Topics in Applied Stochastic Processes

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Finite length random walks on \mathbb{Z}

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1.1 Definitions

Random walks serve as very useful models in many applications. They are simple to state and understand, yet they lead to lots of intractable questions.

Notation. $\mathbb{N} = \{k \in \mathbb{Z} : k \ge 1\}$ and $\mathbb{N}_0 = \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}$

We now proceed to construct what is called a "simple random walk" on \mathbb{Z} of finite length $N \in \mathbb{N}$. The sample space Ω_N and the event space \mathcal{F}_N are described below.

$$\Omega_N := \{(\omega_1, \dots, \omega_N) : \omega_i \in \{-1, 1\} \ \forall \ 1 \le i \le N\}$$

$$\mathcal{F}_N := \{A : A \subseteq \Omega_N\}$$

The probability function $\mathbf{P}_N:\Omega_N\to[0,1]$ is defined as

$$\mathbf{P}_N(A) := |A| \ 2^{-N}$$

We also define random variables X_k and S_k on Ω_N for $1 \leq k \leq N$ as

$$X_k: \Omega_N \to \{-1, 1\} \; ; \; X_k(\omega) := \omega_k$$

$$S_k:\Omega_N\to\mathbb{Z}\;;\;S_k(\omega):=\sum_{i=1}^kX_k(\omega)\;;\;S_0(\omega):=0\; ext{for all }\omega\in\Omega_N$$

Definition 1.1.1. Fix $N \in \mathbb{N}$. The sequence of random variables $\{S_k\}_{k=1}^N$ on $(\Omega_N, \mathcal{F}_N, \mathbf{P}_N)$ is called a (symmetric) simple random walk on \mathbb{Z} , of finite length N, starting at 0.

 $^{^{\}dagger}$ added illustrations

Figure 1.1: Three possible trajectories for $(S_n)_{n=0}^N$

In what follows, we suppress the subscript N while referring to the probability space $(\Omega_N, \mathcal{F}_N, \mathbf{P}_N)$, and we assume that $N \in \mathbb{N}$ is fixed.

Observations.

(a) $\{X_k\}_{k=1}^N$ are iid, i.e. independent and identically distributed.

Proof.

$$\mathbf{P}(X_k = 1) = \mathbf{P}(\{\omega \in \Omega : \omega_k = 1\}) = 2^{-N} |\{\omega \in \Omega : \omega_k = 1\}|$$

$$= 2^{-N} 2^{N-1}$$

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

$$= \mathbf{P}(X_k = -1)$$

So $\{X_k\}_{k=1}^N$ are identically distributed. Independence is left as an exercise.

(b) (Independent increments) For $1 \leq k_1 \leq k_2 \leq \ldots \leq N$, $\{S_{k_i} - S_{k_{i-1}} : 1 \leq i \leq N\}$ are independent random variables.

Proof. Observe that, for $1 \leq k < l \leq N$, we have $S_l - S_k = \sum_{i=k+1}^l X_i$. Therefore, if $1 \leq a < b \leq c < d \leq N$, we see that $S_b - S_a$ and $S_d - S_c$ are functions of disjoint sets of independent random variables, and hence the claim is true.

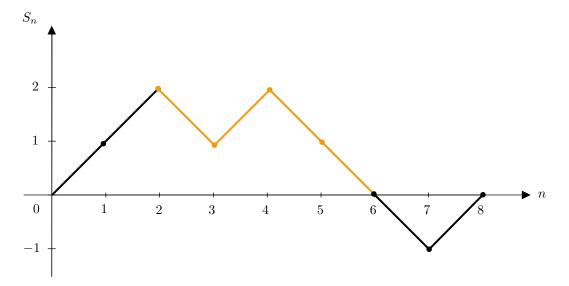


Figure 1.2: Independent (colored) increments in a simple random walk

(c) (Stationary in increments) For $1 \le k < m \le N$, $\mathbf{P}(S_m - S_k = \alpha) = \mathbf{P}(S_{m-k} = \alpha)$ for every $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof. We use the fact that $\{X_i\}_{i=1}^N$ are identically distributed in the following argument.

$$\mathbf{P}(S_m - S_k = \alpha) = \mathbf{P}\left(\sum_{i=k+1}^m X_i = \alpha\right) = \mathbf{P}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m-k} X_i = \alpha\right) = \mathbf{P}(S_{m-k} = \alpha)$$

(d) (Markov Property) For $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{Z}, \ 1 \leq i \leq N$ and $0 \leq n \leq N$,

$$\mathbf{P}(S_n = \alpha_n \mid S_{n-1} = \alpha_{n-1}, \dots, S_1 = \alpha_1) = \mathbf{P}(S_n = \alpha_n \mid S_{n-1} = \alpha_{n-1}),$$

assuming (of course) that the conditional probabilities are well defined.

Proof. Left as an exercise. \Box

- (e) (Conditional Law) For $1 \le k < m \le N$, $\mathbf{P}(S_m = b \mid S_k = a) = \mathbf{P}(S_{m-k} = b a)$.

 Proof. Left as an exercise.
- (f) (Moments) For $1 \le k \le N$, we have $\mathbf{E}[X_k] = \mathbf{E}[S_k] = 0$ and $\mathrm{Var}[S_k] = k$.

Proof. By definition of expected value, $\mathbf{E}[X_k] = 1(1/2) - 1(1/2) = 0$. By linearity of expected values, $\mathbf{E}[S_k] = \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{E}[X_i] = 0$.

Since $\mathbf{E}[S_k] = 0$, $\text{Var}[S_k] = \mathbf{E}[(\sum_{i=1}^k X_i)^2] = \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{E}[X_k^2] = k$. As an exercise, show that $\mathbf{E}[(\sum_{i=1}^k X_i)^2] = \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{E}[X_k^2]$.

(g) (Distribution of S_n) For $x \in \{-n, -n+2, \dots, n-2, n\}$, we have

$$\mathbf{P}(S_n = x) = \mathbf{P}(S_n = -x) = \binom{n}{\frac{n+x}{2}} 2^{-n}$$

Proof. We only provide a sketch of the proof, which is left as an exercise. For $0 \le j \le N$, $\{S_n = 2j - n\} = \{S_n = j - (n - j)\}$. So there must be a total of j steps to the right and n - j steps to the left. Therefore

$$\mathbf{P}(S_n = 2j - n) = 2^{-N} |\{\omega \in \Omega : \dots\}| = 2^{-n} \binom{n}{j}$$

(h) (Mode) The mode of the above distribution is achieved in the middle, i.e. at x=0 and at x=1,-1 for S_{2n} and S_{2n-1} respectively.

