# 4 Branching Processes

Organise by generations: Discrete time.

If  $P(\text{no offspring}) \neq 0$  there is a probability that the process will die out. Let X = number of offspring of an individual

p(x) = P(X = x) = "offspring prob. function"

#### Assume:

- (i) p same for all individuals
- (ii) individuals reproduce independently
- (iii) process starts with a single individual at time 0.

Assumptions (i) and (ii) define the Galton-Watson discrete time branching process.

Two random variables of interest:

 $Z_n$  = number of individuals at time n ( $Z_0 = 1$  by (iii))

 $T_n$  = total number born up to and including generation n

e.g.

$$p(0) = r \quad p(1) = q \quad p(z) = p$$

What is the probability that the second generation will contain 0 or 1 member?

$$P(Z_{2} = 0) = P(Z_{1} = 0) + P(Z_{1} = 1) \times P(Z_{2} = 0 | Z_{1} = 1) + P(Z_{1} = 2) \times P(Z_{2} = 0 | Z_{1} = 2)$$
  
$$= r + qr + pr^{2}$$
  
$$P(Z_{1} = 1) = P(Z_{1} = 1) \times P(Z_{2} = 1 | Z_{1} = 1) + P(Z_{1} = 2) \times P(Z_{2} = 1 | Z_{1} = 2)$$
  
$$= q^{2} + p(rq + qr) = q^{2} + 2pqr.$$

Note: things can be complicated because

$$Z_2 = X_1 + X_2 + \dots X_{Z_1}$$

with  $Z_1$  a random variable.

## 4.1 Revision: Probability generating functions

Suppose a discrete random variable X takes values in  $\{0, 1, 2, ...\}$  and has probability function p(x).

Then p.g.f. is

$$\Pi_X(s) = \mathcal{E}(s^X) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} p(x)s^x$$
  
Note: 
$$\Pi(0) = p(0)$$
$$\Pi(1) = \sum p(x) = 1$$

pgf uniquely determines the distribution and vice versa.

## 4.2 Some important pgfs

Distribution	pdf	Range	pgf
Bernoulli(p)	$p^x q^{1-x}$	0, 1	q + ps
Binomial(n,p)	$\binom{n}{x}p^{x}q^{n-x}$	$0, 1, 2, \ldots, n$	$(q+ps)^n$
$Poisson(\mu)$	$\frac{e^{-\mu}\mu^x}{x!}$	$0, 1, 2 \dots$	$e^{-\mu(1-s)}$
$Geometric, G_1(p)$	$q^{x-1}p$	$1, 2, \dots$	$\frac{ps}{1-qs}$
Negative Binomial	$\binom{x-1}{r-1}q^{x-r}p^r$	$r, r+1, \ldots$	$\left(\frac{ps}{1-qs}\right)^r$

# 4.3 Calculating moments using pgfs

$$\Pi(s) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} p(x)s^x = \mathcal{E}(s^X).$$

Then

$$\Pi'(s) = \mathcal{E}(Xs^{X-1})$$
$$\Pi'(1) = \mathcal{E}(X)$$

Likewise

$$\Pi''(s) = E[X(X-1)s^{X-2}]$$
  
$$\Pi''(1) = E[X(X-1)] = E(X^2) - E(X).$$

So

$$\operatorname{var}(X) = \operatorname{E}(X^{2}) - E^{2}(X)$$
$$= \left[\Pi''(1) + \operatorname{E}(X)\right] - \Pi'(1)^{2}$$
$$\operatorname{var}(X) = \Pi''(1) + \Pi'(1) - \Pi'(1)^{2}$$
$$\mu = \Pi'(1); \quad \sigma^{2} = \Pi''(1) + \mu - \mu^{2}$$

## 4.4 Distribution of sums of independent rvs

X, Y independent discrete rvs on  $\{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$ , let Z = X + Y.

$$\Pi_Z(s) = \mathcal{E}(s^Z) = \mathcal{E}(s^{X+Y})$$
$$= \mathcal{E}(s^X)\mathcal{E}(s^Y) \quad (\text{indep})$$
$$= \Pi_X(s)\Pi_Y(s)$$

In general:

If

$$Z = \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$$

with  $X_i$  independent discrete rvs with pgfs  $\Pi_i(s)$ ,  $i = 1, \ldots, n$ , then

$$\Pi_Z(s) = \Pi_1(s)\Pi_2(s)\ldots\Pi_n(s).$$

In particular, if  $X_i$  are identically distributed with pgf  $\Pi(s)$ , then

$$\Pi_Z(s) = \left[\Pi(s)\right]^n.$$

**e.g.** Q: If  $X_i \sim G_1(p)$ , i = 1, ..., n (number of trials up to and including the 1st success) are independent, find the pgf of  $Z = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ , and hence identify the distribution of Z.

