

2nd Jan

## UNIT - IV

BRANCHING PROCESS - The history of the study of branching processes dates back to 1974 when a mathematical model was formulated by F. Galton and H. W. Wilson for predicting whether a family name would become extinct after a certain <sup>attract</sup> number of generations.

The model didn't attract much attention for a long time. However the situation gradually changed and during last 70 yrs much attention has been devoted to it this is becoz of the development of interest in the application of probability theory in general and also becoz of the possibility of using the model in a variety of biological, physical and other fields of study where one is concern with objects (individuals) that can generate objects of similar kind such objects may be biological entities such as human beings, animals, genes, bacteria, etc which reproduce similar objects by biological methods or may be physical particles such as neutrons, which in yield new neutrons under a nuclear chain reaction.

We consider the discrete time case. Suppose that we start with an initial set of objects (or individuals) which form the zeroth generation called Ancestors. The objects generated by the objects of zeroth generation are the direct descendants of the Ancestors and are said to form the first generation, the objects generated by those of the 1st generation from the 2nd generation and so on.

The no. of objects of the  $n$ th generation, where  $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n$  is a no. here, we assume that the objects reproduce independently of other objects. Let the size  $X_0, X_1, X_2, \dots$  denote the size of (or the no. of individuals) the zeroth, 1st, 2nd, ... so on. generations respectively. Let  $p_k$  be the prob. that an object irrespective of the generation to which it belongs generates  $k$  similar objects where  $p_k \geq 0$ ,  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_k = 1.$$

The sequence  $\{X_n, n=0, 1, 2, \dots\}$  constitutes a Galton-Watson branching process with offspring distribution  $p_k$ .

- Our interest lies mainly in the
- 1) Probability dist' of  $X_n$
  - 2) The prob. that  $X_n \rightarrow 0$  for some  $n$  i.e.

the probability of ultimate extinction.

For simplicity we assume that  $X_0 = 1$  ie the process starts with a single ancestor

The sequence  $\{X_n\}$  forms a Markov Chain with transition probability matrix with prob. that

$$p_{ij} = \Pr[X_{n+1} = j \mid X_n = i] \text{ where}$$

$$i, j = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

let  $X_{n+1} = Z_1 + Z_2 + \dots + Z_{X_n}$

where  $Z_r$  is the number of offspring of the  $r^{\text{th}}$  member of the  $n^{\text{th}}$  generation and  $Z_{r,i}$  are independently identically distributed r.v.s with prob. dist.  $\{p_k\}$ .

let  $P(z)$  be the p.g.f. of  $\{Z_r\}$

then  $P(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_k [Z_r = k] z^k$  Acc to def<sup>n</sup> of p.g.f.

let p.g.f. of  $X_{n+1}$  be  $P_{n+1}(z)$ , here

$$n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

Clearly,  $X_1 = Z_1 + Z_2 + \dots + Z_{X_0}$

since  $X_0 = 1$

$$X_1 = Z_1$$

$P_1(z)$  is p.g.f. of  $X_1$  is

$$P_1(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_k [X_1 = k] z^k$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_k [Z_1 = k] z^k = P(z) \text{ (assumed)}$$

Now  $P_{n+1}(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_k [X_{n+1} = k] z^k$

$$p_k [X_{n+1} = k] = \sum_{i=0}^{\infty} p_i [X_{n+1} = k, X_n = i]$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \Pr[X_n = j] \Pr[X_{n+1} = k \mid X_n = i]$$

$$= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} P_{\theta} [X_n = j] P_{\theta} [Z_1 + Z_2 + \dots + Z_j = k]$$

$$P_{n+1}(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_r [X_{n+1} = k] s^k$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \left[ \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} P_r[X_n=j] P_r[Z_1+Z_2+\dots+Z_j=k] \right] s^k$$

$$P_{n+1}(j) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} P_r[X_n=j] \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_r\left[\sum_{r=1}^j Z_r = k\right] \delta^k$$

~~Therefor~~

Since  $z_1, z_2, \dots, z_p$  are fixed rvs and

$P(z)$  is pgf of each  $z$  & therefore pgf of

$$\sum_{s=1}^k Z_s = [P(s)]^k$$

therefore,

$$P_{n+1}(z) = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} P_r[\lambda_n = j] [P(z)]^j$$

$$P_{n+1}(z) = P_n[P(z)] \quad \text{---} \quad (1)$$

now, from the fact that  $P_{n+1}(e) = P_n(P(e))$

One may prove that

$$P_{n+1}(x) \geq P[P_n(x)]$$

for the proof of the above eq<sup>n</sup> we know that

$$P_1(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_k [x_1 = k] z^k$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \Pr[Z = k] x^k \quad \because x_1 = Z$$

