

# Modern Discrete Probability

## *IV - Branching processes*

### *Review*

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- 1 Basic definitions
- 2 Extinction
- 3 Random-walk representation
- 4 Application: Bond percolation on Galton-Watson trees

# Galton-Watson branching processes I

## Definition

A *Galton-Watson branching process* is a Markov chain of the following form:

- Let  $Z_0 := 1$ .
- Let  $X(i, t)$ ,  $i \geq 1$ ,  $t \geq 1$ , be an array of i.i.d.  $\mathbb{Z}_+$ -valued random variables with finite mean  $m = \mathbb{E}[X(1, 1)] < +\infty$ , and define inductively,

$$Z_t := \sum_{1 \leq i \leq Z_{t-1}} X(i, t).$$

# Galton-Watson branching processes II

Further remarks:

- 1 The random variable  $Z_t$  models the size of a population at time (or generation)  $t$ . The random variable  $X(i, t)$  corresponds to the number of offspring of the  $i$ -th individual (if there is one) in generation  $t - 1$ . Generation  $t$  is formed of all offspring of the individuals in generation  $t - 1$ .
- 2 We denote by  $\{p_k\}_{k \geq 0}$  the law of  $X(1, 1)$ . We also let  $f(s) := \mathbb{E}[s^{X(1,1)}]$  be the corresponding probability generating function.
- 3 By tracking genealogical relationships, i.e. who is whose child, we obtain a tree  $T$  rooted at the single individual in generation 0 with a vertex for each individual in the progeny and an edge for each parent-child relationship. We refer to  $T$  as a *Galton-Watson tree*.

# Exponential growth I

## Lemma

Let  $M_t := m^{-t}Z_t$ . Then  $(M_t)$  is a nonnegative martingale with respect to the filtration  $\mathcal{F}_t = \sigma(Z_0, \dots, Z_t)$ . In particular,  $\mathbb{E}[Z_t] = m^t$ .

*Proof:* Recall the following lemma:

*Lemma:* Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be a probability space. If  $Y_1 = Y_2$  a.s. on  $B \in \mathcal{F}$  then  $\mathbb{E}[Y_1 | \mathcal{F}] = \mathbb{E}[Y_2 | \mathcal{F}]$  a.s. on  $B$ .

On  $\{Z_{t-1} = k\}$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}[Z_t | \mathcal{F}_{t-1}] = \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{1 \leq j \leq k} X(j, t) \middle| \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right] = mk = mZ_{t-1}.$$

This is true for all  $k$ . Rearranging shows that  $(M_t)$  is a martingale. For the second claim, note that  $\mathbb{E}[M_t] = \mathbb{E}[M_0] = 1$ .

# Exponential growth II

## Theorem

*We have  $M_t \rightarrow M_\infty < +\infty$  a.s. for some nonnegative random variable  $M_\infty \in \sigma(\cup_t \mathcal{F}_t)$  with  $\mathbb{E}[M_\infty] \leq 1$ .*

*Proof:* This follows immediately from the martingale convergence theorem for nonnegative martingales and Fatou's lemma. ■

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# Extinction: some observations I

Observe that 0 is a fixed point of the process. The event

$$\{Z_t \rightarrow 0\} = \{\exists t : Z_t = 0\},$$

is called *extinction*. Establishing when extinction occurs is a central question in branching process theory. We let  $\eta$  be the probability of extinction. *Throughout, we assume that  $p_0 > 0$  and  $p_1 < 1$ .* Here is a first result:

## Theorem

*A.s. either  $Z_t \rightarrow 0$  or  $Z_t \rightarrow +\infty$ .*

*Proof:* The process  $(Z_t)$  is integer-valued and 0 is the only fixed point of the process under the assumption that  $p_1 < 1$ . From any state  $k$ , the probability of never coming back to  $k > 0$  is at least  $p_0^k > 0$ , so every state  $k > 0$  is transient. The claim follows.



