Let now \( \delta > 0 \) be given, \( d(x, y) = \max_i |x_i - y_i| \), and \( g \) be as defined in the lemma. If \( |y_i - F_i(x)| \geq \delta \), then Lemma 6.4, with \( m = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}_+^k} ||F(x)|| \), implies that \( \rho(x, y) = \sum_j g(F_j(x), y_j) \geq g(F_i(x), y_i) \geq a \).

To check that the uniform upper bound (5) holds, notice that it is sufficient to prove that quantities \( \mu_{\varepsilon, i}^x([F_i(x) + \delta, +\infty[) \) (where \( \mu_{\varepsilon, i}^x(\cdot) \) is the \( i \)-marginal of \( \mu_{\varepsilon, i}^x \), namely the distribution of the \( i \) component conditional to \( X_i^x = x \)) are bounded above by some expression which goes to zero as \( \varepsilon \) goes to zero, uniformly in \( x \in \mathbb{K} \). This is an easy consequence of Chernov upper bound:

\[
\mu_{\varepsilon, i}^x([F_i(x) + \delta, +\infty[) \leq e^{-\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \rho(F_i(x), F_i(x) + \delta)} \leq e^{-\frac{1}{\varepsilon} \beta},
\]

where \( \beta = \inf \{ g(x, y) : |x - y| \geq \delta, x \leq m \} > 0 \) and the quantity on the right hand side goes to zero uniformly in \( x \) by (iii).

Finally to verify Hypothesis 2.6, notice that \( \rho^x(0, 0) = \exp(-\sum_i F_i(x)/\varepsilon) \) and recall that \( F(0) = 0 \). Hence, given \( c > 0 \), choose a neighborhood \( V_0 \) of \( \{ 0 \} \) such that \( \sum_i F_i(x) \leq c \) whenever \( x \in V_0 \). Then \( \varepsilon \log \rho^x(0, 0) \geq -c \) whenever \( x \in V_0 \).

### 6.2. Multinomial model

Here we verify the large deviation assumptions for the the multinomial processes introduced in Section 5.3.

**Proposition 6.5** Assume \( F_i(x) = x_i f_i(x) \), with \( f_i \) continuous and positive. Then the multinomial process \( \{ X_i^x \} \) associated with \( F \) satisfies Hypotheses 2.5 and 2.6 with respect to the absorbing set \( M_0 = \{ x \in \mathbb{K} : \prod_i x_i = 0 \} \).

**Proof.** Let \( \mu_N^x \) be the law of the multinomial random vector \( \frac{1}{N} Z_1(F(x)) \), which can be written as \( \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N Y_i(F(x)) \), where \( (Y_i(F(x)))_i \) is an i.i.d sequence with distribution \( \mathbb{P}[Y_i(F(x)) = e_j] = F_j(x) \) (\( e_i \) is the unitary vector in \( \mathbb{R}_+^k \) whose \( j \)-th component equals one). By Cramér’s Theorem (see, e.g., [Dembo and Zeitouni, 1993, Theorem 2.2.30]), the sequence \( \mu_N^x \) satisfies a large deviation principle with convex rate function \( \Lambda^*_x(y) = \sum_{i=1}^k y_i \log \frac{F_i(x)}{F_i(x)} \). Hence, if we define \( \rho(x, y) = \Lambda^*_x(y) \), then \( \rho \) immediately satisfies (i), (ii), (iv) of Hypothesis 2.5.

The proof of the uniform lower bound is similar to the Poisson branching process case. Let \( K \subset M_1 \) be a compact set and \( B \subset M \) an open ball. Let \( B^N = B \cap \frac{1}{N} \mathbb{N}^k \). Let \( \alpha > 0 \) be given. For every \( x \in \mathbb{K} \), there exists \( y(x) \in B \) such that \( \rho(x, y(x)) \leq \inf_{y \in B} \rho(x, y) + \alpha \). Choose \( N_0 \geq 1 \) sufficiently large such that

\[
d(y, y') < 1/N_0 \Rightarrow |\rho(x, y) - \rho(x, y')| < \alpha
\]

for all \( x \in \mathbb{K} \) and \( y, y' \in B \). For each \( x \in \mathbb{K} \) and \( N \geq N_0 \), we choose \( y_N(x) = \frac{1}{N}(n_1^N, \ldots, n_k^N) \) such that \( d(y_N(x), y(x)) < 1/N \). Let \( I_+ = \{ i : n_i^N > 0 \} \). For \( N \) large enough,