15  $P(1)$

on substituting  $P(2) = P_1(1)$  in eq ①, we get

$$p_{n+1}(x) = p_n(p_1(x))$$

now substituting  $n = n-1$  if  $x = p(x)$  in above

$$p_n(p(x)) = p_{n-1}(p_1(p(x)))$$

After substituting  $n = 1$  in eq<sup>n</sup> ①, we get

$$p_2(x) = p_1(p(x))$$

therefore,

$$p_n(p(x)) = p_{n-1}(p_2(x)) \Rightarrow p_{n+1}(x) = p_{n-1}(p_2(x))$$

again putting  $n = n-1$  &  $x = p(x)$ , we get

$$p_n(p(x)) = p_{n-2}(p_2(p(x)))$$

After putting  $n = 2$  in eq<sup>n</sup> ①

$$p_3(x) = p_2(p(x))$$

$$\therefore p_n(p(x)) = p_{n-2}(p_3(x))$$

$$p_{n+1}(x) = p_{n-2}(p_3(x))$$

Hence, proceeding in the similar manner

in general  $p_{n+1}(x) = p_{n-k+1}(p_k(x))$   $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$

in particular,

$$k = n \quad p_{n+1}(x) = p_1(p_n(x))$$

$$p_1(x) = p(x) \quad \text{from eq ②}$$

$$\therefore p_{n+1}(x) = p(p_n(x))$$

and hence

$$p_{n+1}(x) = p_n(p(x)) = p(p_n(x)) \quad \text{Imp}$$

Thus, explicit form for the PPF of  $X_n$  depends upon the probly dist<sup>n</sup>  $p_k$ .

Ex- Consider for  $\text{eq}$  the organism which can either die or split into two so that

$$p_0 = 1-p$$

$$p_2 = p$$

$$p_k = 0 \quad \text{for all other values of } k$$

Pgf of  $z$  is

$$P(z) = (1-p)^0 + 0 \cdot 1^0 + p \cdot 1^2 + 0 \cdot 0 + \dots$$

$$= (1-p) + p \cdot 1^2$$

Pgf of  $X_1$  which is denoted by

$$P_1(z) = P(z) = (1-p) + p \cdot 1^2$$

now, pgf of  $X_2$  which is  $P_2(z)$

$$P_2(z) = P_1(P(z)) = (1-p) + p[(1-p) + p \cdot 1^2]^2$$

Pgf of  $X_3$ .

$$P_3(z) = (1-p) + p[(1-p) + p \{ (1-p) + p \cdot 1^2 \}^2]^2$$

This simple eq shows that although the probles can be obtained from  $P_n(z)$  actual computation of  $P[X_n = j]$  is quite difficult when  $n$  becomes large.

Mean of  $X_n$  - is average size of the  $n^{\text{th}}$  generation -

Avg. size of 1st gen. is  $X_1$

$$E(X_1) = m \text{ (say)}$$

Since  $X_0 = 1$ .

$$X_1 = 2$$

$$E(z) = E(X_1) = m$$

and let  $V(z) = V(X_1) = \sigma^2$

let  $P_n(z)$  be the pgf of  $X_n$  so

$$E(X_n) = [P_n(z)]_{z=1}$$

Since  $P_n(z) = P_{n-1}(P(z))$

therefore  $P_n'(z) = [P_{n-1}'(P(z))] P'(z)$

putting  $z=1$

$$\begin{aligned} n &= n-1 \\ z &= P(z) \end{aligned}$$

$$P'_n(1) = [P'_{n-1}(P(1))] P'(1)$$

$$P(1) = \sum_k p_k 1^k = 1$$

$$P'_n(1) = [P'_{n-1}(1)] P'(1)$$

$$P'(1) = E(X_1) = E(Z)_{\text{rand}} = m$$

$$P'_n(1) = m P'_{n-1}(1)$$

By iteration, we get

$$P'_n(1) = m \cdot m \cdot P'_{n-2}(1)$$

$$= m^2 P'_{n-2}(1)$$

$$= m^2 \cdot m P'_{n-3}(1)$$

$$= m^3 P'_{n-3}(1)$$

⋮

$$= m^{n-1} P'(1)$$

$$= m^{n-1} P'(1) \quad P_1(1) = P(1)$$

$$= m^{n-1} m$$

$$= m^n$$

we can derive the above result in an alternative way also,

$$\text{where } X_{n+1} = Z_1 + Z_2 + \dots + Z_n = \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i$$