# Extinction: some observations II

## Theorem (Critical branching process)

*Assume  $m = 1$ . Then  $Z_t \rightarrow 0$  a.s., i.e.,  $\eta = 1$ .*

*Proof:* When  $m = 1$ ,  $(Z_t)$  itself is a martingale. Hence  $(Z_t)$  must converge to 0 by the corollaries above. ■

# Main result I

Let  $f_t(\mathbf{s}) = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{s}^{Z_t}]$ . Note that, by monotonicity,

$$\eta = \mathbb{P}[\exists t \geq 0 : Z_t = 0] = \lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} \mathbb{P}[Z_t = 0] = \lim_{t \rightarrow +\infty} f_t(0),$$

Moreover, by the Markov property,  $f_t$  as a natural recursive form:

$$\begin{aligned} f_t(\mathbf{s}) &= \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{s}^{Z_t}] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{s}^{Z_t} \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1}]] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[f(\mathbf{s})^{Z_{t-1}}] \\ &= f_{t-1}(f(\mathbf{s})) = \dots = f^{(t)}(\mathbf{s}), \end{aligned}$$

where  $f^{(t)}$  is the  $t$ -th iterate of  $f$ .

## Main result II

### Theorem (Extinction probability)

*The probability of extinction  $\eta$  is given by the smallest fixed point of  $f$  in  $[0, 1]$ . Moreover:*

- (Subcritical regime) *If  $m < 1$  then  $\eta = 1$ .*
- (Supercritical regime) *If  $m > 1$  then  $\eta < 1$ .*

*Proof:* The case  $p_0 + p_1 = 1$  is straightforward: the process dies almost surely after a geometrically distributed time.

So we assume  $p_0 + p_1 < 1$  for the rest of the proof.

# Main result: proof I

*Lemma:* On  $[0, 1]$ , the function  $f$  satisfies:

- (a)  $f(0) = p_0, f(1) = 1$ ;
- (b)  $f$  is indefinitely differentiable on  $[0, 1]$ ;
- (c)  $f$  is strictly convex and increasing;
- (d)  $\lim_{s \uparrow 1} f'(s) = m < +\infty$ .

*Proof:* (a) is clear by definition. The function  $f$  is a power series with radius of convergence  $R \geq 1$ . This implies (b). In particular,

$$f'(s) = \sum_{i \geq 1} i p_i s^{i-1} \geq 0, \quad \text{and} \quad f''(s) = \sum_{i \geq 2} i(i-1) p_i s^{i-2} > 0,$$

because we must have  $p_i > 0$  for some  $i > 1$  by assumption. This proves (c). Since  $m < +\infty$ ,  $f'(1) = m$  is well defined and  $f'$  is continuous on  $[0, 1]$ , which implies (d). ■

# Main result: proof II

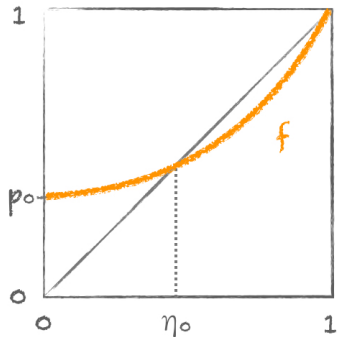
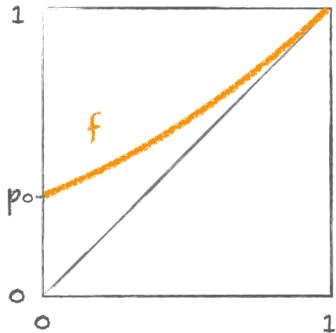
*Lemma:* We have:

- If  $m > 1$  then  $f$  has a unique fixed point  $\eta_0 \in [0, 1)$ .
- If  $m < 1$  then  $f(t) > t$  for  $t \in [0, 1)$ . (Let  $\eta_0 := 1$  in that case.)