Proof.

$$\mathbf{P}(S_{2n} = 0) = \mathbf{P}(S_{2n-1} = 1) = \binom{2n}{n} 2^{-2n}$$

(i) (Stirling's formula) Using Stirling's approximation, for large n, we have

$$\binom{2n}{n} = \frac{2n!}{n!n!} \sim \frac{(2n)^{2n}e^{-2n}\sqrt{4\pi n}}{n^{2n}e^{-2n}\sqrt{2\pi n}\sqrt{2\pi n}} \sim \frac{2^{2n}}{\sqrt{\pi n}}$$
(*)

Therefore,

$$\mathbf{P}(S_{2n}=0) = {2n \choose n} \frac{1}{2^{2n}} \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi n}} \text{ as } n \to \infty$$

This approximation, although correct, has a caveat - we chose to keep N fixed, but as $n \to \infty$, we must also let $N \to \infty$, and this requires subtler arguments. A few consequences of this approximation are mentioned in the exercises.

1.2 Stopping times

Motivation for this section comes from the classic Gambler's ruin problem. We can interpret a simple random walk as a fair game between two players, where in round k, a player wins the amount X_k . Then S_n denotes the capital of one player over the other after n rounds.

We would like to answer the following question - "Is it possible to stop the game in a favorite moment, i.e., can clever stopping lead to a positive expected gain?". In other words, can we design a $T(\omega)$ for every $\omega \in \Omega$ such that $\mathbf{E}[S_T] > 0$? Of course, the decision to stop may only depend on the trajectory until that time: no "insider knowledge" about the future of the trajectory is permitted.

To formalize this setting, we make the following definition.

Definition 1.2.1. An event $A \subseteq \Omega$ is said to be observable by time n if it is a (possibly empty) union of basic / elementary events of the form

$$\{\omega \in \Omega : \omega_1 = o_1, \dots, \omega_n = o_n\}$$

where $o_i \in \{-1, 1\}$ for $1 \le i \le n$.

We also define $A_0 = \{\phi, \Omega\}$ and set

$$\mathcal{A}_n := \{ A \in \mathcal{F} : A \text{ is observable by time } n \}.$$

Immediately, we observe that

$$\{\phi,\Omega\} = \mathcal{A}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{A}_1 \subseteq \ldots \subseteq \mathcal{A}_{N-1} \subseteq \mathcal{A}_N = \mathcal{F}$$

As an easy exercise, verify that each \mathcal{A}_n is closed with respect to taking complement, union and intersection. Such a sequence $\{\mathcal{A}_i\}_{i=0}^N$ is called a *filtration*.

Definition 1.2.2. A function $T: \Omega \to \{0, 1, ..., N\} \cup \{\infty\}$ is called a stopping time if for each $0 \le n \le N$,

$$\{T=n\} = \{\omega \in \Omega : T(\omega) = n\} \in \mathcal{A}_n$$

Example. For $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, let $\sigma_a = \inf\{n : S_n = a, 0 \le n \le N\}$ denote the *first* hitting time of a. As an exercise, show that σ_a is a stopping time.

Example. For $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, let $L_a = \max\{n : S_n = a, 0 \le n \le N\}$ denote the *last* hitting time of a. As an exercise, show that L_a is NOT a stopping time.

Theorem 1.2.1. Let $T: \Omega \to \{0, 1, \dots, N\}$ be a stopping time. Then

$$\mathbf{E}[S_T] = 0$$

where $S_T: \Omega \to \mathbb{Z}$ maps $\omega \mapsto S_{T(\omega)}(\omega)$.

Proof.

$$S_T = \sum_{k=1}^N S_k \mathbb{1}\{T = k\} = \sum_{k=1}^N S_k (\mathbb{1}\{T \ge k\} - \mathbb{1}\{T \ge k + 1\})$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^N (S_k - S_{k-1}) \mathbb{1}\{T \ge k\}$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^N X_k \mathbb{1}\{T \ge k\}$$

where we take $\mathbb{1}\{T \geq N+1\} = 0$. Now, we can write $\mathbf{E}[S_T]$ as

$$\mathbf{E}[S_T] = \sum_{k=1}^{N} \mathbf{E}[X_k \mathbb{1}\{T \ge k\}] \tag{\dagger}$$

Observe that for $1 \leq k \leq N$, we have

$$X_k 1 \{ T \ge k \} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{for } X_k = 1, \ T \ge k \\ -1, & \text{for } X_k = -1, \ T \ge k \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

$$\mathbf{E}[X_k \mathbb{1}\{T \ge k\}] = \mathbf{P}(X_k = 1, T \ge k) - \mathbf{P}(X_k = -1, T \ge k)$$
 (††)

Now,

$$\{T \ge k\} = \{T < k\}^c = \left(\bigcup_{l=0}^{k-1} \{T = l\}\right)^c \in \mathcal{A}_{k-1}$$

Using the fact that $\{T \ge k\} \in \mathcal{A}_{k-1}$, one can show that (details left as an exercise)

$$\mathbf{P}(X_k = 1, T \ge k) = \mathbf{P}(X_k = -1, T \ge k) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{P}(T \ge k)$$

Substituting the above values in (†) and (††), we finally have

$$\mathbf{E}[S_T] = 0$$

As an exercise, compute $Var[S_T]$.

Definition 1.2.3. A bet sequence / game system is a sequence of random variables $V_k : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\{V_k = c\} \in \mathcal{A}_{k-1} \text{ for every } c \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and } 1 \le k \le N$$

Theorem 1.2.2. Let $\{V_k\}_{k=1}^N$ be a bet sequence. Then

$$\mathbf{E}[S_N^V] = 0$$
 where $S_N^V = \sum_{k=1}^N V_k X_k$

In this setting, S_N^V is interpreted as the "total gain".