**A:** Pgf of  $G_1(p)$ 

$$\Pi_X(s) = \frac{ps}{1-qs}.$$

So pgf of Z is

$$\Pi_Z(s) = \left(\frac{ps}{1-qs}\right)^n,$$

which is the pgf of a negative binomial distribution.

Intuitively:

Neg. bin. = number trials up to and including *n*th success

- = sum of n sequences of trials each consisting of number of failures followed by a success.
- = sum of *n* geometrics.

# 4.5 Distribution of sums of a random number of independent rvs

Let

$$Z = X_1 + X_2 + \ldots + X_N$$

 $N \text{ is a rv on } \{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$  $X_i \text{ iid rvs on } \{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$ (Convention Z = 0 when N = 0).

$$\Pi_{Z}(s) = \sum_{z=0}^{\infty} P(Z=z)s^{z}$$

$$P(Z=z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P(Z=z \mid N=n)P(N=n) \quad \text{(Thm T.P.)}$$

$$\Pi_{Z}(s) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P(N=n) \sum_{z=0}^{\infty} P(Z=z \mid N=n)s^{z}$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} P(N=n) [\Pi_{X}(s)]^{n} \quad \text{(since } X_{i} \text{ iid)}$$

$$= \Pi_{N} [\Pi_{X}(s)]$$

If Z is the sum of N independent discrete rvs  $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_N$ , each with range  $\{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$  each having pgf  $\Pi_X(s)$  and where N is a rv with range  $\{0, 1, 2, \ldots\}$  and pgf  $\Pi_N(s)$  then

$$\Pi_Z(s) = \Pi_N \left[ \Pi_X(s) \right]$$

and Z has a compound distribution.

e.g. Q: Suppose  $N \sim G_0(p)$  and each  $X_i \sim Binomial(1,\theta)$  (independent). Find the distribution of  $Z = \sum_{i=1}^N X_i$ .

A:

$$\Pi_N(s) = \frac{q}{1-ps}$$
  
$$\Pi_X(s) = 1-\theta+\theta s$$

So

$$\Pi_Z(s) = \frac{q}{1 - p(1 - \theta + \theta s)}$$
  
=  $\frac{q}{q + p\theta - p\theta s} = \frac{q/(q + p\theta)}{1 - (p\theta s/(q + p\theta))}$   
=  $\frac{1 - p\theta/(q + p\theta)}{1 - (p\theta/(q + p\theta))s}$ 

which is the pgf of  $G_0\left(\frac{p\theta}{q+p\theta}\right)$  distribution. **Note:** even in the cases where  $Z = \sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i$  does not have a recognisable pgf, we can still use the resultant pgf to find properties (e.g. moments) of the distribution of Z.

We have probability generating function (pgf):

$$\Pi_X(s) = E(s^X).$$

Also: moment generating function (mgf):

$$\Phi_X(t) = \mathcal{E}(e^{tX}),$$

Take transformation  $s = e^t$ :

$$\Pi_X(e^t) = \mathcal{E}(e^{tX})$$

the mgf has many properties in common with the pgf but can be used for a wider class of distributions.

## 4.6 Branching processes and pgfs

Recall  $Z_n$  = number of individuals at time n ( $Z_0 = 1$ ), and  $X_i$  = number of offspring of individual i. We have

$$Z_2 = X_1 + X_2 + \dots X_{Z_1}$$

So,

$$\Pi_2(s) = \Pi_1 [\Pi_1(s)]$$

e.g. consider the branching process in which

$$p(0) = r \quad p(1) = q \quad p(2) = p.$$

So

$$\Pi(s) = \Pi_1(s) = \sum_{x=0}^2 p(x)s^x = r + qs + ps^2,$$

and

$$\Pi_{2}(s) = \Pi_{1} [\Pi_{1}(s)] = r + q\Pi_{1}(s) + p\Pi_{1}(s)^{2}$$
  
=  $r + q(r + qs + ps^{2}) + p(r + qs + ps^{2})^{2}$   
=  $r + qr + pr^{2} + (q^{2} + 2pqr)s + (pq + pq^{2} + 2p^{2}r)s^{2} + 2p^{2}qs^{3} + p^{3}s^{4}$ 

Coefficients of  $s^x$  (x = 0, 1, 2, ..., 4) give probability  $Z_2 = x$ .

What about the nth generation?

Let

 $Y_i$  = number offspring of *i*th member of (n-1)th generation

Then

$$Z_n = Y_1 + Y_2 \ldots + Y_{Z_{n-1}},$$

 $\mathrm{so},$ 

$$\Pi_n(s) = \Pi_{n-1} [\Pi(s)]$$

$$= \Pi_{n-2} [\Pi [\Pi(s)]]$$

$$= \vdots$$

$$= \underbrace{\Pi[\Pi[\dots [\Pi(s)] \dots]}_n$$

writing this out explicitly can be complicated.

