

Stopping Times for Stochastic Approximation Procedures*

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1. Introduction

The pioneering paper in the field of stochastic approximation was published in 1951 by Robbins and Monro [6]. That paper dealt with the following situation. Suppose that, for every point x belonging to the real line, a random variable $Y(x)$ can be observed. The distribution function of $Y(x)$ and the expected value of $Y(x)$, denoted by $M(x)$ and assumed to exist, are both unknown. Assuming that the equation $M(x) = \alpha$ has a unique root, denoted by $x = \theta$, it is desired to estimate θ by making observations on Y at points x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots which are generated sequentially in accordance with some definite experimental procedure in such a way that $x_n \rightarrow \theta$ in probability as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

The Robbins-Monro procedure (RM) for generating the sequence $\{x_n\}$ is to take x_1 to be any constant and define x_2, x_3, \dots in accordance with the recurrence relation

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + a_n(\alpha - y_n) \quad (1.1)$$

where y_n is a random variable whose conditional distribution for given x_n coincides with the distribution of the random variable $Y(x_n)$ and is independent of x_1, \dots, x_{n-1} and the sequence $\{a_n\}$ is a sequence of positive constants which converge to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Robbins and Monro [6] established sufficient conditions for $x_n \rightarrow \theta$ in probability as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Later researchers gave results on the rate of convergence, convergence with probability one, convergence in mean square, and asymptotic normality of the sequence x_n in both RM and various generalizations of RM – see [5, 8], or [10] for specific results and references.

In many practical situations it is desirable to terminate the successive approximation procedure when x_n is sufficiently close to θ with high probability. This paper indicates stopping times $N_{d,\gamma}$ and $T_{d,\gamma}$ which terminate RM in such a way that, for any given γ in the open interval $(0, \frac{1}{2})$,

$$\lim_{d \rightarrow 0} P(|x_{N_{d,\gamma}+1} - \theta| \leq d) = 1 - 2\gamma$$

and

$$\lim_{d \rightarrow 0} P[|M(x_{T_{d,\gamma}+1}) - \alpha| \leq d] = 1 - 2\gamma.$$

The empirical behaviors of some of these stopping times have been investigated by the author [8] in a Monte Carlo study.

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2. Notation

The following conditions with $Z(x) \equiv Y(x) - M(x)$ are used in all of the theorems in this paper:

- C1: γ is a positive constant less than $\frac{1}{2}$.
- C2: The sequence $\{c_n\}$ is a sequence of positive constants such that $c_n n^\lambda \rightarrow c$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, $c > 0$, and $0 < \lambda < \frac{1}{2}$.
- C3: The sequence $\{a_n\}$ has the form $\{A/n\}$ where A is a constant such that $2A\alpha_1 > 1$.
- C4: M is a Borel measurable function.
- C5: For each $\varepsilon > 0$, $\inf_{\varepsilon < x - \theta < \varepsilon^{-1}} M(x) - \alpha > 0$ and $\sup_{\varepsilon < \theta - x < \varepsilon^{-1}} M(x) - \alpha < 0$.
- C6: For some constants K_1 and K_2 , $|M(x) - \alpha| \leq K_1 + K_2|x - \theta|$ for all x .
- C7: $\sup_x E[|Z(x)|^2] \equiv w < \infty$.
- C8: $\lim_{x \rightarrow \theta} E[|Z(x)|^2] = E[|Z(\theta)|^2] \equiv \sigma^2 > 0$.
- C9: $\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \sup_{|x - \theta| \leq \varepsilon} \int_{\{|Z(x)| > R\}} |Z(x)|^2 dP = 0$.
- C10: For some positive constants g and α_1 , if $|x - \theta| < g$, then

$$M(x) = \alpha + \alpha_1(x - \theta) + \delta(x)$$

where $\delta(x) = o(|x - \theta|)$ as $|x - \theta| \rightarrow 0$.

C11: The distribution function of $Y(x)$, denoted by $H(\cdot|x)$, is such that, for every y , $H(y|\cdot)$ is Borel measurable.

C12: There exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that, for every positive integer r ,

$$\sup_{|x - \theta| < \varepsilon} E[|Z(x)|^r] < \infty.$$

The majority of this paper is concerned with results about the behavior of the sequence $\{x_n\}$. All of these results hold for any initial value x_1 .

