# Autoregressive Processes and First-Hit Probabilities for Randomized Random Walks 

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# Autoregressive Processes and First-Hit Probabilities for Randomized Random Walks 

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#### Abstract

We find the first-hit distributions of symmetric randomized random walks on $\mathcal{R}$ with exponential lifetime using prediction formulas for Gaussian stationary autoregressive processes, associated with the random walks.


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## 1 Introduction

A randomized random walk is a continuous-time stochastic process which is obtained from an ordinary random walk by specifying that the epochs of the jumps are regulated by a Poisson process. We consider only symmetric processes with integer values, i.e. the jumps themselves are random variables assuming values $\pm 1, \ldots, \pm k$ with probabilities $p_{1} / 2, \ldots, p_{k} / 2$, independent of each other and of the Poisson process. The lifetime of this time-dependent process if regulated by an exponentially distributed random variable independent of the process.

The classic book of Feller (1968 and 1971) devotes substantial space to the topic of random walks (c.f. chapters III and XII of Feller (1968) and chapters II, XII, XIV, XVII of Feller (1971)). Problems connected with first passages, path maxima, hitting points, etc., are treated using combinatorial methods and Laplace and Fourier transforms. The study of randomized random walks, however, is more restricted and the treatment (Feller (1971), §II. 7 and XIV.6) is less developed.

In this paper we find first-hit distributions of symmetric randomized random walks with exponential lifetimes (i.e. if $X_{u}, u \geq 0$ is the process described above and $\tau$ is the time of first entry of a set $S$ by $X$ when $X_{0} \in S$, then the probabilities of interest are $\left.\left\{P\left(X_{\tau}=s\right), s \notin S\right\}\right)$. We use a rather unusual method based on prediction of time series and on the theory of Dynkin, which relates Markov processes $X$ with Gaussian processes $\Phi$. Specifically, we use the prediction formula of Dynkin (1980) which expresses the coefficients of the best least square predictor of $\Phi$ in terms of the first-hit distribution of $X$. (See formula (2) in Section 2 below).

Ylvisaker (1987) first proposed use of this theoretical result for practical applications, in his case, prediction and design of Gaussian random fields through simulation of underlying Markov processes. We in some sense invert his idea. As noted by Ylvisaker, if $X$ is a randomized symmetric random walk with exponential lifetime, the Gaussian process $\Phi$ associated with $X$ is an autoregressive sequence. This means that the coefficients of the least square estimate of $\Phi$ can be found through well-known time series algorithms; these coefficients are the first-hit probabilities of $X$, according to Dynkin's prediction formula.

In section 2 we review Dynkin's theory of Gaussian processes associated with Markov. In section 3 we discuss the $\mathrm{AR}(\mathrm{k})$ sequences which arise from association with randomized random walks. In section 4 we get explicit formulas for first-hit probabilities of random walks and compare our results with the ones in Feller $(1968,1971)$.

## 2 Gaussian Processes Associated with Markov Processes

Let us review the results of Dynkin (1980). Here, we follow the paper of Ylvisaker (1987). Let $\hat{X}_{u}, u \geq 0$ be a symmetric homogeneous right Markov process with the state space $T \subseteq R$ and transition density $p_{u}(t, s)=p_{u}(s, t), s, t \in T$. This means that for all Borel $B \subseteq R$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P\left(\hat{X}_{u} \in B \mid \hat{X}_{u_{1}}=t_{1}, \ldots, \hat{X}_{u_{n}}=t_{n}, 0 \leq u_{1}<\ldots<u_{n}<u<\zeta\right) \\
& \quad=P\left(\hat{X}_{u} \in B \mid \hat{X}_{u_{n}}=t_{n}, 0 \leq u_{n}<u<\zeta\right)=\int_{B} p_{u-u_{n}}\left(t_{n}, t\right) d t
\end{aligned}
$$