*Proof:* Assume  $m > 1$ . Since  $f'(1) = m > 1$ , there is  $\delta > 0$  s.t.  $f(1 - \delta) < 1 - \delta$ . On the other hand  $f(0) = p_0 > 0$  so by continuity of  $f$  there must be a fixed point in  $(0, 1 - \delta)$ . Moreover, by strict convexity and the fact that  $f(1) = 1$ , if  $x \in (0, 1)$  is a fixed point then  $f(y) < y$  for  $y \in (x, 1)$ , proving uniqueness.

The second part follows by strict convexity and monotonicity. ■

# Main result: proof III



# Main result: proof IV

*Lemma:* We have:

- If  $x \in [0, \eta_0)$ , then  $f^{(t)}(x) \uparrow \eta_0$
- If  $x \in (\eta_0, 1)$  then  $f^{(t)}(x) \downarrow \eta_0$

*Proof:* By monotonicity, for  $x \in [0, \eta_0)$ , we have  $x < f(x) < f(\eta_0) = \eta_0$ .  
Iterating

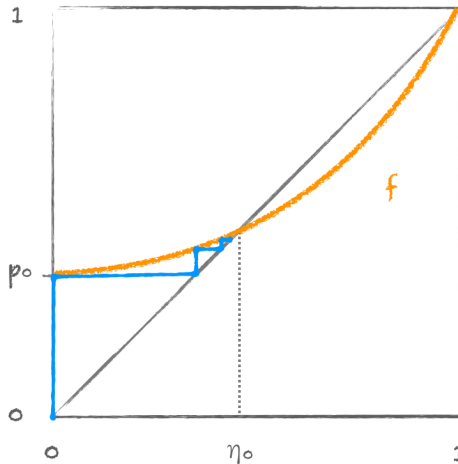
$$x < f^{(1)}(x) < \dots < f^{(t)}(x) < f^{(t)}(\eta_0) = \eta_0.$$

So  $f^{(t)}(x) \uparrow L \leq \eta_0$ . By continuity of  $f$  we can take the limit inside of

$$f^{(t)}(x) = f(f^{(t-1)}(x)),$$

to get  $L = f(L)$ . So by definition of  $\eta_0$  we must have  $L = \eta_0$ . ■

# Main result: proof V





# Example: Poisson branching process

## Example

Consider the offspring distribution  $X(1, 1) \sim \text{Poi}(\lambda)$  with  $\lambda > 0$ . We refer to this case as the *Poisson branching process*. Then

$$f(s) = \mathbb{E}[s^{X(1,1)}] = \sum_{i \geq 0} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^i}{i!} s^i = e^{\lambda(s-1)}.$$

So the process goes extinct with probability 1 when  $\lambda \leq 1$ . For  $\lambda > 1$ , the probability of extinction  $\eta_\lambda$  is the smallest solution in  $[0, 1]$  to the equation

$$e^{-\lambda(1-x)} = x.$$

The survival probability  $\zeta_\lambda := 1 - \eta_\lambda$  satisfies  $1 - e^{-\lambda\zeta_\lambda} = \zeta_\lambda$ .

# Extinction: back to exponential growth I

Conditioned on extinction,  $M_\infty = 0$  a.s.

## Theorem

*Conditioned on nonextinction, either  $M_\infty = 0$  a.s. or  $M_\infty > 0$  a.s. In particular,  $\mathbb{P}[M_\infty = 0] \in \{\eta, 1\}$ .*

*Proof:* A property of rooted trees is said to be *inherited* if all finite trees satisfy this property and whenever a tree satisfies the property then so do all the descendant trees of the children of the root. The property  $\{M_\infty = 0\}$  is inherited. The result then follows from the following 0-1 law.

*Lemma:* For a Galton-Watson tree  $T$ , an inherited property  $A$  has, conditioned on nonextinction, probability 0 or 1.