is sum of random number of discrete iid r.v. we know that if

$$S_N = Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_N$$

where  $N$  itself is a r.v. and  $Y_i \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$

are iid r.v. then

$$E[S_N] = E[Y_i] \cdot E(N)$$

using the above result, we can write

$$E(X_{n+1}) = E(Z_i) E(X_N)$$

$$= m E(X_n)$$

$E(X_{n+1}) - m E(X_n) = 0$   
this is a homogeneous diff. eq of order 1

of type

$$v_{n+1} - m v_n = 0$$

hence auxiliary eq is  
1)  $p - m = 0$   
2)  $p = m$

hence the soln is

$$E(X_n) = v_n = c m^n \quad \text{①}$$

const.  $c$  is determined by using a initial cond<sup>n</sup>  $E(X_1) = m$ .

substituting  $n=1$  in this eq ①

$$E(X_1) = v_1 = cm$$

$$m = cm$$

$$\Rightarrow c = 1.$$

hence, the soln is

$$E(X_n) = m^n.$$

where  $m$  denotes the average no. of objects generated per object.

Variance of  $X_n$  -

we know that

$$S_N = Y_1 + Y_2 + \dots + Y_N$$

where  $N$ , it is a r.v. and  $Y_i$ 's are iid r.v.s.

then

$$V(S_N) = E(N) V(Y_i) + V(N) [E(Y_i)]^2$$

here  $X_{n+1} = \sum_{i=1}^n Z_i$   $Z_i$ 's are iid r.v.s. and

$X_n$  is a r.v. therefore

$$\begin{aligned}
 V(X_{n+1}) &= E(X_n) V(z_0) + V(X_n) [E(z_0)]^2 \\
 &= m^n \sigma^2 + V(X_n) m^2
 \end{aligned}$$

$$V(X_{n+1}) = m^2 V(X_n) + m^n \sigma^2$$

this is a non homogeneous diff eq of order 1  
of type  $V_{n+1} - m^2 V_n = m^n \sigma^2$

so auxiliary eqn is

$$p - m^2 = 0 \quad p = m^2$$

so, complementary fn is

$$V_n = A(m^2)^n$$

particular soln is

$$\text{P.S.} = \frac{1}{(p - m^2)^2} m^n \sigma^2$$

$$= \frac{m^n \sigma^2}{m - m^2}, \quad m \neq 1$$

so the soln is

$$V_n = C_1 + C_2 n, \quad V(X_n) = A(m^2)^n + \frac{m^n \sigma^2}{m - m^2}, \quad m \neq 1$$

the constant can be determine by

$$V(X_1) = \sigma^2$$

putting  $m=1$  in ①

$$V(X_1) = A m^2 + \frac{m \sigma^2}{m - m^2}$$

$$A = \frac{1}{m^2} \left[ \sigma^2 - \frac{m \sigma^2}{m(1-m)} \right]$$

$$= \frac{\sigma^2}{m(m-1)}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 V(S_n) &= E(N) V(Y_1) \\
 &\propto (E(Y_1))^2 V(N)
 \end{aligned}$$

$V(X_n)$  will be

$$V(X_n) = \frac{\sigma^2}{m(m-1)} m^{2n} - \frac{m^n \sigma^2}{m(m-1)} \quad m \neq 1$$
$$= \frac{\sigma^2 m^n}{m(m-1)} (m^n - 1)$$
$$= \frac{\sigma^2 m^{m-1}}{m-1} (m^n - 1), \text{ for } m \neq 1$$

for  $m=1$ , we can get the result by taking the limit of above expression when  $m \rightarrow 1$ . Unit may be taken by differentiating numerator & denominator i.e. by L'Hopital's rule.

$$\lim_{m \rightarrow 1} \frac{(n-1)m^{n-2} \sigma^2 (m^n - 1) + m^{n-1} \sigma^2 n \cdot m^{n-1}}{1}$$
$$= \infty \cdot 0 + \sigma^2 n$$

$$V(X_n) \geq n \sigma^2 \text{ if } m=1.$$

### Extinction of the Process

Def - By extinction of process it is meant that the random sequence  $X_n$  consists of zeros for all except a finite no. of values of  $n$ . In other words extinction occurs when probly that  $X_n$  takes value zero for some value of  $n$ .  $P[X_n = 0] \geq 1$  for some  $n$ .