Proof. Since Ω is finite, we may write

Range
$$(V_k) = \{c_i^k : 1 \le i \le m_k\}$$
 where $c_i^k \in \mathbb{R}$

$$V_k = \sum_{i=1}^{m_k} c_i^k \mathbb{1}\{V_k = c_i^k\}$$

Now, since $\mathbf{E}[X_k] = 0$, and since $X_k \perp \mathbb{1}\{V_k = c_i^k\}$, we get

$$\mathbf{E}[S_N^V] = \sum_{k=1}^N \mathbf{E}[V_k X_k] = \sum_{k=1}^N \mathbf{E} \left[X_k \sum_{i=1}^{m_k} c_i^k \mathbb{1} \{ V_k = c_i^k \} \right]$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^{m_k} c_i^k \mathbf{E}[X_k \mathbb{1} \{ V_k = c_i^k \}]$$

$$= \sum_{k=1}^N \sum_{i=1}^{m_k} c_i^k \mathbf{E}[X_k] \mathbf{P}(V_k = c_i^k)$$

$$= 0$$

1.3 Exercises

- 1. Show that $\{X_k\}_{k=1}^N$ are independent.
- 2. Show that $\{S_n\}_{n=0}^N$ satisfies the Markov property.
- 3. For $1 \le k < m \le N$, show that $\mathbf{P}(S_m = b \mid S_k = a) = \mathbf{P}(S_{m-k} = b a)$.
- 4. Show that $\mathbf{E}[S_n^2] = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{E}[X_i^2]$.
- 5. (a) Show that for any $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$P(a \le S_n \le b) \le (b-a) P(S_n \in \{-1, 0, 1\}).$$

(b) Using (a), conclude that

$$\mathbf{P}(a \le S_n \le b) \to 0$$
 as $n \to \infty$.

Thus, we observe that the walk exits any finite interval as $n \to \infty$.

- 6. Verify that each A_n , $0 \le n \le N$, is closed with respect to taking complement, union and intersection.
- 7. For $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, let $\sigma_a = \inf\{n : S_n = a, 0 \le n \le N\}$. Show that σ_a is a stopping time.
- 8. For $a \in \mathbb{Z}$, let $L_a = \max\{n : S_n = a, 0 \le n \le N\}$. Show that L_a is not a stopping time.
- 9. Let $T: \Omega \to \{0, 1, \dots, N\}$ be a stopping time. Compute $Var[S_T]$.
- 10. Show that X_k and $\mathbb{1}\{T \geq k\}$ are independent.

More on random walks

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Theorem 2.0.1. Let $T: \Omega \to 0, 1, \dots, N$ be a stopping time. Then,

$$\mathbf{E}[S_T^2] = E[T].$$

Proof.

$$\begin{split} S_T^2 &= \sum_{k=1}^N S_k^2 \mathbb{1}\{T=k\} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^N (S_k^2 - S_{k-1}^2) \mathbb{1}\{T \ge k\} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^N (X_k + S_{k-1})^2 - S_{k-1}^2 \mathbb{1}\{T \ge k\} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^N (1 + 2X_k S_{k-1}) \mathbb{1}\{T \ge k\}. \end{split}$$

Now, consider $V_k = S_{k-1} \mathbb{1}\{T \ge k\}$. Note that this is a bet sequence. Hence,

$$\mathbf{E}[S_T^2] = \mathbf{E}\left[\sum_{k=1}^N \mathbb{1}\{T \ge k\}\right] + 2\sum_{k=1}^N \mathbf{E}[X_k V_k]$$
$$= \sum_{k=1}^N \mathbf{P}(T \ge k) + 0$$
$$= E[T].$$

2.1 Reflection Principle

Assume that $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and c > 0. There is a bijection between the paths that cross a + c and those that do not. This bijection is obtained by reflecting the part of the path crossing a + c as shown in the Figure 2.1. So,

$$|S_n = a + c| = |\sigma_a \le n \& S_n = a + c| = |\sigma_a \le n \& S_n = a - c|$$

Now, we know that all the paths have equal probability. Hence, we get the following lemma.

Lemma 2.1.1. $\mathbf{P}(S_n = a + c) = \mathbf{P}(\sigma_a \le n \& S_n = a - c)$ where $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ and c > 0. This is also known as the reflection principle.

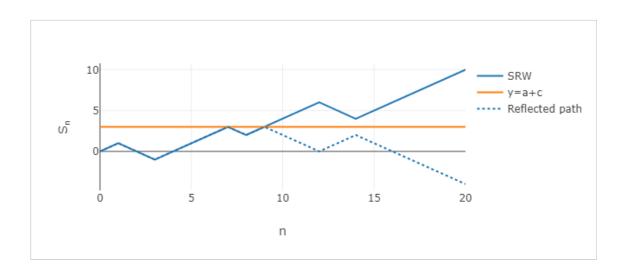


Figure 2.3: The figure shows that the bijection between the paths that cross a+c=3 and those that do not.

Theorem 2.1.1. $\mathbf{P}(\sigma_a \leq n) = \mathbf{P}(S_n \notin [-a, a))$ where $a \in \mathbb{Z}$ $\{0\}$.

Proof.

$$\mathbf{P}(\sigma_a \le n) = \mathbf{P}(\sigma_a \le n, \bigcup_{b \in \mathbb{Z}} S_n = b)$$

$$= \sum_{b \in \mathbb{Z}} \mathbf{P}(\sigma_a \le n, S_n = b)$$

$$= \sum_{b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \ge a} \mathbf{P}(\sigma_a \le n, S_n = b) + \sum_{b \in \mathbb{Z}, b < a} \mathbf{P}(\sigma_a \le n, S_n = b)$$

$$= \sum_{b \in \mathbb{Z}, b \ge a} \mathbf{P}(S_n = b) + \sum_{b \in \mathbb{Z}, b < a} \mathbf{P}(S_n = 2a - b)$$

$$= \mathbf{P}(S_n \ge a) + \mathbf{P}(S_n > a)$$

$$= \mathbf{P}(S_n \ge a) + \mathbf{P}(S_n < -a)$$

$$= \mathbf{P}(S_n \notin [-a, a))$$

Corollary 2.1.1. $P(\sigma_a = n) = \frac{1}{2} [P(S_{n-1} = a - 1) - P(S_{n-1} = a + 1)]$ where $a \in \mathbb{Z}$.

Proof.

2.2 Arc-Sine Law

Let L denote the last time the random walk hits 0, i.e., $L = \max_{0 \le n \le 2N} S_n = 0$, where N denotes the length of the walk.