\[
\frac{1}{N} \log \mu_N^x(B) \geq \frac{1}{N} \log \mu_N^x(\{ y_N(x) \}) = \frac{1}{N} \log \left( \frac{N! \prod_{i=1}^k (F_i(x))^{n_i^N}}{n_i^N!} \right) \geq -\rho(x, y_N(x)) + \left( 1 + \frac{1}{N} \log N! - \log N \right) + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in I_+} n_i^N \left( -1 - \frac{1}{n_i} \log n_i + \log n_i^N \right) \geq -2\alpha - \inf_{y \in B} \rho(x, y) - \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \in I_+} (1 + \log n_i^N)
\]
The last quantity goes to zero as $N \to \infty$, independently of $x$ since $\alpha_i^N$ is of order $N(y_N(x)),$ and the quantities $(y_N(x))$ are bounded. Hence, we have shown that the lower bound (4) holds uniformly for any compact set $K \subseteq M_1$ and open ball $B$.

To verify that $\rho$ satisfies (iii) of Hypothesis 2.4, assume by contradiction that there exist $\beta > 0$ and two sequences $(x_n)_n$ and $(y_n)_n$ in the $k$-simplex $M$, converging respectively to $x$ and $y$, and such that

$$\lim_n \rho(x_n, y_n) = 0 \text{ and } d(x_n, y_n) \geq \beta.$$ 

Define $I_0 = \{i \in \{1, \ldots, k\} : x^i = 0\}$. Notice that, if $i \in I_0$, then $\lim_n y^i_n \log \frac{y^i_n}{x^i_n} = 0$ if $y^i = 0$ and $y^i_n \log \frac{y^i_n}{x^i_n} \to +\infty$ otherwise. As a consequence, $y^i = 0$ $\forall i \in I_0$. We consider two cases separately.

Assume first that all the components of $x$ are zero except the first one: $I_0 = \{2, \ldots, k\}$. Then $y^i = 0$ for $i = 2, \ldots, k$, which implies that $x = y$, a contradiction.

Assume now that $I_0$ contains at most $k - 2$ terms. Call $I_1$ its complementary and assume without loss of generality that $I_1 = \{1, \ldots, n_1\}$. Define $\tilde{x} = \{x^1, \ldots, x^{n_1}\}$, $\tilde{y} = \{y^1, \ldots, y^{n_1}\}$ and notice that $\tilde{x} \in \text{Int}(\Delta^{n_1})$ and $\tilde{y} \in \Delta^{n_1}$, where $\Delta^{n_1}$ is the $n_1$-simplex. Define analogously the sequences $(\tilde{x}_n)_n$ and $(\tilde{y}_n)_n$, which belong to the set $\{u \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1} : u^i \geq 0, \sum_i u^i \leq 1\}$. Let now $\tilde{\rho}$ be the application given by

$$(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1} \times \mathbb{R}^{n_1} \to \sum_{i=1}^{n_1} v^i \log \frac{u^i}{v^i}.$$ 

This map is continuous and strictly positive in $(\tilde{x}, \tilde{y})$, since $|\tilde{x} - \tilde{y}| > \beta$. Therefore, there exists $\delta > 0$ and $r > 0$ such that $\tilde{\rho} > \delta$ on $B_{\mathbb{R}^{n_1}}(\tilde{x}, r) \times B_{\mathbb{R}^{n_1}}(\tilde{y}, r)$. This concludes the proof since

$$\liminf_{n \to +\infty} \rho(x_n, y_n) = \liminf_{n \to +\infty} \left(\tilde{\rho}(\tilde{x}_n, \tilde{y}_n) + \sum_{i \in I_0} y^i_n \log \frac{y^i_n}{x^i_n}\right) \geq \beta + \lim_{n \to +\infty} \sum_{i \in I_0} y^i_n \log \frac{y^i_n}{x^i_n} = \beta.$$ 

The uniform upper bound (5) holds by an application of Chernov upper bound. Let $\delta > 0$. Then

$$\mu^F_{\mathbb{R}_+}(\{x \in \mathbb{R}_+ : x, y \in (0, 1)^2, |x - y| \geq \delta\}) \leq e^{-N\beta},$$

where $\beta = \inf \{y \log \frac{y^2}{x^2}, (x, y) \in (0, 1)^2, |x - y| \geq \delta\} > 0$.

Finally to verify Hypothesis 2.6, we have $\rho^*(x, M_0) \geq \max_i (1 - F_i(x))^{1/\epsilon}$. Hence, $\epsilon \log \rho^*(x, M_0) \geq \max_i \log (1 - x_i f_i(x))$. Given $c > 0$, choose a neighborhood $V_0$ of $M_0$ such that $\min_i x_i f_i(x) \leq 1 - e^{-c}$ whenever $x \in V_0$. Then $\epsilon \log \rho^*(x, 0) \geq -c$ whenever $x \in V_0$. \hfill $\blacksquare$

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