# MS-C2111 Stochastic Processes



Lecture 6
Branching processes

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Branching processes

Probability generating functions

Distribution of the number of children

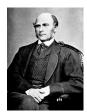
Expected population size

Extinction probability

# Galton's problem

PROBLEM 4001: A large nation, of whom we will only concern ourselves with the adult males, N in number, and who each bear separate surnames, colonise a district. Their law of population is such that, in each generation,  $p_0$  per cent of the adult males have no male children who reach adult life;  $p_1$  have one such male child;  $p_2$  have two; and so on up to  $p_5$  who have five.

Find what proportion of the surnames will have become extinct after *t* generations.



Sir Francis Galton (1822–1911)

F Galton, Educational Times 1873.

H W Watson & F Galton. The Journal of the Anthropological Institute of Great Britain and Ireland 1875.

I-J Bienaymé. Soc. Philomat. Paris Extraits 1845.

# **Applications**

- COVID-19, future epidemics
- Online social media, block chains
- Biology (bacteria, cell division, ecology)
   https://www.biointeractive.org/classroom-resources/bacterial-growth
- Particle physics

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# Branching process

Everyone in generation t independently produces a random number of children, and these children will form the next generation t+1

•  $X_t$  = size of generation t = 0, 1, ...

### Model parameters:

- Initial state  $X_0$  (or initial distribution  $\mu_0$ )
- Offspring distribution  $(p_0, p_1, \dots)$  where  $p_k$  is the probability of producing k children

The random sequence  $(X_0, X_1, \dots)$  is called a Galton–Watson process

# Markov property

Because every individual in generation t produces children independently of others,

$$\mathbb{P}(X_{t+1} = j \mid X_t = i, X_{t-1} = i_{t-1}, \dots, X_0 = i_0)$$
  
=  $\mathbb{P}(X_{t+1} = j \mid X_t = i)$ 

- $(X_0, X_1, \dots)$  is hence a Markov chain on state space  $\mathbb{Z}_+$
- The transition matrix  $P: \mathbb{Z}_+ \times \mathbb{Z}_+ \to [0,1]$  has entries

$$P(i,j) = P(X_{t+1} = j | X_t = i) = P(Y_1 + \cdots Y_i = j),$$

where  $Y_1, Y_2, \ldots$  are independent and  $(p_k)$ -distributed random numbers representing the children counts of individuals in generation t

### Transition matrix

$$P(i,j) = \mathbb{P}(Y_1 + \cdots Y_i = j)$$

- P(0,j) = 0 for  $j \ge 1$  and P(0,0) = 1
- $P(1,j) = \mathbb{P}(Y_1 = j) = p_j$

$$P(2,j) = \mathbb{P}(Y_1 + Y_2 = j) = \sum_{i=0}^{J} \mathbb{P}(Y_1 = i, Y_1 + Y_2 = j)$$

$$= \sum_{i=0}^{J} \mathbb{P}(Y_1 = i, Y_2 = j - i) = \sum_{i=0}^{J} p_i p_{j-i}$$

• P(3,j) = ...

# Number of grandchildren

What is the number of grandchildren of a particular individual?

The descendants of an individual form a branching process with initial state  $X_0 = 1$ .

• The number of children  $X_1$  is distributed as

$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 = k | X_0 = 1) = P(1, k) = p_k$$

• The number of grandchildren  $X_2$  is distributed as

$$\mathbb{P}(X_2 = k | X_0 = 1) = P^2(1, k)$$

More generally, the number of descendants in the t-th generation is  $X_t$  is distributed as

$$\mathbb{P}(X_t = k | X_0 = 1) = P^t(1, k)$$

# ... Number of grandchildren

How do we compute the distribution of grandchildren  $k \mapsto P^2(1, k)$  from the offspring distribution  $(p_k)$ ?

- P is infinite so we cannot directly compute  $P^2$  using a computer
- Sums of independent random variables are easy to treat using generating functions

### Generating functions

- Characteristic function  $s \mapsto \mathbb{E}e^{isY}$
- Moment generating function  $s\mapsto \mathbb{E} e^{sY}$
- Cumulant generating function  $s \mapsto \log \mathbb{E} e^{sY}$
- Probability generating function  $s \mapsto \mathbb{E} s^Y$

When  $Y \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ , then  $s \mapsto \mathbb{E} s^Y$  is usually the most convenient.

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# Probability generating function

The probability generating function (pgf) of  $Y \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  is defined by

$$\phi_{Y}(s) = \mathbb{E}s^{Y} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} s^{k} \mathbb{P}(Y = k)$$

for those s where the sum on the right converges.