The procedures in the next section apply directly to the case in which the random variables $Y(x)$ are such that the α_1 referred to in condition C10 is positive. If the experimenter is actually observing random variables $Y^*(x)$ with a corresponding α_1 which is negative and he is seeking the value of x such that $E[Y^*(x)] = \alpha^*$, then when he carries out the procedures to follow he should let $Y(x) = -Y^*(x)$ and $\alpha = -\alpha^*$.

3. Sequentially Determined Bounded Length Confidence Intervals for RM

Blum [2] gave sufficient conditions, slightly weaker than C3-C7, for the sequence $\{x_n\}$ in RM to be such that

$$x_n \rightarrow \theta \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty \text{ w.p.1.} \tag{3.1}$$

Then Sacks [7] showed that conditions C3-C10 are sufficient for

$$n^{\frac{1}{2}}(x_{n+1} - \theta) \text{ in RM to be asymptotically normally distributed with mean zero and variance } A^2 \sigma^2 / (2A\alpha_1 - 1). \tag{3.2}$$

Furthermore, Burkholder [3] proposed estimators of α_1 and σ^2 and obtained sufficient conditions for these estimators to converge to α_1 and σ^2 respectively

with probability one. The form of Burkholder's estimator of α_1 requires that at the n -th step in RM an observation is taken not only on $Y(x_n)$ but also on $Y(x_n + c_n)$ where the sequence $\{c_n\}$ is a sequence of positive constants such that $c_n n^\lambda \rightarrow c$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, $c > 0$, and $0 < \lambda < \frac{1}{2}$. Let the sequence $\{y''_n\}$ be a sequence of random variables such that the conditional distribution of y''_n for given x_n coincides with the distribution of $Y(x_n + c_n)$ and is independent of $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n, y''_1, y''_2, \dots, y''_{n-1}$. Burkholder's results imply that, if conditions C2-C12 are satisfied, then as $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$t_n \equiv \max \left[1/2 A, \sum_{j=1}^n (y''_j - y_j)/c_j n \right] \rightarrow \alpha_1 \text{ w. p. 1} \tag{3.3}$$

and

$$s_n^2 \equiv \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left\{ \left[\sum_{j=1}^n (y''_j - \alpha)^2/n \right] + \left[\sum_{j=1}^n (y_j - \alpha)^2/n \right] \right\} \rightarrow \sigma^2 \text{ w. p. 1.} \tag{3.4}$$

If, for each n , $n^{\frac{1}{2}}(x_{n+1} - \theta)$ is normally distributed with mean zero and variance $A^2 \sigma^2/(2A\alpha_1 - 1)$ and if K_γ is the $100(1 - \gamma)$ -th percentile of a standard normal random variable, then

$$P \{ x_{n+1} - K_\gamma [A^2 \sigma^2/n(2A\alpha_1 - 1)]^{\frac{1}{2}} \leq \theta \leq x_{n+1} + K_\gamma [A^2 \sigma^2/n(2A\alpha_1 - 1)]^{\frac{1}{2}} \} = 1 - 2\gamma.$$

Thus, if a $100(1 - 2\gamma)\%$ confidence interval on θ of length $2d$ is desired, n could be chosen as the smallest integer such that

$$d \geq K_\gamma [A^2 \sigma^2/n(2A\alpha_1 - 1)]^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

or, equivalently,

$$n \geq K_\gamma^2 A^2 \sigma^2 / (2A\alpha_1 - 1) d^2. \tag{3.5}$$

Thus, when a $100(1 - 2\gamma)\%$ confidence interval on θ of length $2d$ is desired, the proposed stopping time for RM is $N_{d,\gamma}$ defined as the smallest positive integer n such that

$$n \geq K_\gamma^2 A^2 s_n^2 / (2A t_n - 1) d^2. \tag{3.6}$$

The principle results concerning this stopping time are:

Theorem 1. *If conditions C1-C12 are satisfied, then*

$$\lim_{d \rightarrow 0} N_{d,\gamma} / [K_\gamma^2 A^2 \sigma^2 / (2A\alpha_1 - 1) d^2] = 1 \text{ w. p. 1.} \tag{3.7}$$

Theorem 2. *If conditions C1-C12 are satisfied, then*

$$\lim_{d \rightarrow 0} P(|x_{N_{d,\gamma}+1} - \theta| \leq d) = 1 - 2\gamma. \tag{3.8}$$