*Proof of lemma:* Let  $T^{(1)}, \dots, T^{(Z_1)}$  be the descendant subtrees of the children of the root. Then, by independence,

$$\mathbb{P}[A] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{P}[T \in A \mid Z_1]] \leq \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{P}[T^{(i)} \in A, \forall i \leq Z_1 \mid Z_1]] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{P}[A]^{Z_1}] = f(\mathbb{P}[A]),$$

so  $\mathbb{P}[A] \in [0, \eta] \cup \{1\}$ . Also  $\mathbb{P}[A] \geq \eta$  because  $A$  holds for finite trees.

# Extinction: back to exponential growth II

## Theorem

Let  $(Z_t)$  be a branching process with  $m = \mathbb{E}[X(1, 1)] > 1$  and  $\sigma^2 = \text{Var}[X(1, 1)] < +\infty$ . Then,  $(M_t)$  converges in  $L^2$  and, in particular,  $\mathbb{E}[M_\infty] = 1$ .

*Proof:* From the orthogonality of increments

$$\mathbb{E}[M_t^2] = \mathbb{E}[M_{t-1}^2] + \mathbb{E}[(M_t - M_{t-1})^2].$$

On  $\{Z_{t-1} = k\}$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[(M_t - M_{t-1})^2 \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1}] &= m^{-2t} \mathbb{E}[(Z_t - mZ_{t-1})^2 \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1}] \\ &= m^{-2t} \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \sum_{i=1}^k X(i, t) - mk \right)^2 \mid \mathcal{F}_{t-1} \right] \\ &= m^{-2t} k \sigma^2 \\ &= m^{-2t} Z_{t-1} \sigma^2. \end{aligned}$$

# Extinction: back to exponential growth III

Hence

$$\mathbb{E}[M_t^2] = \mathbb{E}[M_{t-1}^2] + m^{-t-1} \sigma^2.$$

Since  $\mathbb{E}[M_0^2] = 1$ ,

$$\mathbb{E}[M_t^2] = 1 + \sigma^2 \sum_{i=2}^{t+1} m^{-i},$$

which is uniformly bounded when  $m > 1$ . So  $(M_t)$  converges in  $L^2$ . Finally by Fatou's lemma

$$\mathbb{E}|M_\infty| \leq \sup \|M_t\|_1 \leq \sup \|M_t\|_2 < +\infty$$

and

$$|\mathbb{E}[M_t] - \mathbb{E}[M_\infty]| \leq \|M_t - M_\infty\|_1 \leq \|M_t - M_\infty\|_2,$$

implies the convergence of expectations. ■

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# Exploration process I

We consider an exploration process of the Galton-Watson tree  $T$ . The exploration process, started at the root 0, has 3 types of vertices:

- $\mathcal{A}_t$ : *active*,  $\mathcal{E}_t$ : *explored*,  $\mathcal{N}_t$ : *neutral*.

We start with  $\mathcal{A}_0 := \{0\}$ ,  $\mathcal{E}_0 := \emptyset$ , and  $\mathcal{N}_0$  contains all other vertices in  $T$ . At time  $t$ , if  $\mathcal{A}_{t-1} = \emptyset$  we let  $(\mathcal{A}_t, \mathcal{E}_t, \mathcal{N}_t) := (\mathcal{A}_{t-1}, \mathcal{E}_{t-1}, \mathcal{N}_{t-1})$ . Otherwise, we pick an element,  $a_t$ , from  $\mathcal{A}_{t-1}$  and set:

- $\mathcal{A}_t := \mathcal{A}_{t-1} \cup \{x \in \mathcal{N}_{t-1} : \{x, a_t\} \in T\} \setminus \{a_t\}$ ,
- $\mathcal{E}_t := \mathcal{E}_{t-1} \cup \{a_t\}$ ,
- $\mathcal{N}_t := \mathcal{N}_{t-1} \setminus \{x \in \mathcal{N}_{t-1} : \{x, a_t\} \in T\}$ .

To be concrete, we choose  $a_t$  in breadth-first search (or first-come-first-serve) manner: we exhaust all vertices in generation  $t$  before considering vertices in generation  $t + 1$ .