Let $\zeta$ be an exponential random variable with mean $\theta, \theta>0$, independent of $\hat{X}$, which determines the lifetime of $\hat{X}$. Denote by $X$ the "killed version" of $\hat{X}$. This means that $X_{u}=\hat{X}_{u}, u<\zeta$ and $X_{u}=\Delta$ ("the cemetary"), $u \geq \zeta$. Then $X_{u}, u \geq 0$ is a Markov process with transition density $e^{-\theta u} p_{u}(t, s), t, s \in T$ and the Green's function

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(t, s)=\int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\theta u} p_{u}(t, s) d u \equiv g(s, t) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

(The function $g$ (as well as the process $X$ ) depends on the parameter $\theta$, but we omit the subscript $\theta$ for notational simplicity). The function $g$ is the average time spent by $X$ at $s$ when started at $t$ and the "killing" of the process keeps this quantity finite for almost all $s$ for every $t$. We shall assume throughout that $g$ is finite for all $s$ and $t$ in $T$. Using the Chapman-Kolmogorov identity and the symmetry of $p_{u}$ we have that $g$ must be non-negative definite: for any real constants $c_{1}, \ldots, c_{n}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sum c_{i} c_{j} g\left(t_{i}, s_{j}\right)=\sum c_{i} c_{j} \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\theta u} p_{u}\left(t_{i}, s_{j}\right) d u \\
= & \sum c_{i} c_{j} \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\theta u} \int_{R} p_{u / 2}\left(t_{i}, r\right) p_{u / 2}\left(r, s_{j}\right) d r d u \\
= & \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\theta u} \int_{R}\left(\sum c_{i} p_{u / 2}\left(t_{i}, r\right)\right)^{2} d r d u \geq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

This means that there exists a Gaussian process $\Phi_{t}, t \in T$ whose parameter space $T$ is the state space of $X$, with mean zero and covariance function $g(t, s)$. Following Dynkin, we will call $\Phi$ a Gaussian process associated with a Markov process $X$. (In Ylvisaker's terminology, $\Phi$ is called the G-MAP.) For these Gaussian processes $\Phi$, here is a special case of Dynkin's theorem:

Theorem. (Dynkin(1980)): Let $p_{t}^{S}$ be the first-hit distribution of $X$ on a countable subset $S$ of $T$ starting from the state $t \in T \backslash S$ :
$p_{t}^{S}(s)=P\left(X_{\tau_{S}}=s \mid X_{0}=t\right)$, where $\tau_{S}=\inf \left\{u \geq 0: X_{u} \in S\right\}$ and $s \in S$.
Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
E\left(\Phi_{t} \mid \Phi_{s}, s \in S\right)=\sum_{s \in S} p_{t}^{S}(s) \Phi_{s} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

It is clear that not every Gaussian process can be created in the above described way. We notice that $\Phi$ always has a positive correlation function and the coefficients in the prediction formula (2) satisfy

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{t}^{S}(s) \geq 0 ; \quad \sum_{s \in S} p_{t}^{S}(s) \leq 1 \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

For further discussion of the relationship between $X$ and $\Phi$, and examples, see Ylvisaker (1987), Dynkin(1980), and Adler and Epstein(1987).

## 3 Randomized Random Walks and AR Processes

We will concentrate on the special case of stationary Gaussian processes. A zero-mean Gaussian process is stationary if and only if its covariance function depends only on the difference between its arguments:

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(t, s)=g(t-s)=g(s-t) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, the transition density of the Markov process $X$ associated with $\Phi$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
p_{u}(t, s)=p_{u}(t-s)=p_{u}(s-t) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

According to Blumenthal and Getoor (1968), p. 17, this condition implies that $X$ is a Levy process, i.e. a Markov process with independent stationary increments. Since the Fourier transform of $p_{u}$ is known for such processes we immediately have:

Proposition. A Gaussian process $\Phi_{t}, t \in T \subseteq R$, associated with a Markov process $X_{u}, u \geq 0$, is stationary if and only if its spectral density $f(\lambda)$ is given by the following expression:

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(\lambda)=2 \pi^{-1}\left(\theta-i \lambda \beta+\sigma^{2} \lambda^{2} / 2+\int_{R}\left(1-i \lambda x /\left(1+x^{2}\right)-e^{-i \lambda x}\right) \nu(d x)\right)^{-1} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\nu$ is a Levy measure on $R \backslash\{0\}, \int_{R} x^{2} /\left(1+x^{2}\right) \nu(d x)<\infty, \sigma^{2} \geq 0$, $-\infty<\beta<\infty$.