Theorem 2.2.1.

$$\mathbf{P}(L=2n) = \frac{1}{2^{2N}} \binom{2n}{n} \binom{2N-2n}{N-n}.$$

Remark. By Stirling's approximation,

$$\mathbf{P}(L=2n) \sim \frac{1}{\pi N} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\left(\frac{n}{N}\right)\left(1-\frac{n}{N}\right)}}.$$

$$\mathbf{P}\left(\frac{L}{2N} \le x\right) = \mathbf{P}(L \le 2Nx)$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{[2Nx]} \mathbf{P}(L=2n)$$

$$\sim \sum_{n=0}^{[2Nx]} \frac{1}{\pi N} \frac{1}{\sqrt{(x)(1-x)}}$$

$$\sim \int_{0}^{x} \frac{dy}{pi\sqrt{y(1-y)}}$$

$$= \frac{2}{\pi} \sin^{-1}(\sqrt{x}).$$

Proof of Theorem 2.2.1. Define $\tilde{\sigma_0}$ inf $\{n: S_n = 0, 0 < n \le N\}$. Consider a path of length 2N with L = 2n. This path can be formed by a path which takes $S_2n = 0$ and followed by a path of length 2N - 2n with $\sigma_0 > 2N - 2n$. Hence, number of paths of length 2N with L = 2n is the product of the number of paths of length 2n with 2n wi

$$\mathbf{P}(L=2n) = \mathbf{P}(S_{2n}=0)\mathbf{P}(\tilde{\sigma_0} > 2N-2n), \tag{2.1}$$

Now let us compute the distribution of $\tilde{\sigma}_0$.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}(\tilde{\sigma_0} > 2k) &= \mathbf{P}(S_1 \neq 0, \dots, S_{2k} \neq 0) \\ &= 2\mathbf{P}(S_1 > 0, \dots, S_{2k} > 0) \\ &= \frac{2}{2^{2k}} \{ \text{No. of paths start at 0 and stay above -1 for } 2k - 1 \text{ steps} \} \\ &= \frac{2}{2^{2k}} \{ \text{No. of paths start at 0 and stay below 1 for } 2k - 1 \text{ steps} \} \\ &= \mathbf{P}(\sigma_1 > 2k - 1) \\ &= 1 - \mathbf{P}(\sigma_1 \geq 2k - 1) \\ &= \mathbf{P}(S_{2k-1} = -1) + \mathbf{P}(S_{2k-1} = 0) \\ &= \mathbf{P}(S_{2k-1} = -1) \end{aligned}$$

Using (2.1) and (2.2),

$$\mathbf{P}(L = 2n) = \mathbf{P}(S_{2n} = 0)\mathbf{P}(S_{2N-2n-1} = -1)$$

$$= \mathbf{P}(S_{2n} = 0)\mathbf{P}(S_{2N-2n} = 0)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2^{2N}} \binom{2n}{n} \binom{2N - 2n}{N - n}.$$

The first step analysis of S_{2n} shows that, $\mathbf{P}(S_{2N-2n}=0)=\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{P}(S_{2N-2n-1}=1)+\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{P}(S_{2N-2n-1}=-1)$. Using the symmetry of the walk we know that $\mathbf{P}(S_{2N-2n-1}=1)=\mathbf{P}(S_{2N-2n-1}=-1)$. This gives the second inequality.

2.3 SRW of length N in \mathbb{Z}^d

2.3.1 Notations and notions in higher dimension

• $e_i \in \mathbb{Z}^d$, $\forall i \in \{1, 2, \dots, d\}$, defined as the vector of length d with all entries zeroes except i^{th} being 1.

$$e_i = (0, 0, \cdots, \underbrace{1}_{i^{th}}, 0, \cdots, 0)$$

• For $x \in \mathbb{Z}^d$,

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^{d} x_i e_i, \ x_i \in \mathbb{Z}$$
 $||x|| = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{d} x_i^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$

- $\Omega_N = \{(\omega_1, \omega_2, \cdots, \omega_N) \mid \omega_i \in \mathbb{Z}^d, ||\omega_i|| = 1 \,\forall \, 1 \leq i \leq N\}$
- We have, for $1 \le k, n \le N$

$$X_k: \Omega_N \to \mathbb{Z}^d, X_k(\omega) = \omega_k$$
 $S_n: \Omega_N \to \mathbb{Z}^d, S_n(\omega) = \sum_{k=1}^n X_k(\omega)$

with $S_0(\omega) = 0$. We can consider S_n as a d-dimensional vector given by $S_n = \left(S_n^{(1)}, S_n^{(2)}, \cdots S_n^{(d)}\right)$, where each $S_n^{(i)}$ is a random walk on \mathbb{Z} .

• The probability function \mathbf{P}^N , given by,

$$\mathbf{P}^N : \mathcal{P}(\Omega_N) \to [0, 1], \quad \mathbf{P}(A) = \frac{|A|}{(2d)^N} \, \forall \, A \subseteq \Omega_N$$

2.3.2 Infinite length random walk

On extending $N \to \infty$, we preserve something called as "consistency". First, let us define, for 0 < N < M,

$$\pi_N: \Omega_M \to \Omega_N, \ \pi_N(\omega_1, \omega_2, \cdots, \omega_M) = (\omega_1, \omega_2, \cdots, \omega_N)$$

Under $(\Omega_N, \mathcal{P}(\Omega_N), \mathbf{P}^N)$ and $(\Omega_M, \mathcal{P}(\Omega_M), \mathbf{P}^M)$, if we observe the walk till time n < N the probability of evenets concerning the walk should be same under \mathbf{P}^N or \mathbf{P}^M . For any event $\{\tilde{\omega} \in \Omega_N\}$, there exists a corresponding same event namely $\{\omega \in \Omega_M : \pi_N(\omega) = \tilde{\omega}\}$. We have,

$$\mathbf{P}^{N}(\{\tilde{\omega}\}) = \frac{1}{(2d)^{N}} \qquad \mathbf{P}^{M}(\{\omega \in \Omega_{M} : \pi_{N}(\omega) = \tilde{\omega}\}) = \frac{(2d)^{M-N}}{(2d)^{M}} = \frac{1}{(2d)^{N}}$$

So, we say the sequence of probability spaces $(\Omega_1, \mathbf{P}^1), (\Omega_2, \mathbf{P}^2), \cdots, (\Omega_N, \mathbf{P}^N)$ satisfies the consistency condition

$$\mathbf{P}^{N}(\{\tilde{\omega}\}) = \frac{1}{(2d)^{N}} = \frac{(2d)^{M-N}}{(2d)^{M}} = \mathbf{P}^{M}(\{\omega \in \Omega_{M} : \pi_{N}(\omega) = \tilde{\omega}\}), \ 0 < N < M, \ \tilde{\omega} \in \Omega_{N}$$