Clearly,  $X_n \geq 0$  for  $n \leq m$  (say)

$X_n = 0$  for  $n > m$

$$\text{Theorem} - P[X_{n+1} = 0 \mid X_n = 0] = 1.$$

Statement If  $E(Z_r) = m \leq 1$ . The prob of ultimate extinction is 1. and if

(1)  $E(Z_r) = m > 1$  the prob of ultimate extinction is the smallest the root less than unity of the eqn  $1 = P(1)$ .

Proof let  $q_m = P[X_n = 0]$

if  $q_m$  is the prob that extinction occurs at and before the ~~ext~~  $n$ th generation

let  $P_n(\lambda)$  be the pgf of  $X_n$  so

$$f_n(\lambda) = P[X_n = 0] + P[X_n = 1] \cdot \lambda^1 + P[X_n = 2] \cdot \lambda^2 + \dots$$

$$f_n(\lambda) = q \text{ at } \lambda = 0$$

$$f_n(0) = P[X_n = 0] + 0 + 0 + \dots$$

$$f_n(0) = q_m \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

therefore,

$$q_1 = f_1(0) \quad \therefore P_1(\lambda) = f_1(\lambda)$$

$q_1 = P(0)$  (2) where  $P(\lambda)$  is the pgf  $\Rightarrow$

$$\text{therefore } q_1 = [P(\lambda)]_{\lambda=0}$$

$$= [p_0 + p_1 \lambda + p_2 \lambda^2 + \dots]_{\lambda=0}$$

$$q_1 = p_0 \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Also, we know that

$$P_n(\lambda) = P(P_{n-1}(\lambda))$$

$$P_n(0) = P(P_{n-1}(0))$$

Acc. to eq (1), we get

$$q_n = P(q_{n-1}) \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

Case I If  $p_0 = 0$  then  $q_1 = 0$  (5) from eq (3).

further  $q_2 = P(q_1)$  from eq (4)

$$\begin{aligned}
 q_2 &= p(0) && \text{from (5)} \\
 &= q_1 && \text{from (2)} \\
 &= 0 && \text{from (3)}
 \end{aligned}$$

Similarly  $q_3 = 0$

$q_m = 0 \forall n$   
 i.e. probly of extinction is zero for all  $n$   
 hence, no extinction is possible when  
 $p_0 = 0$ .

Case 12 - If  $p_0 = 1$ .

then  $q_1 = 1$  from eq (3)

further  $q_2 = p(q_1)$

$$= p(1)$$

$$= [p(1)]_{l=1}$$

$$= [p_0 + p_{1,1} + p_{2,1} + \dots]_{l=1}$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_k = 1$$

$$q_{2,1} = 1 \xrightarrow{\text{--- (6) ---}}$$

in general  $q_m = 1 \forall n$

2) Extinction will occur right after the growth generation with probly 1.

Thus, we conclude that if  $p_0 = 1$   
 population will never start, and if  
 $p_0 = 0$

it will never become extinct - thus we  
 confined our sets to the next case when  
 $0 < p_0 < 1$  i.e.

case 12

$$0 < p_0 < 1$$

$$P(l) = p_0 + p_1 l + p_2 l^2 + \dots$$

since

$p_n$ 's are non-negative numbers

therefore for  $0 < p_0 < 1$ ,  $P(l)$  is a strictly monotone increasing fn of  $l$ . Now

$$q_2 = P(q_1) \text{ from eq } ④$$

$$= P(p_0) \text{ from } ③$$

$$q_2 > P(0) \text{ bcoz } p_0 > 0$$

$$\text{but } P(0) = q_1 \text{ acc. to eq } ②$$

$$\therefore q_2 > q_1$$

similarly, it can be shown that

$$q_3 > q_2$$

therefore, we have

$q_1 < q_2 < q_3 < \dots$   $\{q_n\}$  is monotonically increasing and is bounded above by 1. as  $q_n$ 's are prob. less than 1. if the sequence  $\{q_n\}$  must have a limit point. let the limiting value of  $q_n$  be  $q$  (say)  $0 < q < 1$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} q_n = q \text{ (say)} \quad 0 < q < 1$$