Proof. For a Markov process $X_{u}, u \geq 0$ with independent stationary increments:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{p}_{u}(\lambda)=\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{i \lambda x} p_{u}(x) d x=E e^{i \lambda X_{u}}=e^{u \psi(\lambda)} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\psi(\lambda)=-i \lambda \beta-\sigma^{2} \lambda^{2} / 2-\int_{R}\left(1+i \lambda x /\left(1+x^{2}\right)-e^{-i \lambda x}\right) \nu(d x) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

(see Blumenthal and Getoor(1968), p.18). The relationship between the spectral density $f$ and the covariance $g$ is

$$
f(\lambda)=(2 \pi)^{-1} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i \lambda x} g(x) d x
$$

and from (1) and (7) we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(\lambda) & =(2 \pi)^{-1} \int_{0}^{\infty} e^{-\theta u} e^{u \psi(-\lambda)} d u \\
& =(2 \pi)^{-1}(\theta-\psi(-\lambda))^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

for the discrete case, replace integrals with sums. Put (8) into the last formula and we are done.
Corollary. The Gaussian process associated with Brownian Motion is an OrnsteinUhlenbeck process with spectral density

$$
f(\lambda)=(2 \pi)^{-1}\left(\theta+\sigma^{2} \lambda^{2} / 2\right)^{-1} .
$$

According to a result of Dynkin (1980), a Gaussian process $\Phi$ associated with a Markov process $X$ is itself Markovian if $X$ is continuous. Since there exists only one continuous Markov process with stationary independent increments-Brownian motion, we can construct only one stationary Markov Gaussian process. This, of course, is well-known (see discussion in Adler and Epstein (1987) §5).
As another corollary, we obtain the following:
Theorem 1. Let $X_{u}, u \geq 0$ be a randomized symmetric random walk with exponential lifetime:
for $u<\zeta$, when $\zeta \sim \exp (\theta), \theta>0$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{u}=\sum_{i=1}^{N_{u}} \xi_{i}, \quad N_{u} \sim \operatorname{Poisson}(\mu u), \quad \mu>0, \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\xi_{i}$ are i.i.d. random variables and

$$
P\left(\xi_{i}= \pm l\right)=\frac{p_{l}}{2}, l=1, \ldots, k, p_{1}+\ldots+p_{k}=1 .
$$

Then the Gaussian process $\Phi_{t}, t=0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots$ associated with $X$, is a causal $A R(k)$ process with spectral density

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(\lambda)=(2 \pi)^{-1}\left(\theta+\mu-\mu \sum_{l=1}^{k} p_{l} \cos \lambda l\right)^{-1} \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. For given $\mathrm{X}, \beta=0, \sigma^{2}=0$ and the measure $\nu$ is concentrated on $\pm 1, \ldots, \pm k$ :

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nu(d x)=\mu \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{p_{l}}{2}\left(\delta_{-l}(x)+\delta_{l}(x)\right) d x . \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that $\int x /\left(1+x^{2}\right) \nu(d x)=0$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(\lambda) & =(2 \pi)^{-1}\left(\theta+\mu \sum_{l=1}^{k} \frac{p_{l}}{2}\left(1-e^{-i \lambda l}+1-e^{i \lambda l}\right)\right)^{-1} \\
& =(2 \pi)^{-1}\left(\theta+\mu-\mu \sum_{l=1}^{k} p_{l} \cos \lambda l\right)^{-1}
\end{aligned}
$$