# Exploration process II

We imagine revealing the edges of  $T$  as they are encountered in the exploration process and we let  $(\mathcal{F}_t)$  be the corresponding filtration. In words, starting with 0, the Galton-Watson tree  $T$  is progressively grown by adding to it at each time a child of one of the previously explored vertices and uncovering its children in  $T$ . In this process,  $\mathcal{E}_t$  is the set of previously explored vertices and  $\mathcal{A}_t$  is the set of vertices who are known to belong to  $T$  but whose full neighborhood is waiting to be uncovered. The rest of the vertices form the set  $\mathcal{N}_t$ .

# Exploration process III

Let  $A_t := |\mathcal{A}_t|$ ,  $E_t := |\mathcal{E}_t|$ , and  $N_t := |\mathcal{N}_t|$ . Note that  $(E_t)$  is non-decreasing while  $(N_t)$  is non-increasing. Let

$$\tau_0 := \inf\{t \geq 0 : A_t = 0\},$$

(which by convention is  $+\infty$  if there is no such  $t$ ). The process is fixed for all  $t > \tau_0$ . Notice that  $E_t = t$  for all  $t \leq \tau_0$ , as exactly one vertex is explored at each time until the set of active vertices is empty.

## Lemma

*Let  $W$  be the total progeny. Then*

$$W = \tau_0.$$



# Random walk representation I

The process  $(A_t)$  admits a simple recursive form. Recall that  $A_0 := 1$ . Conditioning on  $\mathcal{F}_{t-1}$ :

- If  $A_{t-1} = 0$ , the exploration process has finished its course and  $A_t = 0$ . Otherwise, (a) one active vertex becomes an explored vertex and (b) its neutral neighbors become active vertices. That is,

$$A_t = \begin{cases} A_{t-1} + \underbrace{[-1]}_{(a)} + \underbrace{X_t}_{(b)}, & t-1 < \tau_0, \\ 0, & \text{o.w.} \end{cases}$$

where  $X_t$  is distributed according to the offspring distribution.

# Random walk representation II

We let  $Y_t = X_t - 1 \geq -1$  and

$$S_t := 1 + \sum_{i=1}^t Y_i,$$

with  $S_0 := 1$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \tau_0 &= \inf\{t \geq 0 : S_t = 0\} \\ &= \inf\{t \geq 0 : 1 + [X_1 - 1] + \cdots + [X_t - 1] = 0\} \\ &= \inf\{t \geq 0 : X_1 + \cdots + X_t = t - 1\}, \end{aligned}$$

and  $(A_t)$  is a random walk started at 1 with steps  $(Y_t)$  stopped when it hits 0 for the first time:

$$A_t = (S_{t \wedge \tau_0}).$$

# Duality principle I

## Theorem

Let  $(Z_t)$  be a branching process with offspring distribution  $\{p_k\}_{k \geq 0}$  and extinction probability  $\eta < 1$ . Let  $(Z'_t)$  be a branching process with offspring distribution  $\{p'_k\}_{k \geq 0}$  where

$$p'_k = \eta^{k-1} p_k.$$

Then  $(Z_t)$  conditioned on extinction has the same distribution as  $(Z'_t)$ , which is referred to as the dual branching process.

# Duality principle II

Some remarks:

- Note that

$$\sum_{k \geq 0} p'_k = \sum_{k \geq 0} \eta^{k-1} p_k = \eta^{-1} f(\eta) = 1,$$

because  $\eta$  is a fixed point of  $f$ . So  $\{p'_k\}_{k \geq 0}$  is indeed a probability distribution.

- Note further that

$$\sum_{k \geq 0} k p'_k = \sum_{k \geq 0} k \eta^{k-1} p_k = f'(\eta) < 1,$$

since  $f'$  is strictly increasing,  $f(\eta) = \eta < 1$  and  $f(1) = 1$ . So the dual branching process is subcritical.