But sometimes we get lucky: **e.g.**  $X \sim Binomial(1, p)$ , then  $\Pi_X(s) = q + ps$ . So,

$$\Pi_{2}(s) = q + p(q + ps) = q + pq + p^{2}s$$

$$\Pi_{3}(s) = q + p(q + p(q + ps))$$

$$= q + pq + p^{2}q + p^{3}s$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\Pi_{n}(s) = q + pq + p^{2}q + \dots + p^{n-1}q + p^{n}s.$$

Now  $\Pi_n(1) = 1$ , so

$$(1-p^n) = q + pq + p^2q + \ldots + p^{n-1}q$$
  
 $\Pi_n(s) = 1 - p^n + p^n s$ 

This is the pgf of a  $Binomial(1, p^n)$  distribution.

 $\Rightarrow$  The distribution of the number of cases in the *n*th generation is Bernoulli with parameter  $p^n$ . i.e.

$$P(Z_n = 1) = p^n$$
$$P(Z_n = 0) = 1 - p^n.$$

# 4.7 Mean and Variance of size of *n*th generation of a branching process

**mean:** Let  $\mu = E(X)$  and let  $\mu_n = E(Z_n)$ .

$$\mu = \Pi'(1)$$

$$\Pi_{n}(s) = \Pi_{n-1} [\Pi(s)]$$

$$\Rightarrow \Pi'_{n}(s) = \Pi'_{n-1} [\Pi(s)] \Pi'(s)$$

$$\Pi'_{n}(1) = \Pi'_{n-1} [\Pi(1)] \Pi'(1)$$

$$= \Pi'_{n-1}(1) \Pi'(1)$$
so  $\mu = \mu_{n-1} \mu = \mu_{n-2} \mu^{2} = \dots = \mu^{n}.$ 

Note: as  $n \to \infty$ 

$$\mu_n = \mu^n \to \begin{cases} \infty & \mu > 1\\ 1 & \mu = 1\\ 0 & \mu < 1 \end{cases}$$

so, at first sight, it looks as if the generation size will either increase unboundedly (if  $\mu > 1$ ) or die out (if  $\mu < 1$ ) - slightly more complicated....

**variance:** Let  $\sigma^2 = \operatorname{var}(X)$  and let  $\sigma_n^2 = \operatorname{var}(Z_n)$ .

$$\Pi_{n}^{'}(s) = \Pi_{n-1}^{'}[\Pi(s)] \Pi^{'}(s)$$
  
$$\Pi_{n}^{''}(s) = \Pi_{n-1}^{''}[\Pi(s)] \Pi^{'}(s)^{2} + \Pi_{n-1}^{'}[\Pi(s)] \Pi^{''}(s)$$
(1)

Now  $\Pi(1) = 1, \Pi'(1) = \mu, \Pi''(1) = \sigma^2 - \mu + \mu^2$ . Also, since  $\sigma_n^2 = \Pi_n''(1) + \mu_n - \mu_n^2$ , we have

$$\Pi_n''(1) = \sigma_n^2 - \mu^n + \mu^{2n}$$
  
and 
$$\Pi_{n-1}''(1) = \sigma_{n-1}^2 - \mu^{n-1} + \mu^{2n-2}.$$

From (1),

$$\Pi_n''(1) = \Pi_{n-1}''(1)\Pi'(1)^2 + \Pi_{n-1}'(1)\Pi''(1)$$
  
$$\sigma_n^2 - \mu^n + \mu^{2n} = (\sigma_{n-1}^2 - \mu^{n-1} + \mu^{2n-2})\mu^2 + \mu^{n-1}(\sigma^2 - \mu + \mu^2)$$
  
$$\Rightarrow \sigma_n^2 = \mu^2 \sigma_{n-1}^2 + \mu^{n-1} \sigma^2$$

Leading to

$$\sigma_n^2 = \mu^{n-1} \sigma^2 (1 + \mu + \mu^2 + \ldots + \mu^{n-1})$$

So, we have

$$\sigma_n^2 = \begin{cases} \mu^{n-1} \sigma^2 \frac{1-\mu^n}{1-\mu} & \mu \neq 1\\ n\sigma^2 & \mu = 1 \end{cases}$$

## 4.8 Total number of individuals

Let  $T_n$  be the total number up to and including generation n. Then

$$E(T_n) = E(Z_0 + Z_1 + Z_2 \dots + Z_n)$$
  
= 1 + E(Z\_1) + E(Z\_2) + \dots + E(Z\_n)

$$= 1 + \mu + \mu^{2} + \dots + \mu^{n}$$

$$= \begin{cases} \frac{\mu^{n+1} - 1}{\mu - 1} & \mu \neq 1 \\ n + 1 & \mu = 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathcal{E}(T_{n}) = \begin{cases} \infty & \mu \ge 1 \\ \frac{1}{1 - \mu} & \mu < 1 \end{cases}$$

#### 4.9 Probability of ultimate extinction

Necessary that  $P(X = 0) = p(0) \neq 0$ .