Since $f(\lambda)$ is a positive symmetric integrable bounded function, it is the spectral density of a real-valued stationary process. It can be written in the form

$$
f(\lambda)=(2 \pi)^{-1}\left(\theta+\mu-\mu \sum_{l=-k, \ldots, k, l \neq 0} \frac{p_{l}}{2} e^{i \lambda l}\right)^{-1} .
$$

i.e. $f(\lambda)$ is a rational function of $e^{i \lambda}$. According to Yaglom (1962), p. 121, it can be then represented in the form

$$
f(\lambda)=\frac{\left|B\left(e^{i \lambda}\right)\right|^{2}}{\left|A\left(e^{i \lambda}\right)\right|^{2}}=\frac{\left|B_{0} e^{i M \lambda}+B_{1} e^{i(M-1) \lambda}+\ldots+B_{M}\right|^{2}}{\left|A_{0} e^{i N \lambda}+A_{1} e^{i(N-1) \lambda}+\ldots+A_{N}\right|^{2}},
$$

where $A_{j}$ and $B_{j}$ are real, $A_{0}, B_{0}, A_{N}$, and $B_{M}$ are all non-zero, all zeros of the polynomial $A(z), z \in C$, lie inside of the unit circle and the zeros of the polynomial $B(z)$ have absolute values which do not exceed unity.
In our case the complex-variable function $f^{*}(z):=f\left(e^{i \lambda}\right)$ can be written as

$$
\begin{equation*}
f^{*}(z)=(2 \pi)^{-1}\left(-2 / \mu p_{k}\right) z^{k}\left[P_{2 k}(z)\right]^{-1} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{2 k}(z)=z^{2 k}+\frac{p_{k-1}}{p_{k}} z^{2 k-1}+\ldots+\frac{p_{1}}{p_{k}} z^{k+1}-\frac{2(\theta+\mu)}{\mu p_{k}} z^{k}+\frac{p_{1}}{p_{k}} z^{k-1}+\ldots+1 . \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

The right-hand side of (12) has no zeros for $z \neq 0,|z| \leq 1$ and $f^{*}(z)=|B(z)|^{2} /|A(z)|^{2}$ has $M$ zeros inside the closure of the unit circle, all of which are non-zero. This is possible only if $M=0, N=k$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(\lambda)=\left(\frac{\left|A_{0}\right|^{2}}{\left|B_{0}\right|^{2}}\left|1+\frac{A_{1}}{A_{0}} e^{-i \lambda}+\ldots+\frac{A_{k}}{A_{0}} e^{-i k \lambda}\right|^{2}\right)^{-1} \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

From Brockwell and Davis(1987), §4, we learn that this is the spectral density of a causal AR(k) process

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi_{t}+\frac{A_{1}}{A_{0}} \Phi_{t-1}+\ldots+\frac{A_{k}}{A_{0}} \Phi_{t-k}=Z_{t}, Z_{t} \sim \text { White Noise }\left(0,2 \pi \frac{\left|B_{0}\right|^{2}}{\left|A_{0}\right|^{2}}\right) \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

We are done.
Corollary. The $A R(k)$ process $\Phi$ associated with random walk (9) has representation

$$
\Phi_{t}=A_{1} \Phi_{t-1}+\ldots+A_{k} \Phi_{t-k}+Z_{t}, Z_{t} \sim \text { White Noise }\left(0,2 \pi\left|B_{0}\right|^{2}\right)
$$

where the constants $B_{0}, A_{1}, \ldots, A_{k}$ can be found from the system

$$
\begin{align*}
\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2}+\ldots+\alpha_{k} & =A_{1} \\
\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2}+\alpha_{1} \alpha_{3}+\ldots+\alpha_{k-1} \alpha_{k} & =-A_{2}  \tag{16}\\
\ldots & \ldots \\
\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2} \ldots \alpha_{k} & =(-1)^{k+1} A_{k} \\
\frac{1}{2 \pi} \frac{2}{\mu p_{k}} & =\frac{\left|B_{0}\right|^{2}}{A_{k}}
\end{align*}
$$