#### Note

•  $\phi_Y(s)$  is defined for all  $s \in [-1,1]$  because

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |s|^k \mathbb{P}(Y=k) \leq \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(Y=k) = 1 < \infty.$$

- Y and Y' have the same law  $\implies Y$  and Y' have the same pgf
- ullet Y and Y' have the same pgf  $\Longrightarrow Y$  and Y' have the same law

# Probability generating function — properties

$$\phi_{Y}(s) = \mathbb{E}s^{Y} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} s^{k} \mathbb{P}(Y = k)$$

For every random integer  $Y \in \mathbb{Z}_+$ :

- $\phi_Y$  is continuous, nondecreasing, and convex on [0,1].
- $\phi_Y(0) = \mathbb{P}(Y = 0)$  and  $\phi_Y(1) = 1$ .
- $\mathbb{P}(Y=k) = \phi_Y^{(k)}(0)/k!$  for all  $k \in \mathbb{Z}_+$

If  $\phi_Y(r)$  exists for some r > 1:

- $\phi_Y$  is infinitely differentiable on (-r, r)
- $\mathbb{E}Y^k < \infty$  for all  $k = 1, 2, \dots$
- $\phi'_{\mathsf{Y}}(1) = \mathbb{E}Y$
- $\phi_{\mathbf{Y}}''(1) = \mathbb{E}Y^2 \mathbb{E}Y$
- $\operatorname{var}(Y) = \mathbb{E}Y^2 (\mathbb{E}Y)^2 = \phi_Y''(1) + \phi_Y'(1) \phi_Y'(1)^2$

# Pgf of a sum

#### **Theorem**

Let  $Y = \sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_i$  where the random summands  $Y_1, \dots, Y_n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  are independent. Then for all  $s \in [-1, 1]$ ,

$$\phi_{Y}(s) = \phi_{Y_1}(s) \cdots \phi_{Y_n}(s).$$

### Proof.

By independence,

$$\phi_{Y}(s) = \mathbb{E}s^{Y} = \mathbb{E}(s^{Y_{1}} \cdots s^{Y_{n}}) = \mathbb{E}(s^{Y_{1}}) \cdots \mathbb{E}(s^{Y_{n}}) = \phi_{Y_{1}}(s) \cdots \phi_{Y_{n}}(s).$$

#### Note

If  $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$  are IID,

$$\phi_{Y}(s) = \phi_{Y_1}(s)^n$$



# Pgf of a sum — random sum index

What happens when the sum index N is random?

### Theorem

Let  $Y = \sum_{i=1}^{N} Y_i$ , where  $N, Y_1, Y_2, \dots \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  are independent and the summands  $Y_1, Y_2, \dots$  are identically distributed. Then for all  $s \in [-1, 1]$ ,

$$\phi_{Y}(s) = \phi_{N}(\phi_{Y_{1}}(s)).$$

# Pgf of a sum — random sum index

#### Proof.

By conditioning on N we find that

$$\phi_{Y}(s) = \mathbb{E}\left(s^{\sum_{i=1}^{N} Y_{i}}\right)$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{E}\left(s^{\sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_{i}} \mid N = n\right) \mathbb{P}(N = n)$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{E}\left(s^{\sum_{i=1}^{n} Y_{i}}\right) \mathbb{P}(N = n)$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left(\mathbb{E}s^{Y_{1}}\right)^{n} \mathbb{P}(N = n)$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \phi_{Y_{1}}(s)^{n} \mathbb{P}(N = n)$$

$$= \phi_{N}(\phi_{Y_{1}}(s)).$$

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# Transition matrix of a branching process

#### **Theorem**

The entries of the transition matrix on row i satisfy

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} P(i,j) s^{j} = \phi(s)^{i}$$

where  $\phi(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} p_k s^k$  is the pgf of the offspring distribution  $(p_k)$ .

### Note

- P(i,j) is hence the j-th term of the power series of  $\phi(s)^i$
- P(i,j) is obtained by differentiating  $\phi(s)^i$  j times at zero:

$$P(i,j) = \frac{\left[ \left( \frac{d}{ds} \right)^j \phi(s)^i \right]_{s=0}}{j!}$$

# Transition matrix of a branching process

#### Proof.

The (i,j)-entry of the transition matrix can be written as

$$P(i,j) = \mathbb{P}(S=j),$$

where  $S = Y_1 + \cdots + Y_i$  is the sum of independent  $(p_k)$ -distributed random numbers and  $Y_i$  represents the number of children of individual i in generation zero.

Hence

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} P(i,j) s^{j} = \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} s^{j} \mathbb{P}(S=j) = \phi_{S}(s) = \phi_{Y_{1}}(s)^{i} = \phi(s)^{i}.$$



# Example

Initially there are two individuals, each producing 3 children with probability a=0.1 and 0 children otherwise. What is the probability that the next generation contains 6 individuals?