Let  $\theta_n = P(n$ th generation contains 0 individuals)

= P(extinction occurs by *n*th generation)  $\theta_n = P(Z_n = 0) = \Pi_n(0)$ 

Now P(extinct by nth generation) = P(extinct by (n-1)th) + P(extinct at nth). So,  $\theta_n = \theta_{n-1} + P(extinct at nth)$  $\Rightarrow \theta_n \ge \theta_{n-1}$ . Now,

$$\Pi_n(s) = \Pi [\Pi_{n-1}(s)]$$
  

$$\Pi_n(0) = \Pi [\Pi_{n-1}(0)]$$
  

$$\theta_n = \Pi(\theta_{n-1}).$$

 $\theta_n$  is a non-decreasing sequence that is bounded above by 1 (it is a probability), hence, by the monotone convergence theorem  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \theta_n = \theta^*$  exists and  $\theta^* \leq 1$ . Now  $\lim_{n\to\infty} \theta_n = \Pi(\lim_{n\to\infty} \theta_{n-1})$ , so  $\theta^*$  satisfies

$$\theta = \Pi(\theta), \quad \theta \in [0, 1].$$

Consider

$$\Pi(\theta) = \sum_{x=0}^{\infty} p(x)\theta^x$$

 $\Pi(0) = p(0) \ (> 0)$ , and  $\Pi(1) = 1$ , also  $\Pi'(1) > 0$  and for  $\theta > 0, \Pi''(\theta) > 0$ , so  $\Pi(\theta)$  is a convex increasing function for  $\theta \in [0, 1]$  and so solutions of  $\theta = \Pi(\theta)$  are determined by slope of  $\Pi(\theta)$  at  $\theta = 1$ , i.e. by  $\Pi'(1) = \mu$ .

So,

- 1. If  $\mu < 1$  there is one solution at  $\theta^* = 1$ .  $\Rightarrow$  extinction is certain.
- 2. If  $\mu > 1$  there are two solutions:  $\theta^* < 1$  and  $\theta^* = 1$ , as  $\theta_n$  is increasing, we want the smaller solution.

 $\Rightarrow$  extinction is NOT certain.

3. If  $\mu = 1$  solution is  $\theta^* = 1$ .

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\Rightarrow extinction is certain.
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Note: mean size of *n*th generation is  $\mu^n$ . So if extinction does <u>not</u> occur the size will increase without bound.

#### Summary:

P(ultimate extinction of branching process) = smallest positive solution of  $\theta = \Pi(\theta)$ 

1.  $\mu \leq 1 \Rightarrow \theta^* = 1 \Rightarrow$  ultimate extinction certain.

2.  $\mu > 1 \Rightarrow \theta^* < 1 \Rightarrow$  ultimate extinction not certain

$$X \sim Binomial(3, p); \quad \theta = \Pi(\theta) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \theta = (q + p\theta)^3.$$

i.e.

e.g.

$$p^{3}\theta^{3} + 3p^{2}q\theta^{2} + (3pq^{2} - 1)\theta + q^{3} = 0.$$
 (2)

Now  $E(X) = \mu = 3p$  i.e.  $\mu > 1$  when p > 1/3, and

 $P(extinction) = smallest solution of \theta = \Pi(\theta).$ 

Since we know  $\theta = 1$  is a solution, we can factorise (2):

$$(\theta - 1)(p^3\theta^2 + (3p^2q + p^3)\theta - q^3) = 0$$

**e.g.** if p = 1/2 (i.e p > 1/3 satisfied), we know that  $\theta^*$  satisfies

$$\theta^2 + 4\theta - 1 = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \theta^* = \sqrt{5} - 2 = 0.236.$$

#### 4.10 Generalizations of simple branching process

#### 1: k individuals in generation 0

Let

 $Z_{n_i}$  = number individuals in *n*th generation descended from *i*th ancestor

$$S_n = Z_{n_1} + Z_{n_2} + \ldots + Z_{n_k}$$

Then,

$$\Pi_{S_n} = \left[\Pi_n(s)\right]^k.$$

2: Immigration:  $W_n$  immigrants arrive at *n*th generation and start to reproduce. Let pgf for number of immigrants be  $\Psi(s)$ .