If $n_{d,\gamma} = K_\gamma^2 A^2 \sigma^2 / [(2A\alpha_1 - 1) d^2]$, then $n_{d,\gamma}$ would be the number of observations required to determine a $100(1 - 2\gamma)\%$ confidence interval on θ of length $2d$ if, for each n , $n^{\frac{1}{2}}(x_n - \theta)$ were exactly normally distributed with mean zero and known variance $A^2 \sigma^2 / (2A\alpha_1 - 1)$. Thus, Theorem 1 implies that $N_{d,\gamma}$ is an asymptotically efficient stopping time in the sense that $N_{d,\gamma}/n_{d,\gamma} \rightarrow 1$ as $d \rightarrow 0$ with probability one.

If $Y(x)$ is not a continuous random variable for all x , then the sequence $\{s_n^2\}$ in the definition of $N_{d,\gamma}$ should be replaced by the sequence $\{s_n^{2*}\}$ where

$$s_n^{2*} = \max(k_n, s_n^2)$$

and the sequence $\{k_n\}$ is a sequence of positive constants which converge to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$. This substitution would not affect the results which follow and would only need to be done in order to insure that RM would not be stopped because the estimator of σ^2 was zero.

The experimenter might want to be able to determine stopping times $T_{d,\gamma}$ with the property that, for any given γ in $(0, \frac{1}{2})$,

$$\lim_{d \rightarrow 0} P[|M(x_{T_{d,\gamma}+1}) - \alpha| \leq d] = 1 - 2\gamma. \quad (3.9)$$

Since

$$n^{\frac{1}{2}}[M(x_n) - \alpha] = n^{\frac{1}{2}}(x_n - \theta) \{[M(x_n) - \alpha]/(x_n - \theta)\}$$

and condition C10 implies

$$[M(x) - \alpha]/(x - \theta) \rightarrow \alpha_1 \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow \theta,$$

(3.1) and (3.2) imply that, if conditions C3-C10 are satisfied, then $n^{\frac{1}{2}}[M(x_n) - \alpha]$ is asymptotically normally distributed with mean zero and variance

$$\alpha_1^2 A^2 \sigma^2 / (2A\alpha_1 - 1).$$

Thus, since conditions C2-C12 are sufficient for $t_n \rightarrow \alpha_1$ and $s_n^2 \rightarrow \sigma^2$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ with probability one, an intuitively appealing stopping time is $T_{d,\gamma}$ defined as the smallest positive integer n such that

$$K_\gamma [t_n^2 A^2 s_n^2 / (2A t_n - 1) n]^{\frac{1}{2}} \leq d$$

or, equivalently,

$$n \geq K_\gamma^2 A^2 s_n^2 / (2A t_n - 1) (d/t_n)^2. \quad (3.10)$$

In fact, under conditions C1-C12

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{d \rightarrow 0} P[|M(x_{T_{d,\gamma}+1}) - \alpha| \leq d] \\ &= \lim_{d \rightarrow 0} P[|\alpha_1(x_{T_{d,\gamma}+1} - \theta) + o(|x_{T_{d,\gamma}+1} - \theta|)| \leq d] \\ &= \lim_{d \rightarrow 0} P\left(|x_{T_{d,\gamma}+1} - \theta| \leq \frac{d}{\alpha_1}\right) = 1 - 2\gamma \end{aligned} \quad (3.11)$$

and with probability one

$$\lim_{d \rightarrow 0} T_{d,\gamma} / [K_\gamma^2 \alpha_1^2 \sigma^2 A^2 / (2A\alpha_1 - 1) d^2] = 1. \quad (3.12)$$

The proofs of (3.11) and (3.12) are similar to the proofs of Theorem 1 and Theorem 2.

4. Proofs of Theorems 1 and 2

The proof of Theorem 1 follows easily from the definition of $N_{d,\gamma}$ and the convergence of s_n^2 and t_n to σ^2 and α_1 respectively.

The key aspect of the martingale theory which is used in proving Theorem 2 is a generalization of Kolmogorov's inequality for martingales which was proved by Csörgő [4]. Csörgő's result is Lemma 1.