We define the space of infinite sequences,

$$\Omega_{\infty} = \{ \omega = (\omega_k) k \ge 1 \mid \omega_k \in \mathbb{Z}^d, \|\omega_k\| = 1 \}$$

 $\mathcal{A}_{\infty} (\equiv \mathcal{P}(\Omega_{\infty}))$ denotes the class of events observable "for ever"

For $N \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$\pi_N: \Omega_\infty \to \Omega_N, \ \pi_N(\omega) = (\omega_1, \omega_2, \cdots, \omega_N)$$

Theorem 2.3.1 (Kolmogorov Consistency Theorem). There exists a unique probability measure on $(\Omega_{\infty}, \mathcal{A}_{\infty})$ such that $\forall N \geq 1, \forall \tilde{\omega} \in \Omega_N$,

$$\mathbf{P}^{N}(\{\tilde{\omega}\}) = \mathbf{P}^{M}(\{\omega \in \Omega_{M} : \pi_{N}(\omega) = \tilde{\omega}\}) = \frac{1}{(2d)^{N}}$$

Now, we can define,

$$X_k: \Omega_\infty \to \mathbb{Z}^d, \ X_k(\omega) = \omega_k$$
 $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n X_k \ \forall \ n \ge 1$

under \mathbf{P} , $\{S_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is a simple random walk starting at $S_0=0$.

Definition 2.3.1. $A \subseteq \Omega_{\infty}$ is said to be **observable** by time n if A is a union of the events of the form

$$\{\omega \in \Omega_{\infty} : \omega_i = o_i, 1 \le i \le N\}$$
 with $o_i \in \mathbb{Z}^d$, $||o_i|| = 1$

For, $k \in \mathbb{N}_0$, \mathcal{A}_k denotes the set of all events in Ω_{∞} observable by time k.

Definition 2.3.2. $T: \Omega_{\infty} \to \mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\} \cup \{0\}$ is a **stopping time** if

for any
$$k \in \mathbb{N}_0$$
, $\{T = k\} \in \mathcal{A}_k$

For example, $\sigma_a = \min\{n \geq 0 \mid S_n = a\}$ is a stopping time.

2.3.3 Speed of the walk

Definition 2.3.3. For, $S_n = \sum_{k=1}^n X_k$, we define speed of the walk as

Speed =
$$\frac{S_n}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n X_k$$

We have, $X_k = \left(X_k^{(1)}, X_k^{(2)}, \cdots, X_k^{(d)}\right), \{X_k\}_{k\geq 1}$ which is an i.i.d sequence of random variables with

$$\mathbf{P}(X_k = e_i) = \frac{1}{2d} = \mathbf{P}(X_k = -e_i)$$

 \Rightarrow $\mathbf{E}[X_k] = 0$ and $\mathbf{E}[\|X_k\|] = 1$ ($\leq \infty$)

Theorem 2.3.2 (Strong law of large numbers). For simple random walk on \mathbb{Z}^d ,

$$\frac{S_n}{n} \to 0$$
 with probability 1 under $(\Omega_\infty, \mathcal{A}_\infty, \mathbf{P})$

2.3.4 Typical position of the walk

For d = 1,

$$\frac{S_n - (n)(0)}{\sqrt{n}} \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \sqrt{n} \left(\frac{S_n}{n}\right) \xrightarrow{d} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

For d > 1, $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and a positive definite matrix $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$, we have d-dimensional normal distribution as,

$$\Phi_{d,\mu,\Sigma}(y) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2}} \frac{1}{\det(\Sigma)^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} (x - \mu)^t \Sigma^{-1} (x - \mu)\right)$$

$$\mathbf{P}\left(\frac{S_n}{\sqrt{n}} \in \prod_{i=1}^d [a_i, b_i]\right) \xrightarrow[n \to \infty]{} \int_{\prod_{i=1}^d [a_i, b_i]} \Phi_{d,0,\Sigma^d}(y) \, dy$$

where, $\mu = 0$, $\Sigma^d = \operatorname{diag}\left(\frac{1}{d}, \dots, \frac{1}{d}\right)$

2.3.5 Large deviation principle

From the CLT, we have that

$$\mathbf{P}(\|S_n\| > a\sqrt{n}) \xrightarrow[n \to \infty]{} \int_{\|x\| > a} \Phi_{d,0,\Sigma^d}(y) \, dy$$

We consider the events of the form $\{||S_n|| > an\}$, $a \in [0, \infty)$, which are "rare" in the sense that their probability tends to 0 as $n \to \infty$. On formal application of CLT shows that probability of these rare events are exponentially small.

Theorem 2.3.3 (Cramer's theorem). For, a > 0,

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \frac{\log(\mathbf{P}(\|S_n\| > an))}{n} = -I(a)$$

where,

$$I(a) = \begin{cases} \log 2 + \frac{1+a}{2} \log \frac{1+a}{2} + \frac{1-a}{2} \log \frac{1-a}{2}, & \text{for } a \in [-1,1] \\ \infty, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

It can be vaguely interpreted as, $\mathbf{P}(\|S_n\|>na)\sim e^{-nI(a)}$

2.4 Exercises

- 1. Complete the proof of Reflection Principle (Lemma 2.1.1).
- 2. Find the distribution of $M_k = \max_{1 \le k \le n} S_k$.
- 3. Show that $\mathbf{E}[||X_k||] = 1$.