$$\begin{split} Z_n^* &= \text{ size of } n \text{th generation } (n = 0, 1, 2, ...) \text{ with } \text{pgf } \Pi_n^*(s) \\ Z_0^* &= 1 \\ Z_1^* &= W_1 + Z_1 \\ \Pi_1^*(s) &= \Psi(s) \Pi(s) \\ Z_2^* &= W_2 + Z_2 \\ \Pi_2^*(s) &= \Psi(s) \Pi_1^*(\Pi(s)), \end{split}$$

as  $\Pi_1^*(\Pi(s))$  is the pgf of the number of offspring of the  $Z_1^*$  members of generation 1, each of these has offspring according to a distribution with pgf  $\Pi(s)$ . In general

$$\begin{split} \Pi_n^*(s) &= \Psi(s)\Pi_{n-1}^*[\Pi(s)] \\ &= \Psi(s)\Psi[\Pi(s)]\Pi_{n-2}^*[\Pi[\Pi(s)]] \\ &= \dots \\ &= \Psi(s)\Psi[\Pi(s)]\dots\Psi[\overline{\Pi[\Pi[\dots[\Pi(s)]}\dots]\underbrace{\Pi[\Pi[\Pi\dots[\Pi(s)]]}_{n \Pi's}\dots] \end{split}$$

- e.g. Suppose that the number of offspring, X, has a Bernoulli distribution and the number of immigrants has a Poisson distribution.
  - 1. Derive the pgf of size of *n*th generation  $\Pi_n^*(s)$  and

#### 2. investigate its behaviour as $n \to \infty$ .

A: 1. 
$$X \sim Binomial(1, p), \quad W_n \sim Poisson(\mu), n = 1, 2, \dots$$

$$\Pi(s) = q + ps \quad \Psi(s) = e^{-\mu(1-s)}.$$

So,

$$\begin{split} \Pi_1^*(s) &= e^{-\mu(1-s)}(q+ps) \\ \Pi_2^*(s) &= \Psi(s)\Pi_1^*(\Pi(s)) \\ &= e^{-\mu(1-s)}\Pi_1^*(q+ps) \\ &= e^{-\mu(1-s)}(q+p(q+ps))e^{-\mu(1-q-ps)} \\ &= e^{-\mu(1+p)(1-s)}(1-p^2+p^2s) \\ \Pi_3^*(s) &= \Psi(s)\Pi_2^*(\Pi(s)) \\ &= e^{-\mu(1-s)(1+p+p^2)}(1-p^3+p^3s) \\ &= \vdots \\ \Pi_n^*(s) &= e^{-\mu(1-s)(1+p+p^2+\ldots+p^{n-1})}(1-p^n+p^ns) \\ &= e^{-\mu(1-s)(1-p^n)/(1-p)}(1-p^n+p^ns). \end{split}$$

2. As  $n \to \infty$ ,  $p^n \to 0 \quad (0 , so$ 

$$\Pi_n^*(s) \to e^{-\mu(1-s)/(1-p)}$$
 as  $n \to \infty$ .

This is the pgf of a Poisson distribution with parameter  $\mu/(1-p).$ 

- Without immigration a branching process either becomes extinct of increases unboundedly.
- With immigration there is also the possibility that there is a limiting distribution for generation size.

# 5 Random Walks

Consider a particle at some position on a line, moving with the following transition probabilities:

- with prob p it moves 1 unit to the right.

- with prob q it moves 1 unit to the left.

- with prob r it stays where it is.

Position at time n is given by,

$$X_n = Z_1 + \ldots + Z_n$$
  $Z_n = \begin{cases} +1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{cases}$ 

A random process  $\{X_n; n = 0, 1, 2, ...\}$  is a <u>random walk</u> if, for  $n \ge 1$ 

$$X_n = Z_1 + \dots Z_n$$

where  $\{Z_i\}$ , i = 1, 2, ... is a sequence of iid rvs. If the only possible values for  $Z_i$  are -1, 0 + 1 then the process is a simple random walk

### 5.1 Random walks with barriers

#### Absorbing barriers

Flip fair coin:  $p = q = \frac{1}{2}, r = 0.$ 

 $H \to you \ {\rm win} \ \pounds 1, \qquad T \to you \ {\rm lose} \ \pounds 1.$ 

Let  $Z_n$  = amount you win on *n*th flip.

Then  $X_n = \text{total}$  amount you've won up to and including *n*th flip.

BUT, say you decide to stop playing if you lose  $\pounds 50 \Rightarrow$  State space =  $\{-50, -49, \ldots\}$ and -50 is an absorbing barrier (once entered cannot be left).