As before $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}$ are $k$ roots of the polynomial $P_{2 k}$, defined in (13), which lie inside of the unit circle.
This follows from Vieta's theorem and the fact that $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}$ are $k$ roots of the polynomial $A(z)\left(A(z)\right.$ was defined while proving Theorem 1). Since only $A_{j} / A_{0}$ matter, we took $A_{0}=-1$. Of course, if all roots $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}$ are distinct from each other, the coefficients $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{k}$ can be found from a linear system:

$$
\begin{array}{r}
A_{1} \alpha_{1}^{k-1}+A_{2} \alpha_{1}^{k-2}+\ldots+A_{k}=\alpha_{1}^{k} \\
A_{1} \alpha_{2}^{k-1}+A_{2} \alpha_{2}^{k-2}+\ldots+A_{k}=\alpha_{2}^{k} \\
\ldots \\
\ldots \\
A_{1} \alpha_{k}^{k-1}+A_{2} \alpha_{k}^{k-2}+\ldots+A_{k}=\alpha_{k}^{k}
\end{array}
$$

Example 1. Let $\xi_{i}$ be Bernoulli random variables, $P\left(\xi_{i}=1\right)=P\left(\xi_{i}=-1\right)=\frac{1}{2}$. Then the Gaussian process $\Phi$ associated with the randomized random walk $X$ has
spectral density

$$
f(\lambda)=\frac{1}{2 \pi}(\theta+\mu-\mu \cos \lambda)^{-1}
$$

This is the spectral density of an $\operatorname{AR}(1)$ process $\Phi: \Phi_{t}=A_{1} \Phi_{t-1}+Z_{t}$ with

$$
A_{1}=(1+\theta / \mu)-\sqrt{(1+\theta / \mu)^{2}-1} ; \quad Z_{t} \sim \text { White } \operatorname{Noise}\left(0,2 A_{1} / \mu\right)
$$

Example 2. Let $\mathrm{k}=2, P\left(\xi_{i}= \pm 1\right)=p_{1} / 2$ and $P\left(\xi_{i}= \pm 2\right)=p_{2} / 2 ; p_{1}+p_{2}=1$. Then the spectral density of the Gaussian process $\Phi$ is

$$
f(\lambda)=\frac{1}{2 \pi}\left(\theta+\mu-\mu p_{1} \cos \lambda-\mu p_{2} \cos 2 \lambda\right)^{-1}
$$

This is the spectral density of $\operatorname{AR}(2)$ process. To find the coefficients $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ we write:

$$
P_{4}(z)=z^{4}+\frac{p_{1}}{p_{2}} z^{3}-\frac{2(\theta+\mu)}{\mu p_{2}} z^{2}+\frac{p_{1}}{p_{2}} z+1=0
$$

Let $z+\frac{1}{z}=y$; then $y^{2}=z^{2}+\frac{1}{z^{2}}+2$ and we have:

$$
\begin{gathered}
y^{2}+\frac{p_{1}}{p_{2}} y-\left(2+\frac{2}{p_{2}}\left(1+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right)\right)=0 \\
y_{1}=-\frac{p_{1}}{2 p_{2}}+\sqrt{\frac{p_{1}^{2}}{4 p_{2}^{2}}+2+\frac{2}{p_{2}}\left(1+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right)} \\
y_{2}=-\frac{p_{1}}{2 p_{2}}-\sqrt{\frac{p_{1}^{2}}{4 p_{2}^{2}}+2+\frac{2}{p_{2}}\left(1+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right)} .
\end{gathered}
$$