Random Walks on Graphs

Lecturer: Siva Athreya Scribe: Abhiti Mishra, Devesh Bajaj

3.1 Introduction

- A random walk on a graph is basically a reversible Markov chain on the graph.
- many results of random walks will hold true for general markov chains but we will not go into
 it
- we will study some of the geometric properties of the Graph which translate to different properties of the Random walks

 $\Gamma = (V, E)$

 $V \equiv \text{Vertex set} = \text{finite or countably infinite set.}$

 $E \equiv \text{Edge set} = E \subset \mathcal{P}(V) = \{\{x, y\} : |x, y \in V, x \neq y\}.$

(No self loops, No multiple edges)

- 1. $x \in V; y \in V$ is a neighbour of x in $\{x, y\} \in E$ $(x \sim y)$
- 2. A path $\gamma \in \Gamma$ is any sequence $\{x_i\}_{i=0}^n$ such that $x_{i-1} \sim x_i$ in Γ for some $n \geq 1, x_i \in V, 1 \leq i \leq n$
 - • γ is a loop if $x_0 = x_n$
 - • γ is self avoiding if $x_i \neq x_j \ \forall i \neq j$.
- 3. "chemical metric" $d: V \times V \longrightarrow [0, \infty) \bigcup \{\infty\}$ d(x, x) = 0,

$$d(x,y) = \begin{cases} \text{length of smallest path from x to y} \\ \infty \text{ if no path exixts} \end{cases}$$

- 4. Γ is connected if $d(x,y) < \infty, \forall x,y \in V$ (H1 property)
- 5. Γ is locally finite if $\forall x \in V$, $N(x) = \{y \in V | y \sim x\} \Rightarrow |N(x)| < \infty$ (H2 property)
- 6. we say Γ has a bounded geometry if $\sup_{x\in V} |N(x)| < \infty$ (H3 property)

Definition 3.1.1. $\forall x, y \in V$, we assume that thre is a weight μ_{xy} such that:

- 1. $\mu_{xy} = \mu_{yx}$
- 2. $\mu_{xy} \ge 0$
- 3. if $x \neq y$ then, $\mu_{xy} > 0 \Leftrightarrow x \sim y$

we will call (Γ, μ) a weighted graph.

Using property 3 above, $E = \{\{x, y\} | x, y \in V, \mu_{xy} > 0, x \neq y\}$

Definition 3.1.2. (Γ, μ) has bounded weights if $\exists C_1, C_2 > 0$ such that $C_1 < \mu_{xy} \leq C_2 \ \forall x, y \in V, x \neq y$. This is called the **(H4 Property)**.

Definition 3.1.3. (Γ, μ) has controlled weights if $\exists c > 0$ such that $\frac{\mu_{xy}}{\mu_x} \ge c^{-1} \ \forall x, y \in V, x \ne y$. This is called the **(H5 Property)**.

Define for $x \in V$: $\mu_x = \sum_{y \sim x} \mu_{xy}$

Definition 3.1.4. Natural weights:

$$\mu_{xy} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \sim y \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Lemma 3.1.1. Suppose (Γ, μ) is a weighted graph then,

- 1. (H3), (H5) holds.
- 2. $\forall x \in V, n > 0$, $B(x, n) = \{y \in V | d(x, y) \le n\}$ (balls are not exponentially large)
- 3. $\forall x \in V, n \ge 0, \mu(B(x,n)) = \sum_{y \in B(x,n)} \mu_y \le 2\mu_x(c_2)^n$ (Balls have bounded weights)

Proof. 1. Take $x \in V$.

$$N(x) = c \sum_{y \in V} \frac{1}{c} 1_{\{x \sim y\}}$$

$$\leq c \sum_{y \in V} \frac{\mu_{xy}}{\mu_x} 1_{\{x \sim y\}}$$

$$= c \frac{1}{\mu_x} \sum_{y \in V} \mu_{xy} = c$$

2. $S(x,n) = \{y \in V | d(x,y) = n\}$

$$|S(x,n)| \le c|S(x,n-1)| \quad \forall \ n \ge 1$$

Arguing inductively,

$$|B(x,n)| = \sum_{k=0}^{n} |S(x,k)|$$

$$\leq \sum_{k=0}^{n} c^k$$

$$= \frac{c^{n+1} - 1}{c - 1} \leq 2c^n$$

3. n = 1.

$$\mu(B(x,1)) = \mu_x + \sum_{y \sim x} \mu_y$$

$$\leq c \sum_{y \sim x} \mu_{xy} + \mu_x$$

$$= c\mu_x + \mu_x$$

Second step follows from the H5 assumption.

We also note

$$\mu(B(x,2)) = \sum_{y \in B(x,2)} \mu_y = \mu(B(x,1)) + \sum_{y \sim x} \sum_{z \sim y} \mu_z$$

Therefore

$$\mu(B(x,2)) \le \mu_x + c\mu_x + \sum_{y \sim x} c \sum_{z \sim y} \mu_{zy}$$
$$= \mu_x + c\mu_x c \sum_{y \sim x} \mu_y$$
$$\le \mu_x + c\mu_x + c^2 \mu_x$$

Example. $V = \mathbb{Z}^d$. Take $x, y \in V, |x - y| = \sum_{i=1}^d |x_i - y_i|$ $E = \{(x, y) | |x - y| = 1\}$. $\mu_{xy} = 1$ whenever $(x, y) \in E$. $N(x) = 2d \ \forall x \in V$ $|B(x, n)| \sim n^d \leq 2c^n \ \forall c \geq 2$.

Example. Rooted Binary Tree- Let the root be $B_0 = \{\rho\}$. $\forall \ n \ge 1, B_n = \{0, 1\}^n$

$$V = \cup_{n=1}^{\infty} B_n \cup \{\rho\}$$

For $x \in B_n, n \ge 2, x = (x_1, \dots, x_n), x_i \in \{0, 1\}.$ Let the parent of x be- $\alpha(x) = (x_1, \dots, x_{n-1})$

For $n = 1, x \in B_1, \alpha(x) = \rho$

$$E = \{(x, \alpha(x)) | x \in V, x \notin B_0\}$$
$$|N(\rho)| = 2, |N(x)| = 3 \quad \forall x \notin B_0$$

Canopy Tree

$$\overline{V} = \{x \in V | x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \text{ and } x_i = 0 \ \forall \ 1 \le i \le n \text{ for some } n \ge 1\} \cup \{\rho\}$$

f(x) is the element in \bar{V} closest to x. V_{canopy} is a subset of V such that-

$$V_{canopy} = \{ x \in V | d(x, f(x)) \le d(\rho, f(x)) \}$$

Observe that in the canopy tree, there is only one self-avoiding path to infinity, but the size of the balls $B(\rho, n)$ still grows exponentially. It shows that one does not need too many paths to infinity for the size of your graph to grow exponentially. Denoted by \mathbb{T}^2_{canopy}

3.2 Random Walks on Weighted Graphs

(This section will be done as a discrete time reversible Markov Chain)

Formally, X_n jumps from $x \sim y_i$ with probability proportional to μ_{xy_i} . It stays at x with probability proportional to μ_{xx} .