#### **Reflecting barriers**

A particle moves on a line between points a and b (integers with b > a), with the following transition probabilities:

$$P(X_n = x + 1 \mid X_{n-1} = x) = \frac{2}{3} P(X_n = x - 1 \mid X_{n-1} = x) = \frac{1}{3}$$

$$P(X_n = a + 1 | X_{n-1} = a) = 1$$
$$P(X_n = b - 1 | X_{n-1} = b) = 1$$

a and b are reflecting barriers.

Can also have

$$P(X_n = a + 1 | X_{n-1} = a) = p$$
$$P(X_n = a | X_{n-1} = a) = 1 - p$$

and similar for b.

Note: random walks satisfy the Markov property.

i.e. the distribution of  $X_n$  is determined by the value of  $X_{n-1}$  (earlier history gives no extra info.)

A stochastic process in discrete time which has the Markov property is a <u>Markov Chain</u>.

X a random walk  $\Rightarrow X$  a Markov chain X a Markov chain  $\neq X$  a random walk

Since the  $Z_i$  in a random walk are iid, the <u>transition probabilities</u> are independent of current position, i.e.

$$P(X_n = a + 1 | X_{n-1} = a) = P(X_n = b + 1 | X_{n-1} = b).$$

## 5.2 Gambler's ruin

Two players A and B.

A starts with  $\pounds j$ , B with  $\pounds (a-j)$ .

Play a series of indep. games until one or other is ruined.

 $Z_i = \text{amount } A \text{ wins in } i\text{th game} = \pm 1.$ 

$$P(Z_i = 1) = p \quad P(Z_i = -1) = 1 - p = q.$$

After n games A has  $X_n = X_{n-1} + Z_n$ ,

$$0 < X_{n-1} < a.$$

Stop if  $X_{n-1} = 0$  A loses

or  $X_{n-1} = a$  A wins.

Random walk with state space  $\{0, 1, ..., a\}$  and absorbing barriers at 0 and a. What is the probability that A loses?

Let 
$$R_j$$
 = event  $A$  is ruined if he starts with  $\pounds j$   
 $q_j$  =  $P(R_j)$   $q_0 = 1$   $q_n = 0.$ 

For 0 < j < a,

$$\mathbf{P}(R_j) = \mathbf{P}(R_j | W)\mathbf{P}(W) + \mathbf{P}(R_j | \overline{W})\mathbf{P}(\overline{W}),$$

where W = event that A wins first bet. Now P(W) = p,  $P(\overline{W}) = q$ .

$$\mathcal{P}(R_j \mid W) = \mathcal{P}(R_{j+1}) = q_{j+1}$$

because, if he wins first bet he has  $\pounds(j+1)$ .

So,

$$q_j = q_{j+1}p + q_{j-1}q$$
  $j = 1, \dots, (a-1)$  RECURRENCE RELATION

To solve this, try  $q_k = cx^k$ 

$$cx^{j} = pcx^{j+1} + qcx^{j-1}$$

$$x = ps^{2} + q \quad \text{AUXILIARY/CHARACTERISTIC EQUATIONS}$$

$$0 = px^{2} - x + q$$

$$0 = (px - q)(x - 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow x = q/p \quad x = 1$$

#### General solutions:

**case 1:** If the roots are distinct  $(p \neq q)$ 

$$q_j = c_1 \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^j + c_2.$$

**case 2:** If the roots are equal  $(p = q = \frac{1}{2})$ 

$$q_j = c_1 + c_2 j.$$

**Particular solutions:** using boundary conditions  $q_0 = 1, q_a = 0$  gives

case 1:  $p \neq q$ 

$$q_0 = c_1 + c_2$$
  $q_a = c_1 \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^a + c_2.$ 

Giving,

$$q_j = \frac{(q/p)^j - (q/p)^a}{1 - (q/p)^a}$$
 (check!)

**case 2:**  $p = q = \frac{1}{2}$ 

$$q_0 = c_1 \qquad q_a = c_1 + ac_2$$

So,

$$q_j = 1 - \frac{j}{a}$$

i.e. If A begins with  $\pounds j$ , the probability that A is ruined is

$$q_j = \begin{cases} \frac{(q/p)^j - (q/p)^a}{1 - (q/p)^a} & p \neq q\\ 1 - \frac{j}{a} & p = q = \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$$

#### 5.2.1 B with unlimited resources

e.g. casino

Case 1: 
$$p \neq q$$
,  
 $q_j = \frac{(q/p)^j - (q/p)^a}{1 - (q/p)^a}$ .  
(a)  $p > q$ : As  $a \to \infty$ ,  $q_j \to (q/p)^j$ .  
(b)  $p < q$ : As  $a \to \infty$ ,  
 $q_j = \frac{(p/q)^{a-j} - 1}{(p/q)^a - 1} \to 1$ .

case 2: p = q = 1/2.