The roots $\alpha_{1}$ and $\alpha_{2}$ of $P_{4}(z)$, which are inside the unit circle, can be obtained from

$$
\begin{equation*}
\alpha_{1}=\frac{y_{1}}{2}-\sqrt{\frac{y_{1}^{2}}{4}-1}, \alpha_{2}=\frac{y_{2}}{2}+\sqrt{\frac{y_{2}^{2}}{4}-1} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{align*}
A_{1} & =\alpha_{1}+\alpha_{2} \\
A_{2} & =-\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2}  \tag{18}\\
Z_{t} & \sim \text { White } \operatorname{Noise}\left(0,\left(2 / \mu p_{2}\right) A_{2}\right)
\end{align*}
$$

For example, if $\theta=1 / 16, \mu=5 / 4, p_{1}=3 / 5$, and $p_{2}=2 / 5$ then $y_{1,2}=(-3 \pm$ $5 \sqrt{5}) / 4 ; \alpha_{1}=(1+\sqrt{5}) / 4 \approx 0.809, \alpha_{2}=(1-\sqrt{5}) / 4 \approx-0.309, A_{1}=0.5, A_{2}=$ $0.25,\left|B_{0}\right|^{2}=1 / 2 \pi$.
We get $\Phi: \Phi_{t}=(1 / 2) \Phi_{t-1}+(1 / 4) \Phi_{t-2}+Z_{t}, Z_{t} \sim$ White Noise $(0,1)$.

## 4 First-Hit Probabilities of Randomized Random Walks.

The main result of section 3 is that Gaussian processes associated with randomized random walks are causal stationary $\operatorname{AR}(\mathrm{k})$ processes with spectral density given by (10). Applying the theory of extrapolation of stationary sequences with rational spectral density in $e^{i \lambda}$ for density (10) we obtain the following prediction procedure:

1. Let $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k}$ be roots of the polynomial

$$
\begin{equation*}
P_{2 k}(z)=z^{2 k}+\frac{p_{k-1}}{p_{k}} z^{2 k-1}+\ldots+\frac{p_{1}}{p_{k}} z^{k+1}+\left(-\frac{2(\theta+\mu)}{\mu p_{k}}\right) z^{k}+\frac{p_{1}}{p_{k}} z^{k-1}+\ldots+1=0 \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

such that $\left|\alpha_{j}\right|<1, j=1, \ldots, k$. Assume that the roots $\alpha_{j}$ are all distinct.
2. For $m \geq 0$ find the coefficients $\gamma_{0}^{(m)}, \ldots, \gamma_{k-1}^{(m)}$ of the linear system

$$
\begin{align*}
\gamma_{k-1}^{(m)} \alpha_{1}^{k-1}+\gamma_{1}^{(m)} \alpha_{1}+\gamma_{0}^{(m) \cdot 1}= & \alpha_{1}^{m+k} \\
\ldots & \ldots  \tag{20}\\
\gamma_{k-1}^{(m)} \alpha_{k}^{k-1}+\gamma_{1}^{(m)} \alpha_{k}+\gamma_{0}^{(m) \cdot 1} & =\alpha_{k}^{m+k}
\end{align*}
$$

3. Then find the $(m+1)$-step predictor from:

$$
\hat{\Phi}(t+m):=E\left(\Phi_{t+m} \mid \Phi_{s}, s \leq t-1\right)=\gamma_{k-1}^{(m)} \Phi(t-1)+\ldots+\gamma_{0}^{(m)} \Phi(t-k)
$$

Note that for $m=0, \gamma_{k-j}^{0}=A_{j}$.
In the general case, if $\alpha_{i}=\alpha_{j}$ for some $i \neq j$, we can use the recursive methods of prediction (Brockwell and Davis (1987)) or methods of Yaglom (1962), §24, relying on the knowledge of roots of the polynomial $P_{2 k}(z)$. Combining the prediction formula for $\Phi$ with the theorem of Dynkin from section 2 we have the following results:
Result 1. Let $X_{u}, u \geq 0$ be a randomized symmetric random walk with jumps of size $\pm 1$ and exponential lifetime:
for $u<\zeta$, when $\zeta \sim \exp (\theta), \theta>0$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{u}=\sum_{i=1}^{N_{u}} \xi_{i}, \quad N_{u} \sim \operatorname{Poisson}(\mu u), \mu>0 \tag{21}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\xi_{i}$ are i.i.d. and $P\left(\xi_{i}= \pm 1\right)=1 / 2$.
Let $l \geq 1$. Then

