## 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  $\Omega_N$  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  $\Omega_N$  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.

 $<sup>^{\</sup>dagger}$  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.

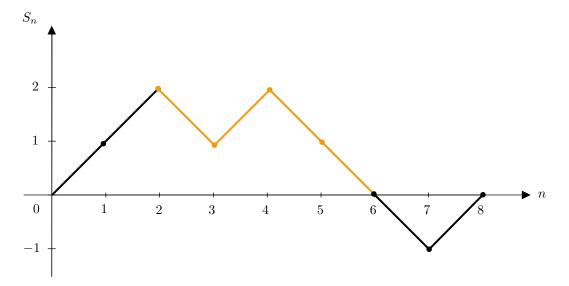


Figure 1.2: Independent (colored) increments in a simple random walk

(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  $\sigma_a$  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  $\Omega$  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  $\sigma_a$  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.

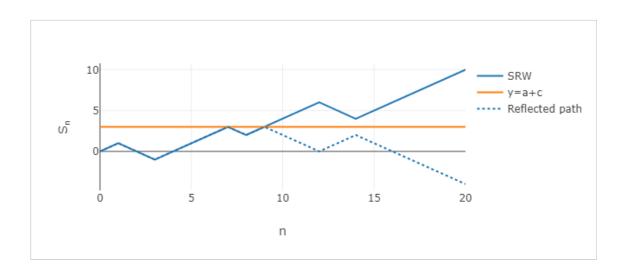


Figure 2.3: The figure shows that the bijection between the paths that cross a+c=3 and those that do not.

**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  $\Omega_{\infty}$  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  $\Gamma$  for some  $n \geq 1, x_i \in V, 1 \leq i \leq n$ 
  - • $\gamma$  is a loop if  $x_0 = x_n$
  - • $\gamma$  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.  $\Gamma$  is connected if  $d(x,y) < \infty, \forall x,y \in V$  (H1 property)
- 5.  $\Gamma$  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  $\Gamma$  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  $\mu_{xy}$  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  $(\Gamma, \mu)$  a weighted graph.

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

**Definition 3.1.2.**  $(\Gamma, \mu)$  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.**  $(\Gamma, \mu)$  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  $(\Gamma, \mu)$  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  $B_0 = \{\rho\}$ .  $\forall \ n \ge 1, B_n = \{0, 1\}^n$ 

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

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  $\mu_{xy_i}$ . It stays at x with probability proportional to  $\mu_{xx}$ .

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  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ .

(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  $\mu$ .

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  $\mu$  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  $\Gamma$  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  $\Gamma$  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  $(\Gamma, \mu)$  satisfies

- 1. any statement of theorem 1.6, the graph  $(\Gamma, \mu)$  is transient.
- 2. any statement of theorem 1.7, the graph  $(\Gamma, \mu)$  is recurrent.

### 3.3 Exercises

- 1. Show that  $H_3, H_4 \Rightarrow H_5$
- 2. When is  $(\Gamma, \mu)$  transient or recurrent? Partial answer- When  $|V| < \infty$ ,  $(\Gamma, \mu)$  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 random variable [1]. 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!

# **Bibliography**

[1] Siva Athreya, Deepayan Sarkar, and Steve Tanner. *Probability and Statistics with Examples using R.* 2016. Unfinished Book, Last Compilation April 25th 2016, available at http://www.isibang.ac.in/~athreya/psweur/index.html.