Our graph is denoted by $\Gamma = (V, E)$. We assume there are no isolated edges that is $\{\mu_x \neq 0 \ \forall x \in V\}$. Also assume H(1) and H(2).

$$\Omega = \{ f : \mathbb{N} \cup \{0\} \to V \} \equiv V^{\mathbb{N} \cup \{0\}}$$

 $\forall n \geq 0, X_n : \Omega \to V \text{ where } X_n(\omega) = \omega(n)$

Let $A_n \equiv$ observable events upto time n (all events that can be derived from X_1, \ldots, X_n). This will be a filtration.

$$\mathcal{F} \equiv \cup_{n>1} \ \mathcal{A}_n$$

Set $\mathcal{P}(x,y) = \frac{\mu_{xy}}{\mu_x} \quad \forall x, y \in V$.

 $\forall x \in V$, there exists a unique $\mathcal{P}^x(.)$ on (Ω, \mathcal{F}) .

(Existence can be shown using Kolmogorov consistency theorem).

 $\forall n \geq 1$

$$\mathbb{P}^{x}(X_{n}=x_{n},X_{n-1}=x_{n-1},\ldots,X_{0}=x_{0})=1_{\{x\}}(x_{0})\prod_{i=1}^{n}P(x_{n},x_{n-1})$$

$$\mathbb{P}^{x}(X_{1} = y) = \mathbb{P}^{x}(X_{1} = y, \cup_{z \in V} X_{0} = z)$$

$$= \sum_{z \in V} \mathbb{P}^{x}(X_{1} = y, X_{0} = z)$$

$$= \sum_{z \in V} \mathcal{P}(y, z) 1_{\{x\}}(z)$$

$$= \mathcal{P}(y, x)$$

One-step transition probability-

$$\mathbb{P}(X_n = y | X_{n-1} = z) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(X_n = y, X_{n-1} = z)}{\mathbb{P}(X_{n-1} = z)} = \mathcal{P}(y, z)$$

The last equality is left as an exercise.

Reversibility-

$$\mu_x \mathcal{P}(x, y) = \mu_x \frac{\mu_{xy}}{\mu_x} = \mu y x = \mu_y \mathcal{P}(y, x)$$

 (X_n, \mathcal{P}) markov chain is symmetric with repsect to $\{\mu_x\}_{x\in V}$

Lemma 3.2.1. Let $x_0, ..., x_n \in V$

$$\mu_{x_0} \mathbb{P}^{x_0}(X_n = x_n, \dots, X_0 = x_0) = \mu_{x_n} \mathbb{P}^{x_n}(X_n = x_0, \dots, X_0 = x_n)$$

The above shows the reversibility of the markov chain wrt μ .

Proof.

$$\mu_{x_0} \mathbb{P}^{x_0}(X_n = x_n, \dots, X_0 = x_0) = \mu_{x_0} \prod_{i=1}^n \mathcal{P}(x_i, x_{i-1})$$

$$= \mu_{x_0} \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{\mu_{x_i, x_{i-1}}}{\mu_{x_{i-1}}}$$

$$= \mu_{x_n} \prod_{i=1}^n \frac{\mu_{x_{n-i}, x_{n-i+1}}}{\mu_{x_{n-i+1}}}$$

$$= \mu_{x_n} \mathbb{P}^{x_n}(X_n = x_0, \dots, X_0 = x_n)$$

Remark. If $\mu(V) = \sum_{x \in V} \mu_x = 1$ and $\mu(A) = \sum_{x \in A}$, then μ is the reversible distribution for $\{X_n\}_{n \geq 0}$ that is

$$\mu_x \mathcal{P}(x, y) = \mu_y \mathcal{P}(y, x)$$

Hence $\{\mu_x\}_{x\in V}$ is the stationary distribution.

Definition 3.2.1. $A \subseteq V$. The hitting time of A be given by

$$T_A = \min\{n \ge 0 | X_n \in A\}$$

By convention, $T_A = \infty$ iff X_n does not visit A.

Definition 3.2.2. The return time of A is defined as -

$$T_A^+ = \min\{n \ge 1 | X_n \in A\}$$

Note that $X_0 \notin A \implies T_A^+ = T_A$

Definition 3.2.3. The exit time of A is-

$$au_A = T_{A^c}$$

Theorem 3.2.1. Let Γ be H(1) and H(2) and $|V| = \infty$. Then TFAE-

- 1. $\exists x \in V \text{ such that } \mathbb{P}^x(\tau_x^+ < \infty) < 1$
- 2. $\forall x \in V, \mathbb{P}^x(\tau_x^+ < \infty) < 1$
- 3. $\forall x \in V, \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}^x (X_n = x) < \infty$
- 4. $\forall x, y \in V, \mathbb{P}^x(\tau_y < \infty) < 1$
- 5. $\mathbb{P}^x(\sum_{n>0} 1_{\{X_n=x\}} < \infty) = 1 \quad \forall x, y \in V$

If the above is satisfied, the Markov Chain is transient.

Theorem 3.2.2. Let Γ be H(1) and H(2) and $|V| = \infty$. Then TFAE-

- 1. $\exists x \in V \text{ such that } \mathbb{P}^x(\tau_x^+ < \infty) = 1$
- 2. $\forall x \in V, \mathbb{P}^x(\tau_r^+ < \infty) = 1$
- 3. $\forall x \in V, \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}^x (X_n = x) = \infty$
- 4. $\forall x, y \in V, \mathbb{P}^x(\tau_y < \infty) = 1$
- 5. $\mathbb{P}^x(\sum_{n>0} 1_{\{X_n=x\}} = \infty) = 1 \quad \forall x, y \in V$

If the above is satisfied, the Markov Chain is recurrent.

Definition 3.2.4. If $\{X_n\}_{n\geq 0}$ random walk on (Γ, μ) satisfies

- 1. any statement of theorem 1.6, the graph (Γ, μ) is transient.
- 2. any statement of theorem 1.7, the graph (Γ, μ) is recurrent.

3.3 Exercises

- 1. Show that $H_3, H_4 \Rightarrow H_5$
- 2. When is (Γ, μ) transient or recurrent? Partial answer- When $|V| < \infty$, (Γ, μ) is recurrent.
- 3. **Kesten Problem-** G is a finitely generated group with generating set A. Look at the Cayley graph of G. Which groups provide transient graphs?