$$
\begin{equation*}
P\left(X_{u} \geq l \text { for some } u<\zeta\right)=A^{l} ; A=\left(1+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right)-\sqrt{\left(1+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right)^{2}-1} \tag{22}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof: The Gaussian Process $\Phi$ associated with $X$ is an AR(1) process:

$$
\begin{gathered}
\Phi_{t}=A_{1} \Phi_{t-1}+Z_{t} \\
A_{1}=\left(1+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right)-\sqrt{\left(1+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right)^{2}-1} ; \quad Z_{t} \sim \text { White } \operatorname{Noise}\left(0, \frac{2}{\mu} A_{1}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

(see example 1 of the previous section). The prediction formula for $\Phi$ is:

$$
\hat{\Phi}(t+m)=A^{m+1} \Phi_{t-1}, \quad m \geq 0
$$

i.e.

$$
E\left(\Phi_{t+m} \mid \Phi_{s}, s \leq t-1\right)=\sum_{s \leq t-1} p_{t+m}^{\{s: s \leq t-1\}}(s) \Phi_{s}=A^{m+1} \Phi_{t-1}
$$

which means that

$$
p_{t+m}^{\{s: s \leq t-1\}}(t-1) \equiv A^{m+1}
$$

while $p_{t+m}^{\{s: s \leq t-1\}}(s)=0$ for $s<t-1$. But, using the symmetry of $X$, we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
p_{t+m}^{\{s: s \leq t-1\}}(t-1) & =P(X, \text { starting at } t+m, \text { enters }\{s: s \leq t-1\} \text { at point } t-1) \\
& =P(X, \text { starting at } 0, \text { enters }\{s: s \leq-m-1\} \text { at point }-m-1) \\
& =P(X, \text { starting at } 0, \text { enters }\{s: s \geq m+1\} \text { at point } m+1) \\
& =P\left(\max \left(X_{u} ; u<\zeta\right) \geq m+1\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Replace $m+1$ by $l$ and we are done.
Remark. For comparison, we compute (22) using combinatorial methods of Feller(1968). Consider only $l=2$. First, let us find the probability $\pi_{N}$ that the path of length $N$ (i.e. the number of steps is fixed to be $N$ ) starting from the origin has maximum less than 2. This is the same as having minimum greater than -2 . Let us fix an end point ( $N, 2 k$ ), where $k \geq 0, N=2 n$, and $n \geq 1$. The number of paths from the origin to the point $(2 n, 2 k)$ is

$$
N_{2 n, k}=\binom{2 n}{n+k}
$$

each has probability $2^{-2 n}$ (see (III.2.2) of Feller(1968)). The number of paths from the origin to $(2 n, 2 k)$ which visit point -2 is the same as the number of paths from $(0,-4)$ to $(2 n, 2 k)$ (by the reflection principle) and it is equal to the number of paths from $(0,0)$ to $(2 n, 2 k+4)$, i.e. $N_{2 n, 2 k+4}$. Thus, the probability that the path from $(0,0)$ to $(2 n, 2 k)$ will not visit -2 is $2^{-2 n}\left(N_{2 n, 2 k}-N_{2 n, 2 k+4}\right)$, and the probability that the path with $N=2 n$ steps, starting from the origin, will be above level -2 (or below level 2) is

$$
\pi_{N}=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} 2^{-2 n}\left(N_{2 n, 2 k}-N_{2 n, 2 k+4}\right)=2^{-2 n}\left(N_{2 n, 0}+N_{2 n, 2}\right)
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
=2^{-2 n}\left(\binom{2 n}{n}+\binom{2 n}{n+1}\right)=2^{-2 n}\binom{2 n+1}{n+1}=2(-1)^{n+1}\binom{-1 / 2}{n+1} \tag{23}
\end{equation*}
$$