Lemma 1. *Let the sequence $\{W_k\}$ be a sequence of random variables such that $E(W_1) = 0$ and, for $n \geq 2$, $E(W_n | W_1, \dots, W_{n-1}) = 0$. Let $S_n = W_1 + W_2 + \dots + W_n$ for*

each $n \geq 1$. If $E(S_n^2) < \infty$ for each $n \geq 1$ and the sequence $\{g_n\}$ is a nonincreasing sequence of positive constants, then, for any positive integers m and n with $m < n$ and arbitrary $\varepsilon > 0$,

$$P\left(\max_{m \leq k \leq n} g_k |S_k| \geq \varepsilon\right) \leq \varepsilon^{-2} \left[\sum_{k=m}^{n-1} (g_k^2 - g_{k+1}^2) E(S_k^2) + g_n^2 E(S_n^2) \right] \\ = \varepsilon^{-2} \left[g_m^2 \sum_{k=1}^m E(W_k^2) + \sum_{k=m+1}^n g_k^2 E(W_k^2) \right].$$

The proof of Theorem 2 is as follows: Let $N = N_{d, \gamma}$. Since the conditions of Theorems 1 and 2 are the same, it follows from Theorem 1 that

$$\lim_{d \rightarrow 0} d / [K_\gamma^2 A^2 \sigma^2 / (2A\alpha_1 - 1) N]^{1/2} = 1 \text{ w. p. 1.} \quad (4.1)$$

The definition of K_γ and (4.1) imply that to prove Theorem 2 it is sufficient to show that, for all x ,

$$\lim_{d \rightarrow 0} P[N^{1/2} (2A\alpha_1 - 1)^{1/2} A^{-1} \sigma^{-1} (x_{N+1} - \theta) \leq x] = \Phi(x) \quad (4.2)$$

where Φ is the distribution function of a standard normal random variable.

Since Sacks [7] has shown that, for all x ,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P[n^{1/2} (2A\alpha_1 - 1)^{1/2} A^{-1} \sigma^{-1} (x_{n+1} - \theta) \leq x] = \Phi(x), \quad (4.3)$$

it need only be shown that this conclusion is valid when n is replaced by N .

Let $M_n = M(x_n)$, $Z_n = Y(x_n) - M(x_n)$, and $\delta_n = M_n - \alpha - \alpha_1(x_n - \theta)$. Thus

$$x_{n+1} - \theta = (x_n - \theta) - (A/n)(Z_n + M_n - \alpha) \\ = [1 - (A\alpha_1/n)](x_n - \theta) - (A/n)Z_n - (A/n)\delta_n. \quad (4.4)$$

If

$$B_{mn} = \prod_{j=m+1}^n (1 - A\alpha_1 j^{-1}) \quad \text{for } 0 \leq m < n \\ = 1 \quad \text{for } m = n,$$

then the iteration of (4.4) back to $n=1$ implies

$$x_{n+1} - \theta = B_{0n}(x_1 - \theta) - A \sum_{m=1}^n B_{mn} m^{-1} \delta_m - (\sigma/\alpha_1) S_n \quad (4.5)$$

where

$$S_n = (A\alpha_1/\sigma) \sum_{m=1}^n B_{mn} m^{-1} Z_m.$$

Let

$$h_n = \left[\sum_{m=1}^n (A\alpha_1)^2 m^{-2} B_{mn}^2 \right]^{-1/2}$$

It is easily shown that there exists a sequence of constants $\{\varepsilon_m\}$ such that $\varepsilon_m \rightarrow 0$ as $m \rightarrow \infty$ and, for all $n \geq m$,

$$(1 - \varepsilon_m) m^{A\alpha_1} n^{-A\alpha_1} \leq B_{mn} \leq (1 + \varepsilon_m) m^{A\alpha_1} n^{-A\alpha_1}. \quad (4.6)$$

Thus

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} h_n/n^{\frac{1}{2}}(2A\alpha_1 - 1)^{\frac{1}{2}}(A\alpha_1)^{-1} = 1. \quad (4.7)$$

Sacks establishes (4.3) by showing that

$$h_n B_{0n}(x_1 - \theta) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty, \quad (4.8)$$

$$h_n \sum_{m=1}^n B_{mn} m^{-1} |\delta_m| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{in probability as } n \rightarrow \infty, \quad (4.9)$$

and

$$P(h_n S_n \leq x) \rightarrow \Phi(x) \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty \text{ for all } x. \quad (4.10)$$