Week 4

January 27, 2023

Discrete Time Martingales

Lecturer: Siva Athreya Scribe: Abhiti Mishra, Devesh Bajaj

Origin is from horse-racing (betting system). The dictionary meaning of the word 'martingale' is the harness of a horse.

Let $\{Z_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is a sequence of random variables on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$.

Definition 4.0.1. A sequence of random variables $\{Z_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is said to be a Martingale if

$$\mathbb{E}(Z_n|Z_{n-1}=z_{n-1},\dots,Z_1=z_1)=z_{n-1} \ \forall \ n\geq 2$$
(4.3)

Things to understand- conditional expectation for discrete and conditional r.v. Reference- Ch6 of Siva's book.

Things we will explore-

- 1. Examples of $\{Z_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ that are martingales.
- 2. How different are martingales from iid sequences and markov chains?
- 3. How to interpret 4.3?

Example. $\{S_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ and $S_0\equiv 0$.

$$X_i = \begin{cases} 1, & w.p \ 1/2 \\ -1, & w.p \ 1/2 \end{cases}$$

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

Let
$$s_{n-1}, s_{n-2}, \ldots, s_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$$
 such that $\mathbb{P}(S_{n-1} = s_{n-1}, \ldots, S_1 = s_1) > 0$

$$\mathbb{E}(S_n|S_{n-1} = s_{n-1}, \dots, S_1 = s_1) = \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} k \mathbb{P}(S_n = k|S_{n-1} = s_{n-1}, \dots, S_1 = s_1)$$

$$= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} k \frac{\mathbb{P}(S_n = k, S_{n-1} = s_{n-1}, \dots, S_1 = s_1)}{\mathbb{P}(S_{n-1} = s_{n-1}, \dots, S_1 = s_1)}$$

$$= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} k \frac{\mathbb{P}(S_{n-1} + X_n = k, S_{n-1} = s_{n-1}, \dots, S_1 = s_1)}{\mathbb{P}(S_{n-1} = s_{n-1}, \dots, S_1 = s_1)}$$

$$= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} k \frac{\mathbb{P}(X_n = k - s_{n-1}, S_{n-1} = s_{n-1}, \dots, S_1 = s_1)}{\mathbb{P}(S_{n-1} = s_{n-1}, \dots, S_1 = s_1)}$$

$$= \sum_{k \in \mathbb{Z}} k \frac{\mathbb{P}(X_n = k - s_{n-1}) \mathbb{P}(S_{n-1} = s_{n-1}, \dots, S_1 = s_1)}{\mathbb{P}(S_{n-1} = s_{n-1}, \dots, S_1 = s_1)}$$

$$= (s_{n-1} + 1) \mathbb{P}(X_n = -1) + (s_{n-1} - 1) \mathbb{P}(X_n = 1)$$

$$= (s_{n-1} + 1) \frac{1}{2} + (s_{n-1} - 1) \frac{1}{2} = s_{n-1}$$

Note that the summations here are "finite" sums.

As $s_{n-1}, \ldots, s_1 \in \mathbb{Z}$ were arbitrary, $\{S_n\}_{n>1}$ is a martingale.

Example. $\{X_i\}_{i\geq 1}$ be an iid sequence on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Let $Z_n = \prod_{i=1}^n X_i$ and Range $(Z_n) \subset \mathbb{R} \ \forall \ n \geq 1$.

Let $z_{n-1}, \ldots, z_1 \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\mathbb{P}(Z_{n-1} = z_{n-1}, \ldots, Z_1 = z_1) > 0$. Then

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}(Z_n|Z_{n-1} = z_{n-1}, \dots, Z_1 = z_1) &= \sum_{k \in Range(Z_n)} k \mathbb{P}(Z_n = k|Z_{n-1} = z_{n-1}, \dots, Z_1 = z_1) \\ &= \sum_{k \in Range(Z_n)} k \frac{\mathbb{P}(Z_n = k, Z_{n-1} = z_{n-1}, \dots, Z_1 = z_1)}{\mathbb{P}(Z_{n-1} = z_{n-1}, \dots, Z_1 = z_1)} \\ &= \sum_{k \in Range(Z_n)} k \frac{\mathbb{P}(Z_{n-1}X_n = k, Z_{n-1} = z_{n-1}, \dots, Z_1 = z_1)}{\mathbb{P}(Z_{n-1} = z_{n-1}, \dots, Z_1 = z_1)} \\ &= \sum_{k \in Range(Z_n)} k \frac{\mathbb{P}(z_{n-1}X_n = k, Z_{n-1} = z_{n-1}, \dots, Z_1 = z_1)}{\mathbb{P}(Z_{n-1} = z_{n-1}, \dots, Z_1 = z_1)} \\ &= \sum_{k \in Range(Z_n)} k \mathbb{P}(Z_{n-1}X_n = k) \frac{\mathbb{P}(Z_{n-1} = z_{n-1}, \dots, Z_1 = z_1)}{\mathbb{P}(Z_{n-1} = z_{n-1}, \dots, Z_1 = z_1)} \\ &= \sum_{u \in S^1, Range(X_n) = S^1} u z_{n-1} \mathbb{P}(X_n = u) \\ &= z_{n-1} \mathbb{E}[X_n] = z_{n-1} \end{split}$$

Note that the sums here might be infinite. In the last step we assume $\mathbb{E}[X_i] = 1$. Now since $\{z_i\}_{i=1}^{n-1}$ were arbitrary, $\{Z_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ is a martingale.

Example.

$$X_i = \begin{cases} 2, & w.p \ 1/2 \\ 0, & w.p \ 1/2 \end{cases}$$

Then $\mathbb{E}(X_i) = 1$. Therefore, $Z_n = \prod_{i=1}^n X_i$ is a martingale. Range $(Z_n) = \{2^n, 0\}$. Note that the mean stays constant and

$$\mathbb{P}(Z_n=0)=1-\frac{1}{2^n}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(Z_n = 2^n) = \frac{1}{2^n}$$

Intuition- The first equation shows that the martingale takes a very low value with very high probability and the second one shows that it takes a very large value with very low probability Idea behind Markov Chains -

$$X_n | X_{n-1}, \dots, X_1 \stackrel{d}{=} X_n | X_{n-1}$$

Idea behind Martingales - Expected value of Z_n conditioned on the past depends only on Z_{n-1} . $\{Z_n\}_{n\geq 1}$ in law could depend on the entire past!