The pgf  $\phi(s)$  of the offspring distribution satisfies

$$\phi(s) = (1-a) + as^3,$$
  
$$\phi^2(s) = (1-a)^2 + 2(1-a)as^3 + a^2s^6.$$

By the previous theorem,

$$\sum_{j=0}^{\infty} P(2,j)s^{j} = (1-a)^{2} + 2(1-a)as^{3} + a^{2}s^{6},$$

so that 
$$\mathbb{P}(X_1 = 6 \mid X_0 = 2) = P(2, 6) = a^2 = 0.01$$
.

# Number of grandchildren

The descendants of any particular individuals form a branching process with  $X_0 = 1$ .

- Number of children  $X_1$ :  $\mathbb{P}(X_1 = k) = P(1, k) = p_k$
- Number of grandchildren  $X_2$ :  $\mathbb{P}(X_2 = k) = P^2(1, k) = ?$

The number of grandchildren can be represented as

$$X_2 = \sum_{i=1}^{X_1} Y_i,$$

where  $X_1, Y_1, Y_2, \ldots$  are IID and  $(p_k)$ -distributed. Hence the pgf of  $X_2$  is

$$\phi_{X_2}(s) = \phi_{X_1}(\phi_{Y_1}(s)) = \phi(\phi(s)).$$

### Example

Initially there are two individuals, each producing 3 children with probability a=0.1 and 0 children otherwise. What is the probability that one of the initial individuals gets 6 grandchildren?

The pgf of the offspring distribution  $\phi(s)=(1-a)+as^3$  satisfies

$$\phi(\phi(s)) = (1-a) + a\phi(s)^3$$
  
=  $(1-a) + a(1-a)^3 + 3a^2(1-a)^2s^3 + 3a^3(1-a)s^6 + a^4s^9$ .

By the previous slide,

$$\phi_{X_2}(s) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P^2(1,k) s^k = \phi(\phi(s)),$$

so that  $\mathbb{P}(X_2 = 6 \mid X_0 = 1) = P^2(1,6) = 3a^3(1-a) = 0.0027$ .

# Number of descendants in t-th generation

#### **Theorem**

The pgf of the size of generation t for a branching process starting with  $X_0=1$  is

$$\phi_{X_t}(s) = (\underbrace{\phi \circ \cdots \circ \phi}_t)(s).$$

### Proof.

The size of generation t+1 can be written as  $X_{t+1} = \sum_{i=1}^{X_t} Y_i$ , where  $X_t, Y_1, Y_2, \ldots$  are independent and  $Y_1, Y_2, \ldots$  are  $(p_k)$ -distributed. Hence

$$\phi_{X_{t+1}}(s) = \phi_{X_t}(\phi_{Y_1}(s)) = \phi_{X_t}(\phi(s)).$$

The claim follows by induction (case t = 1 is clearly OK).

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# Expected population size

#### **Theorem**

A branching process with initial state  $X_0 = i$  satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}_i(X_t)=im^t,\quad t=0,1,2,\ldots,$$

where  $\mathbf{m} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} k p_k$  is the mean of the offspring distribution.

### Note

- If m < 1, then  $\mathbb{E} X_t \to 0$  exponentially fast.
- If m = 1, then  $\mathbb{E}X_t = i$  for all t.
- If m > 1, then  $\mathbb{E}X_t \to \infty$  exponentially fast.

**Infectious diseases**: Basic reproduction number  $R_0$  = Average number of infections caused by a typical infected individual during early stage of outbreak.

#### Proof.

The size of generation t + 1 can be written as

$$X_{t+1} = \sum_{i=1}^{X_t} Y_i,$$

where  $X_t, Y_1, Y_2,...$  are independent and  $Y_1, Y_2,...$  are  $(p_k)$ -distributed. By conditioning on  $X_t$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}X_{t+1} = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(X_t = k) \mathbb{E}(X_{t+1} | X_t = k)$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(X_t = k) \mathbb{E}(\sum_{i=1}^{k} Y_i)$$

$$= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(X_t = k) km = m \mathbb{E}X_t.$$

Induction  $\Longrightarrow \mathbb{E}X_t = m^t \mathbb{E}X_0 = im^t$ .

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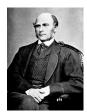
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Find what proportion of the surnames will have become extinct after *t* generations.



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### Extinction in finite time horizon

What is the probability that an individual in generation 0 has no descendants in generation t?

Because the descendants form a branching process  $(X_t)$  with initial state  $X_0 = 1$ , this probability is

$$\eta_t = \mathbb{P}(X_t = 0) = P^t(1, 0).$$

#### Recall that

- $\mathbb{P}(X_t=0)$  is the constant term in the power series of  $\phi_{X_t}(0)$
- The number of descendants in the t-th generation has pgf  $\phi_{X_t}(s) = (\underbrace{\phi \circ \cdots \circ \phi}_{t})(s)$ .