Since (3.7) implies

$$N \rightarrow \infty \quad \text{as } d \rightarrow 0 \text{ w.p.1,} \quad (4.11)$$

(4.5) and (4.8) imply that (4.2) will hold if

$$h_N \sum_{m=1}^N B_{mN} m^{-1} |\delta_m| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{in probability as } d \rightarrow 0 \quad (4.12)$$

and, for each x ,

$$P(h_N S_N \leq x) \rightarrow \Phi(x) \quad \text{as } d \rightarrow 0. \quad (4.13)$$

If $n_d = K_y^2 A^2 \sigma^2 / [(2A\alpha_1 - 1)d^2]$, then (3.7) implies

$$\lim_{d \rightarrow 0} N/n_d = 1 \text{ w.p.1.} \quad (4.14)$$

Thus, (4.6) and (4.7) imply (4.12) will hold if

$$n_d^{\frac{1}{2} - A\alpha_1} \sum_{m=1}^N m^{A\alpha_1 - 1} |\delta_m| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{in probability as } d \rightarrow 0. \quad (4.15)$$

Now (4.6), (4.7), and (4.9) imply

$$n^{\frac{1}{2} - A\alpha_1} \sum_{m=1}^N m^{A\alpha_1 - 1} |\delta_m| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{in probability as } n \rightarrow \infty. \quad (4.16)$$

Thus, since for any $\varepsilon > 0$

$$\begin{aligned} & P\left(n_d^{\frac{1}{2} - A\alpha_1} \sum_{m=1}^N m^{A\alpha_1 - 1} |\delta_m| > \varepsilon\right) \\ & \leq P\left(n_d^{\frac{1}{2} - A\alpha_1} \sum_{m=1}^{2n_d} m^{A\alpha_1 - 1} |\delta_m| > \varepsilon \text{ and } N/n_d \leq 2\right) + P(N/n_d > 2) \\ & \leq P\left[(2n_d)^{\frac{1}{2} - A\alpha_1} \sum_{m=1}^{2n_d} m^{A\alpha_1 - 1} |\delta_m| > \varepsilon 2^{\frac{1}{2} - A\alpha_1}\right] + P(N/n_d > 2), \end{aligned}$$

(4.14) and (4.16) imply (4.15) and consequently (4.12).

Anscombe's central limit theorem [1] will imply (4.13) if the sequence $\{S_n\}$ is uniformly continuous in probability; that is, given any small positive ε and η ,

there are positive constants v and ρ such that $n > v$ implies

$$P\left(\max_{i: |i-n| \leq n\rho} |S_i - S_n| \geq \varepsilon h_n^{-1}\right) < \eta. \quad (4.17)$$

If $\varepsilon' = \varepsilon \sigma / h_n A \alpha_1$ and m_1 and m_2 are integers such that $n(1 - \rho) \leq m_1 < n(1 - \rho) + 1$ and $n(1 + \rho) - 1 < m_2 \leq n(1 + \rho)$, then

$$\begin{aligned} P\left(\max_{i: |i-n| \leq n\rho} |S_i - S_n| \geq \varepsilon h_n^{-1}\right) &\leq P\left(\max_{m_1 \leq i \leq n-1} \left| \sum_{m=1}^i m^{-1} B_{mi} Z_m - \sum_{m=1}^n m^{-1} B_{mn} Z_m \right| \geq \varepsilon'\right) \\ &+ P\left(\max_{n+1 \leq i \leq m_2} \left| \sum_{m=1}^i m^{-1} B_{mi} Z_m - \sum_{m=1}^n m^{-1} B_{mn} Z_m \right| \geq \varepsilon'\right) \\ &\leq P\left[\max_{m_1 \leq i \leq n-1} \left| \sum_{m=1}^i (B_{mi} - B_{mn}) m^{-1} Z_m \right| \geq \varepsilon'/2\right] \\ &+ P\left(\max_{m_1 \leq i \leq n-1} \left| \sum_{m=i+1}^n m^{-1} B_{mn} Z_m \right| \geq \varepsilon'/2\right) \\ &+ P\left[\max_{n+1 \leq i \leq m_2} \left| \sum_{m=1}^n (B_{mi} - B_{mn}) m^{-1} Z_m \right| \geq \varepsilon'/2\right] \\ &+ P\left(\max_{n+1 \leq i \leq m_2} \left| \sum_{m=n+1}^i m^{-1} B_{mi} Z_m \right| \geq \varepsilon'/2\right). \end{aligned} \quad (4.18)$$