# Duality principle III

*Proof:* We use the random walk representation. Let  $H = (X_1, \dots, X_{\tau_0})$  and  $H' = (X'_1, \dots, X'_{\tau'_0})$  be the *histories* of the processes  $(Z_t)$  and  $(Z'_t)$  respectively. (Under breadth-first search, the process  $(Z_t)$  can be reconstructed from  $H$ .) In the case of extinction, the history of  $(Z_t)$  has finite length. We call  $(x_1, \dots, x_t)$  a *valid history* if  $x_1 + \dots + x_i - (i - 1) > 0$  for all  $i < t$  and  $x_1 + \dots + x_t - (t - 1) = 0$ . By definition of the conditional probability, for a valid history  $(x_1, \dots, x_t)$  with a finite  $t$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}[H = (x_1, \dots, x_t) \mid \tau_0 < +\infty] = \frac{\mathbb{P}[H = (x_1, \dots, x_t)]}{\mathbb{P}[\tau_0 < +\infty]} = \eta^{-1} \prod_{i=1}^t p_{x_i}.$$

Because  $x_1 + \dots + x_t = t - 1$ ,

$$\eta^{-1} \prod_{i=1}^t p_{x_i} = \eta^{-1} \prod_{i=1}^t \eta^{1-x_i} p'_{x_i} = \prod_{i=1}^t p'_{x_i} = \mathbb{P}[H' = (x_1, \dots, x_t)].$$

# Duality principle: example

## Example (Poisson branching process)

Let  $(Z_t)$  be a Galton-Watson branching process with offspring distribution  $\text{Poi}(\lambda)$  where  $\lambda > 1$ . Then the dual probability distribution is given by

$$p'_k = \eta^{k-1} p_k = \eta^{k-1} e^{-\lambda} \frac{\lambda^k}{k!} = \eta^{-1} e^{-\lambda} \frac{(\lambda\eta)^k}{k!},$$

where recall that  $e^{-\lambda(1-\eta)} = \eta$ , so

$$p'_k = e^{\lambda(1-\eta)} e^{-\lambda} \frac{(\lambda\eta)^k}{k!} = e^{-\lambda\eta} \frac{(\lambda\eta)^k}{k!}.$$

That is, the dual branching process has offspring distribution  $\text{Poi}(\lambda\eta)$ .

# Hitting-time theorem

## Theorem

Let  $(Z_t)$  be a Galton-Watson branching process with total progeny  $W$ . In the random walk representation of  $(Z_t)$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}[W = t] = \frac{1}{t} \mathbb{P}[X_1 + \cdots + X_t = t - 1],$$

for all  $t \geq 1$ .

Note that this formula is rather remarkable as the probability on the l.h.s. is  $\mathbb{P}[S_i > 0, \forall i < t \text{ and } S_t = 0]$  while the probability on the r.h.s. is  $\mathbb{P}[S_t = 0]$ .

# Spitzer's combinatorial lemma I

We start with a lemma of independent interest. Let

$u_1, \dots, u_t \in \mathbb{R}$  and define  $r_0 := 0$  and  $r_i := u_1 + \dots + u_i$  for  $1 \leq i \leq t$ . We say that  $j$  is a *ladder index* if  $r_j > r_0 \vee \dots \vee r_{j-1}$ .

Consider the cyclic permutations of  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_t)$ :  $\mathbf{u}^{(0)} = \mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{u}^{(1)} = (u_2, \dots, u_t, u_1)$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $\mathbf{u}^{(t-1)} = (u_t, u_1, \dots, u_{t-1})$ . Define the corresponding partial sums  $r_j^{(\beta)} := u_1^{(\beta)} + \dots + u_j^{(\beta)}$  for  $j = 1, \dots, t$  and  $\beta = 0, \dots, t-1$ . Observe that

$$\begin{aligned}
 & (r_1^{(\beta)}, \dots, r_t^{(\beta)}) \\
 &= (r_{\beta+1} - r_\beta, r_{\beta+2} - r_\beta, \dots, r_t - r_\beta, \\
 & \quad [r_t - r_\beta] + r_1, [r_t - r_\beta] + r_2, \dots, [r_t - r_\beta] + r_\beta) \\
 &= (r_{\beta+1} - r_\beta, r_{\beta+2} - r_\beta, \dots, r_t - r_\beta, \\
 & \quad r_t - [r_\beta - r_1], r_t - [r_\beta - r_2], \dots, r_t - [r_\beta - r_{\beta-1}], r_t) \quad (1)
 \end{aligned}$$