The probabilities  $\eta_t$  are obtained recursively from

- $\eta_1 = \phi(0)$ ,
- $\eta_2 = \phi(\phi(0)) = \phi(\eta_1), \ldots$
- $\eta_{t+1} = \phi(\eta_t)$  for all  $t \geq 0$ .

# Extinction eventually

Is it possible for an individual to have infinitely many descendants, or does the family line eventually become extinct?

The probability of eventual extinction is

$$\eta = \mathbb{P}(X_t = 0 \text{ for some } t \in \mathbb{Z}_+).$$

#### Note

•  $\eta = \mathbb{P}_1(\mathcal{T}_0 < \infty)$  is the hitting probability of state 0 for the Markov chain starting at state 1.

# Extinction eventually

#### **Theorem**

Extinction probability  $\eta = S$  mallest fixed point of the pgf  $\phi(s)$  in [0,1].

Proof.

$$\eta = \mathbb{P}(\bigcup_{t=0}^{\infty} \{X_t = 0\}) = \lim_{t \to \infty} \ \mathbb{P}(X_t = 0) = \lim_{t \to \infty} \ \eta_t.$$

Because  $\phi$  is continuous on [0,1], the recursive equation  $\eta_t = \phi(\eta_{t-1})$ implies  $\eta = \phi(\eta)$ . Hence  $\eta$  is a fixed point of  $\phi$ .

Let us show that  $\eta$  is the smallest fixed point.

If  $\phi(a) = a$  for some  $a \in [0, 1]$ , then because  $\phi$  is nondecreasing:

$$a \ge 0 \implies a = \phi(a) \ge \phi(0) = \eta_1 \implies a \ge \eta_1$$
  
 $a \ge \eta_1 \implies a = \phi(a) \ge \phi(\eta_1) = \eta_2 \implies a \ge \eta_2$   
Hence  $a > \eta_t$  for all  $t$ , so that  $a > \eta$ .

### Example

In a population every individual produces twins with probability a and otherwise no children. What is the probability of eventual extinction of the family line of an individual?

The pgf of the offspring distribution is  $\phi(s) = (1-a) + as^2$ . The fixed points of  $\phi$  are the zeros of  $as^2 - s + (1-a) = 0$ :

$$s = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{1 - 4a(1 - a)}}{2a} = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{(1 - 2a)^2}}{2a} = \begin{cases} (1 - a)/a, \\ 1. \end{cases}$$

The extinction probability is hence

$$\eta = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } a \le 1/2, \\ \frac{1-a}{a}, & \text{if } a > 1/2. \end{cases}$$

### Sure extinction for m < 1

#### **Theorem**

If the mean of the offspring distribution is m < 1, then the branching process becomes extinct with probability one.

#### Proof.

The probability that the population is alive at time t is

$$1 - \eta_t = \mathbb{P}(X_t \ge 1) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(X_t = k) \le \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} k \mathbb{P}(X_t = k) = \mathbb{E}X_t.$$

Because  $\mathbb{E}X_t = m^t \mathbb{E}X_0 \to 0$ , we see from this that

$$1 - \eta = \lim_{t \to \infty} (1 - \eta_t) \le \lim_{t \to \infty} \mathbb{E} X_t = 0.$$

Hence  $\eta = 1$ .

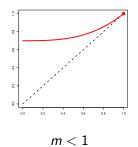
### Sure extinction — General characterization

#### **Theorem**

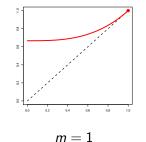
For every nontrivial offspring distribution (0 <  $p_0$  < 1),  $\eta = 1$  if and only if  $m \le 1$ .

### Proof idea.

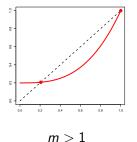
The slope of  $\phi(s)$  at s=1 is  $m=\phi'(1)$ .



 $\eta = 1$ 



 $\eta = 1$ 



 $\eta \approx 0.207$ 

# Branching processes in the long run

# No sustainability

- If m < 1, the population surely dies out eventually.</li>
- If m = 1, the population surely dies out eventually, but the expected population size remains constant:

$$\mathbb{E}X_t = m^t \mathbb{E}X_0 = \mathbb{E}X_0$$
 for all  $t \geq 0$ .

 If m > 1, the population may survive in the long run, and has exponential mean growth:

$$\mathbb{E}X_t=m^t\mathbb{E}X_0\to\infty.$$



Thomas Robert Malthus (1766–1834)

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### Sources

Photos used in the presentation:

1. Image courtesy of think4photop at FreeDigitalPhotos.net