The establishment of (4.17), which will complete the proof of Theorem 2, is accomplished by proving that, for n sufficiently large, each of the last four probabilities in (4.18) converge to zero as $\rho \rightarrow 0$. For example, in the first of these last four probabilities, if

$$\begin{aligned} D_{mm_1} &= B_{mm_1} \quad \text{for } m \leq m_1 \\ &= B_{m_1 m}^{-1} \quad \text{for } m > m_1, \end{aligned}$$

then it can be readily verified that

$$B_{mi} - B_{mn} = (1 - B_{in}) B_{m_1 i} D_{mm_1},$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} P\left[\max_{m_1 \leq i \leq n-1} \left| \sum_{m=1}^i (B_{mi} - B_{mn}) m^{-1} Z_m \right| \geq \varepsilon'/2\right] \\ &= P\left[\max_{m_1 \leq i \leq n-1} (1 - B_{in}) B_{m_1 i} \left| \sum_{m=1}^i D_{mm_1} m^{-1} Z_m \right| \geq \varepsilon'/2\right] \\ &\leq (\varepsilon'/2)^{-2} \left[(1 - B_{m_1 n})^2 B_{m_1 m_1}^2 \sum_{m=1}^{m_1} m^{-2} D_{mm_1}^2 E(Z_m^2) \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \sum_{m=m_1+1}^{n-1} (1 - B_{mn})^2 B_{m_1 m}^2 D_{mm_1}^2 m^{-2} E(Z_m^2) \right] \end{aligned} \quad (4.19)$$

where the inequality in (4.19) follows from Lemma 1. The convergence of the upper bound in (4.19) to zero as $\rho \rightarrow 0$ is a straightforward consequence of condition C7, (4.6), and (4.7).

5. Two Modifications of RM

An unfortunate characteristic of the use of $N_{d,\gamma}$ as a stopping time for RM is that, although two observations must be taken at each step in order to obtain convenient information of α_1 , only one of those two observations is actually used to generate the next estimate of θ . One way to avoid this shortcoming is to generate the sequence $\{x_n\}$ by the following procedure which is herein called the modified Robbins-Monro procedure: Let x_1 be any constant, and let

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + a_n \left[\alpha - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) (y'_n + y''_n) \right]$$

in which y'_n and y''_n are random variables whose conditional distributions for given x_n are independent, coincide with the distributions of $Y(x_n - c_n)$ and $Y(x_n + c_n)$ respectively, and are independent of $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n-1}, y'_1, y'_2, \dots, y'_{n-1}, y''_1, y''_2, \dots, y''_{n-1}$.

Venter [9] actually went one step further than the modified Robbins-Monro procedure. He proposed a successive approximation procedure which at the n -th step incorporates the cumulative information on α_1 as well as the observations on $Y(x_n + c_n)$ and $Y(x_n - c_n)$ into the recurrence relation which generates x_{n+1} . If the conditions C3-C10 are satisfied, the asymptotic variance of the error in RM, $A^2 \sigma^2 / (2A\alpha_1 - 1)n$, is minimized with respect to A if $A = \alpha_1^{-1}$. Unfortunately, α_1 will usually be unknown. Venter recognized these facts and proposed that the sequence $\{x_n\}$ be generated according to the recurrence relation

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + (1/n t_n^*) \cdot \left[\alpha - \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) (y'_n + y''_n) \right]$$

where t_n^* is an estimator of α_1 , x_1 is any constant, and the form of the sequences $\{y'_n\}$ and $\{y''_n\}$ is the same as in the modified Robbins-Monro procedure.

Stopping times analogous to $N_{d,\gamma}$ and $T_{d,\gamma}$ have been proposed in [8] for both the modified Robbins-Monro procedure and Venter's procedure. Statements analogous to Theorems 1 and 2, (3.11), and (3.12) are given there for the stopping times of these two additional procedures. Also, in [8] are the results of a fairly extensive Monte Carlo study of the empirical behaviors of the stopping times for all three procedures.

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