$$q_n = P(q_{n-1})$$

when  $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$q = P(q) \quad ⑦$$

this implies  $q$  is a root of eqn

$$l = P(l) \text{ in fact}$$

$q$  is the smallest +ve root less than unity of a eqn  $l = P(l)$   
to prove this, let us suppose that

eqn  $\lambda_0$  is an arbitrary tie root of the  
 $\lambda = P(\lambda)$ ,

We know that

but  $q_1 = P(0)$  from eqn ②  
 $P(0) < P(\lambda_0)$  as  $0 < \lambda_0$   
therefore  $q_1 < P(\lambda_0)$

$q_1 < \lambda_0$  bcoz  $\lambda_0$  is the root of  
now assuming  $P(\lambda_0)$

we get  $q_{n+1} < \lambda_0$ ,  
 $q_{n+1} = P(q_n)$

$< P(\lambda_0)$  from eq ④

$q_{n+1} < \lambda_0$

so by ~~induct~~ induction  $q_n < \lambda_0 \forall n$   
therefore  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} q_n < \lambda_0$

$q < \lambda_0$  from eq ①

thus  $q$  is the smallest tie root of a eqn  
 $\lambda = P(\lambda)$  for further investigation, we consider  
the graph of  $y = P(\lambda)$   $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$

the following features of the curve may  
be noted

1) It starts with  $(0, p_0)$  bcoz

$$P(\lambda) = p_0 + p_1 \lambda + \dots$$

when  $\lambda = 0$   $y = P(0)$

2) It ends with the point  $(1, 1)$  bcoz

when  $\lambda = 1$

$$y = P(1)$$

$$\sum_k p_k = 1$$

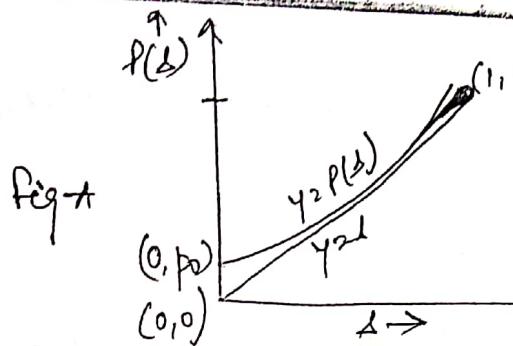


Fig A

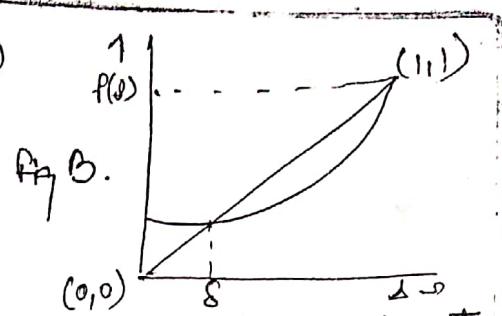


Fig B.

3) The curve lies entirely in the 1st quadrant

4) The curve is convex bcoz  $P(l)$  is an increasing

fn of  $l$ , So the curve

$y_2 P(l)$  and the bisector line  $y_2 l$ , can intersect in atmost 2 pt  
one of which is the end pt  $(1, 1)$

This implies the eq<sup>n</sup>  $l = P(l)$  has  
two roots one of which is unity the  
two cases are considered with the help of  
figures A and B.

Now, case A, the curve  $y_2 P(l)$  lies  
entirely above the line  $y_2 l$  in which  
case point  $(1, 1)$  is the only point of  
intersection the unique root is the unique  
sol of the eq<sup>n</sup>  $l = P(l)$ , i.e.

$\therefore q = 1$   
Thus, the probability of ultimate extinction is

$$1, \text{ also } P(1) - P(l) = 1 - P(l)$$

Since, in this case

$y_2 P(l)$  lies entirely above

therefore,  $P(l) \geq l$

$$1 - P(l) \leq 1 - l$$

$$P(1) - P(l) \leq 1 - l$$

$$\therefore \frac{P(1) - P(l)}{1 - l} \leq 1$$

$$\therefore \lim_{l \rightarrow 1} \frac{P(1) - P(l)}{1 - l} \leq 1$$

$$\text{but } f'(1) \leq 1$$

$$f'(1) = E(Z_r) = n \text{ given}$$

$$\therefore n \leq 1$$

so for the case  $n \leq 1$

It is 1.  $P$  probability of ultimate extinction

Now case (B).