# Spitzer's combinatorial lemma II

## Lemma

*Assume  $r_t > 0$ . Let  $\ell$  be the number of cyclic permutations such that  $t$  is a ladder index. Then  $\ell \geq 1$ . Moreover, each such cyclic permutation has exactly  $\ell$  ladder indices.*

*Proof:* We first show that  $\ell \geq 1$ , i.e., there is at least one cyclic permutation where  $t$  is a ladder index. Let  $\beta$  be the smallest index achieving the maximum of  $r_1, \dots, r_t$ , i.e.,

$$r_\beta > r_1 \vee \dots \vee r_{\beta-1} \quad \text{and} \quad r_\beta \geq r_{\beta+1} \vee \dots \vee r_t.$$

From (1),

$$r_{\beta+i} - r_\beta \leq 0 < r_t, \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, t - \beta,$$

and

$$r_t - [r_\beta - r_j] < r_t, \quad \forall j = 1, \dots, \beta - 1.$$

Moreover,  $r_t > 0 = r_0$  by assumption. So, in  $\mathbf{u}^{(\beta)}$ ,  $t$  is a ladder index.

# Spitzer's combinatorial lemma III

Since  $\ell \geq 1$ , we can assume w.l.o.g. that  $\mathbf{u}$  is such that  $t$  is a ladder index. Then  $\beta$  is a ladder index in  $\mathbf{u}$  if and only if

$$r_\beta > r_0 \vee \cdots \vee r_{\beta-1},$$

if and only if

$$r_t > r_t - r_\beta \quad \text{and} \quad r_t - [r_\beta - r_j] < r_t, \quad \forall j = 1, \dots, \beta - 1.$$

Moreover, because  $r_t > r_j$  for all  $j$ , we have  $r_t - [r_{\beta+i} - r_\beta] = (r_t - r_{\beta+i}) + r_\beta$  and the last equation is equivalent to

$$r_t > r_t - [r_{\beta+i} - r_\beta], \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, t - \beta \quad \text{and} \quad r_t - [r_\beta - r_j] < r_t, \quad \forall j = 1, \dots, \beta - 1.$$

That is,  $t$  is a ladder index in the  $\beta$ -th cyclic permutation. ■

# Back to the hitting-time theorem: proof I

*Proof:* Let  $R_i := 1 - S_i$  and  $U_i := 1 - X_i$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, t$  and let  $R_0 := 0$ . Then

$$\{X_1 + \dots + X_t = t - 1\} = \{R_t = 1\},$$

and

$$\{W = t\} = \{t \text{ is the first ladder index in } R_1, \dots, R_t\}.$$

By symmetry, for all  $\beta$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}[t \text{ is the first ladder index in } R_1, \dots, R_t] \\ = \mathbb{P}[t \text{ is the first ladder index in } R_1^{(\beta)}, \dots, R_t^{(\beta)}]. \end{aligned}$$

Let  $\mathcal{E}_\beta$  be the event on the last line. Hence

$$\mathbb{P}[W = t] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{E}_1}] = \frac{1}{t} \mathbb{E} \left[ \sum_{\beta=1}^t \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{E}_\beta} \right]$$

# Back to the hitting-time theorem: proof II

*Proof:* By Spitzer's combinatorial lemma, there is at most one cyclic permutation where  $t$  is the first ladder index. In particular,  $\sum_{\beta=1}^t \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{E}_\beta} \in \{0, 1\}$ .