As 
$$a \to \infty$$
,  $q_j = 1 - j/a \to 1$ .

So: If B has unlimited resources, A's probability of ultimate ruin when beginning with  $\pounds j$  is

$$q_j = \begin{cases} 1 & p \le q \\ (q/p)^j & p > q \end{cases}$$

#### 5.2.2 Expected duration

Let X= duration when A starts with  $\pounds j$ . Let  $E(X) = D_j$ .

Let Y = A's winnings on first bet. So,

$$P(Y = +1) = p \quad P(Y = -1) = q.$$

$$E(X) = E_Y[E(X | Y)]$$

$$= \sum_y E(X | Y = y)P(Y = y)$$

$$= E(X | Y = 1)p + E(X | Y = -1)q$$

Now

$$E(X | Y = 1) = 1 + D_{j+1}$$
  
 $E(X | Y = -1) = 1 + D_{j-1}$ 

Hence, for 0 < j < a

$$D_{j} = (1 + D_{j+1})p + (1 + D_{j-1})q$$
$$D_{j} = pD_{j+1} + qD_{j-1} + 1$$

-second-order, non-homogeneous recurrence relation - so, add a particular solution to the general solution of the corresponding homogeneous recurrence relation.

**case 1:**  $p \neq q$  (one player has advantage)

General solution for

$$D_j = pD_{j+1} + qD_{j-1}.$$

As before  $D_j = c_1 + c_2 (q/p)^j$ .

Now find a particular solution for  $D_j = pD_{j+1} + qD_{j-1} + 1$ , try  $D_j = j/(q-p)$ :

$$\frac{j}{q-p} = \frac{p(j+1)}{q-p} + \frac{q(j-1)}{q-p} + 1$$
$$j = pj + qj$$

So general solution to non-homogeneous problem is:

$$D_j = c_1 + c_2 \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^j + \frac{j}{(q-p)}$$

Find  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  from boundary conditions:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 0 = D_0 & = & c_1 + c_2 \\ 0 = D_a & = & c_1 + c_2 \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^a + \frac{a}{q-p} \Rightarrow c_2 \left[1 - \left(\frac{q}{p}\right)^a\right] = \frac{a}{q-p}. \\ \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{rcl} c_2 & = & \frac{a}{(q-p)[1-(q/p)^a]} \\ c_1 & = & \frac{-a}{(q-p)[1-(q/p)^a]} \end{array} \right. \end{array}$$

case 2: p = q.

General solution for

$$D_j = pD_{j+1} + qD_{j-1}.$$

As before  $D_j = c_1 + c_2 j$ . A particular solution is  $D_j = -j^2$ . So general solution to non-homogeneous problem is:

$$D_j = c_1 + c_2 j - j^2.$$

Find  $c_1$  and  $c_2$  from boundary conditions:

$$0 = D_0 = c_1$$
  $0 = D_a = -a^2 + 0 + c_2 a \Rightarrow c_1 = 0, c_2 = a.$ 

So,

$$D_j = j(a-j).$$

Note: this may not match your intuition.

e.g. One player starts with £1000 and the other with £1. They each place £1 bets on a fair coin, until one or other is ruined. What is the expected duration of the game?

We have

$$a = 1001, \ j = 1, \ p = q = \frac{1}{2}$$

Expected duration

$$D_j = j(a - j) = 1(1001 - 1) = 1000$$
 games!

### 5.3 Unrestricted random walks

(one without barriers)

Various questions of interest:

- what is the probability of return to the origin?
- is eventual return certain?
- how far from the origin is the particle likely to be after n steps?

Let R = event that particle eventually returns to the origin.

A = event that the first step is to the right.

 $\overline{A}$  = event that the first step is to the left.

$$P(A) = p \quad P(A) = q = 1 - p$$
$$P(R) = P(R | A)P(A) + P(R | \overline{A})P(\overline{A})$$

Now: event  $R \mid A$  is the event of eventual ruin when a gambler with a starting amount of £1 is playing against a casino with unlimited funds, so

$$\mathbf{P}(R \mid A) = \begin{cases} 1 & p \le q \\ q/p & p > q \end{cases}$$

Similarly,

$$\mathbf{P}(R \,|\, \overline{A}) = \begin{cases} 1 & p \ge q \\ p/q & p < q \end{cases}$$

(by replacing p with q).

 $\operatorname{So}$ 

$$p < q$$
:  $P(R) = 2p; \quad p = q$ :  $P(R) = 1; \quad p > q$ :  $P(R) = 2q.$ 

i.e. return to the origin is certain only when p = q.