the curve  $y = f(x)$  intersects the line  $y = x$  at another point also say at  $(\delta, f(\delta))$  such that  $\delta = f(\delta)$  and  $\delta < 1$

therefore, two roots of the eqn

namely  $x = f(x)$  one of which is  $\delta$  and the other is  $\gamma$ .

the line  $y = f(x)$  being convex lie below above the line  $y = x$  in the range  $\delta$  to 1 and above the line  $y = x$  in the range 0 to  $\delta$

$\Rightarrow f(x) < x \text{ for } \delta < x < 1$

and  $f(x) > x \text{ for } 0 < x < \delta$

Now

since  $\gamma_1 = P(0)$  acc. to eqn ②

and  $f(x)$  is increasing fn of  $x$

$\Rightarrow \gamma_1 < f(\delta)$

$$f(\delta) = \delta$$

$$\Rightarrow \gamma_1 < \delta$$

$$\gamma_n < \delta$$

$$\gamma_{n+1} = P(\gamma_n) \text{ acc. to eqn ④}$$

$$\gamma_{n+1} < f(\delta) \quad \gamma_n < \delta$$

$$\gamma_{n+1} < \delta$$

$$q_n < 8 \quad \forall n$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} q_n = 7$$

$l = p(1)$  and  $8$  is also a root of the eq<sup>n</sup> which is the only other than unity of the eq<sup>n</sup>.  
Hence,  $q_n > 8 < l$

by mean value theorem, considered in the interval  $[8, 1]$ , there is a value  $z$  say  $(8, 1)$  s.t.

$$p(z) = \frac{p(1) - p(8)}{1 - 8} \text{ and} \\ = \frac{1 - 8}{1 - 8}$$

$$p(z) = 1.$$

further, since, the derivative of  $p(z)$  is  $p'(z)$  is monotonic therefore for  $2 \leq l < 1$ , we have

$$p'(z) < p'(1)$$

$$z < p'(1)$$

$$p'(1) > 1$$

$$\Rightarrow p'(z) > 1$$

$$\Rightarrow z > 1$$

this shows that for  $n > 1$  the probty of ultimate extinction is  $8$  which is smaller the root less than unity of the eq<sup>n</sup>.

$$l = p(1)$$

$$m \leq l$$

$$\cancel{\text{If } m > l, \Rightarrow p(z).}$$

Ques ① Find the probability of extinction if  $p_0 = \frac{1}{2}$ ,  $p_1 = \frac{1}{4}$ , and  $p_2 = \frac{1}{4}$

$$E(Z_1) = 0 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{2}{4}$$

$$= \frac{3}{4} < 1$$

∴ Probability of ultimate extinction is 1.

②  $p_0 = \frac{1}{4}$ ,  $p_1 = \frac{1}{4}$  and  $p_2 = \frac{1}{2}$

$$E(Z_1) = 0 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{2}{2}$$

$$= \frac{5}{4} > 1.$$

∴ Prob.

$$P(Z_1) = \frac{1}{4} \cdot 1^0 + \frac{1}{4} \cdot 1 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot 1^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{2}$$

Solve for  $z = p(Z_1)$ .

$$z = \frac{1}{2} \text{ f. 1.}$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \text{ first paths } \left( \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$p(Z_1) = \text{ putting } z = 1$$

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{2} + \frac{2}{2} = 2$$

$$2z = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{3}{2} + \frac{2}{2}$$

$$4z = 1 + 3 + 2z$$

$$2z^2 - 3z + 1 = 0$$

$$2z^2 = 2z - 3z + 1 = 0$$

$$2z(z-1) - 1(z-1) = 0$$

$$2z-1 = 0 \Rightarrow z = \frac{1}{2}$$

Binomial with  
Mean  $np = 1$

①  $n=2$

②  $n=1$

③  $n=0$

$p_2 = \frac{1}{2}$

$p_1 = \frac{1}{2}$

$p_0 = 0.6$

① Probability ofulti. ext. is 1.

②  $\frac{1}{2} < 1$  Probability of u.e. = 1.

③ Mean = 1.2

$$z = p(Z_1)$$

$$f(1) = 2 + p$$

222.

$$(0.4 + 0.6)x^2 = 1 \text{ and } 0.44$$

probability of u.e. is 0.44. ✓