So

$$\mathbb{P}[W = t] = \frac{1}{t} \mathbb{P} \left[ \bigcup_{\beta=1}^t \mathcal{E}_\beta \right].$$

Finally observe that, because  $R_0 = 0$  and  $U_i \leq 1$  for all  $i$ , the partial sum at the  $j$ -th ladder index must take value  $j$ . So the event  $\{\bigcup_{\beta=1}^t \mathcal{E}_\beta\}$  implies that  $\{R_t = 1\}$  because the last partial sum of all cyclic permutations is  $R_t$ .

Similarly, because there is at least one cyclic permutation such that  $t$  is a ladder index, the event  $\{R_t = 1\}$  implies  $\{\bigcup_{\beta=1}^t \mathcal{E}_\beta\}$ . Therefore,

$$\mathbb{P}[W = t] = \frac{1}{t} \mathbb{P}[R_t = 1],$$

which concludes the proof. ■

# Hitting-time theorem: example

## Example (Poisson branching process)

Let  $(Z_t)$  be a Galton-Watson branching process with offspring distribution  $\text{Poi}(\lambda)$  where  $\lambda > 0$ . Let  $W$  be its total progeny. By the hitting-time theorem, for  $t \geq 1$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{P}[W = t] &= \frac{1}{t} \mathbb{P}[X_1 + \dots + X_t = t - 1] \\ &= \frac{1}{t} e^{-\lambda t} \frac{(\lambda t)^{t-1}}{(t-1)!} \\ &= e^{-\lambda t} \frac{(\lambda t)^{t-1}}{t!},\end{aligned}$$

where we used that a sum of independent Poisson is Poisson.

- 1 Basic definitions
- 2 Extinction
- 3 Random-walk representation
- 4 Application: Bond percolation on Galton-Watson trees**

# Bond percolation on Galton-Watson trees I

Let  $T$  be a Galton-Watson tree for an offspring distribution with mean  $m > 1$ . Perform bond percolation on  $T$  with density  $p$ .

## Theorem

*Conditioned on nonextinction,*

$$p_c(T) = \frac{1}{m} \quad \text{a.s.}$$

*Proof:* Let  $\mathcal{C}_0$  be the cluster of the root in  $T$  with density  $p$ . We can think of  $\mathcal{C}_0$  as being generated by a Galton-Watson branching process where the offspring distribution is the law of  $\sum_{i=1}^{X(1,1)} I_i$  where the  $I_i$ s are i.i.d.  $\text{Ber}(p)$  and  $X(1,1)$  is distributed according to the offspring distribution of  $T$ . In particular, by conditioning on  $X(1,1)$ , the offspring mean under  $\mathcal{C}_0$  is  $mp$ . If  $mp \leq 1$  then

$$1 = \mathbb{P}_p[|\mathcal{C}_0| < +\infty] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{P}_p[|\mathcal{C}_0| < +\infty \mid T]],$$

and we must have  $\mathbb{P}_p[|\mathcal{C}_0| < +\infty \mid T] = 1$  a.s. In other words,  $p_c(T) \geq \frac{1}{m}$  a.s.

# Bond percolation on Galton-Watson trees II

On the other hand, the property of trees  $\{\mathbb{P}_\rho[|\mathcal{C}_0| < +\infty | \mathcal{T}] = 1\}$  is inherited. So by our previous lemma, conditioned on nonextinction, it has probability 0 or 1. That probability is of course 1 on extinction. So by

$$\mathbb{P}_\rho[|\mathcal{C}_0| < +\infty] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{P}_\rho[|\mathcal{C}_0| < +\infty | \mathcal{T}]],$$

if the probability is 1 conditioned on nonextinction then it must be that  $mp \leq 1$ . In other words, for any fixed  $p$  such that  $mp > 1$ , conditioned on nonextinction  $\mathbb{P}_\rho[|\mathcal{C}_0| < +\infty | \mathcal{T}] = 0$  a.s. By monotonicity of  $\mathbb{P}_\rho[|\mathcal{C}_0| < +\infty | \mathcal{T}]$  in  $p$ , taking a limit  $p_n \rightarrow 1/m$  proves the result.