- p = q: the random walk is <u>symmetric</u> and in this case it is <u>recurrent</u> return to origin is certain.
- $p \neq q$ : return is <u>not</u> certain. There is a non-zero probability it will never return the random walk is <u>transient</u>.

Note: same arguments apply to every state

 $\Rightarrow$  all states are either recurrent or transient,

 $\Rightarrow$  the random walk is recurrent or transient.

# **5.4** Distribution of $X_n$ – the position after n steps

Suppose it has made x steps to the right and y to the left.

Then x + y = n, so  $X_n = x - y = 2x - n$ .

So n even  $\Rightarrow X_n$  even

 $n \text{ odd } \Rightarrow X_n \text{ odd }$ 

In particular  $P(X_n = k) = 0$  if n and k are not either both even or both odd. Let

 $W_n$  = number positive steps in first *n* steps

Then  $W_n \sim Binomial(n, p)$ .

$$P(W_n = x) = \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x} \quad 0 \le x \le n$$

$$P(X_n = 2x - n) = \binom{n}{x} p^x q^{n-x}$$

$$P(X_n = k) = \binom{n}{(n+k)/2} p^{(n+k)/2} q^{(n-k)/2}$$

 $X_n$  is sum of n iid rvs,  $Z_i$ , so use CLT to see large n behaviour: CLT:  $X_n$  is approx.  $N(E(X_n), var(X_n))$  large n.

$$E(X_n) = \sum E(Z_i) = \sum [1 \times p + (-1) \times q] = n(p-q).$$
  

$$var(X_n) = \sum var(Z_i)$$
  

$$= \sum \left[ E(Z_i^2) - E^2(Z_i) \right]$$
  

$$= n[(1 \times p + 1 \times q) - (p-q)^2]$$
  

$$= 4npq.$$

So,

- If p > q the particle drifts to the right as n increases.
- this drift is faster, the larger p.

- the variance increases with n.
- the variance is smaller the larger is p.

## 5.5 Return Probabilities

Recall, probability of return of a SRW (simple random walk) with p + q = 1 is 1 if symmetric (p = q), < 1 otherwise  $(p \neq q)$ . When does the return occur? Let,

$$f_n = P(\text{first return occurs at } n)$$
  
=  $P(X_n = 0 \text{ and } X_r \neq 0 \text{ for } 0 < r < n)$   
$$u_n = P(\text{some return occurs at } n)$$
  
=  $P(X_n = 0)$ 

Since  $X_0 = 0$ :  $u_0 = 1$ 

Define  $f_0 = 0$  for convenience.

We also have  $f_1 = u_1 = P(X_1 = 0)$ .

We have already found  $u_n$ :

$$u_n = \mathcal{P}(X_n = 0) = \begin{cases} \binom{n}{n/2} p^{n/2} q^{n/2} & n \text{ even} \\ 0 & n \text{ odd} \end{cases}$$

Let

$$R$$
 = Event: return eventually occurs,  $f = P(R)$   
 $R_n$  = Event: first return is at  $n, f_n = P(R_n)$ 

Then  $f = f_1 + f_2 + \ldots + f_n + \ldots$ 

To decide if a RW is recurrent or not we could find the  $f_n$ . Easier to find a relationship between  $f_n$  and  $u_n$ .

Let

$$F(s) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} f_n s^n \text{ a pgf if } \sum f_n = 1: \text{ true if recurrent}$$
$$U(s) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u_n s^n \text{ not a pgf because } \sum u_n \neq 1 \text{ in general.}$$

For any random walk

$$u_1 = f_1$$
  

$$u_2 = f_1 u_1 + f_2 = f_0 u_2 + f_1 u_1 + f_2 u_0$$
  

$$u_3 = f_0 u_3 + f_1 u_2 + f_2 u_1 + f_3 u_0.$$

In general,

$$u_n = f_0 u_n + f_1 u_{n-1} + \ldots + f_{n-1} u_1 + f_n u_0 \quad n \ge 1.$$
(3)

Now,

$$F(s)U(s) = \left(\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} f_r s^r\right) \left(\sum_{q=0}^{\infty} u_q s^q\right)$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} (f_0 u_n + f_1 u_{n-1} + \ldots + f_n u_0) s^n$$
$$= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} u_n s^n \quad \text{from 3 and } f_0 u_0 = 0$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u_n s^n - u_0$$
$$= U(s) - 1.$$

That is

$$U(s) = 1 + F(s)U(s);$$
  $F(s) = 1 - \frac{1}{U(s)}, U(s) \neq 0.$ 

Let  $s \to 1$  to give  $\sum f_n = 1 - 1 / \sum u_n$ , So:  $\sum f_n = 1$  iff  $\sum u_n = \infty$ 

 $\Rightarrow$  a RW is recurrent iff sum of return probabilities is  $\infty.$