(we used formulas (II.8.6) and (II.12.5) of Feller (1968)). This quantity also represents the probability of interest for a path with $N=2 n+1$ steps, since a path which is below level 2 for $2 n$ steps remains there for at least one additional step. Thus,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P\left(\max \left(X_{u} ; u<\zeta\right) \geq 2\right) \\
& =\int_{0}^{\infty} \theta e^{-\theta z} d z \sum_{N=2}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\mu z}}{N!}(\mu z)^{N}\left(1-\pi_{N}\right) \\
& =\sum_{N=2}^{\infty} \frac{\theta}{\theta+\mu}\left(\frac{\mu}{\theta+\mu}\right)^{N}\left(1-\pi_{N}\right) \\
& =\left(\frac{\mu}{\theta+\mu}\right)^{2}-\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{\theta}{\theta+\mu}\left(\frac{\mu}{\theta+\mu}\right)^{2 n}\left(1+\frac{\mu}{\theta+\mu}\right) 2(-1)^{n+1}\binom{-1 / 2}{n+1} \\
& =\left(\frac{\mu}{\theta+\mu}\right)^{2}-2 \frac{\theta(\theta+2 \mu)}{(\theta+\mu)^{2}} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left(\frac{\mu}{\theta+\mu}\right)^{2 n}(-1)^{n+1}\binom{-1 / 2}{n+1} \\
& =\left(\frac{\mu}{\theta+\mu}\right)^{2}-2 \frac{\theta(\theta+2 \mu)}{(\theta+\mu)^{2}}\left(\frac{\theta+\mu}{\mu}\right)^{2} \sum_{n=2}^{\infty}\left(\frac{\mu}{\theta+\mu}\right)^{2 n}(-1)^{n}\binom{-1 / 2}{n} \\
& =\left(\frac{\mu}{\theta+\mu}\right)^{2}-2 \frac{\theta(\theta+2 \mu)}{\mu^{2}}\left[\left(1-\left(\frac{\mu}{\theta+\mu}\right)^{2}\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}}-1+\left(\frac{\mu}{\theta+\mu}\right)^{2}\binom{-1 / 2}{1}\right] \\
& =\left(\frac{\mu}{\theta+\mu}\right)^{2}-2 \frac{\theta(\theta+2 \mu)}{\mu^{2}} \frac{\theta+\mu}{\sqrt{\theta(\theta+2 \mu)}}+2 \frac{\theta(\theta+2 \mu)}{\mu^{2}}+\frac{\theta(\theta+2 \mu)}{\mu^{2}}\left(\frac{\mu}{\theta+\mu}\right)^{2} \\
& =\left(\frac{\mu}{\theta+\mu}\right)^{2}-2 \frac{\sqrt{\theta(\theta+2 \mu)}(\theta+\mu)}{\mu^{2}}+2 \frac{\theta(\theta+2 \mu)}{\mu^{2}}+\frac{\theta(\theta+2 \mu)}{(\theta+\mu)^{2}} \\
& =1-2\left(1+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right) \sqrt{\frac{\theta}{\mu}\left(2+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right)}+2 \frac{\theta}{\mu}\left(2+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right) \\
& =1+2 \frac{\theta}{\mu}+\left(\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right)^{2}-2\left(1+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right) \sqrt{\frac{\theta}{\mu}\left(2+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right)}+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\left(2+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right) \\
& =\left(\left(1+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right)-\sqrt{\left(1+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right)^{2}-1}\right)^{2} \\
& =A^{2} \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Case $l>2$ involves even more complicated combinatorics and summations. In fact,
$\S 7$ of Chapter II and $\S 6$ of Chapter XIV of Feller (1971), which discuss randomized random walks, deal with jumps of size $\pm 1$ only and use Bessel functions.

Result 2. Let $X_{u}, u \geq 0$ be a randomized symmetric random walk (21) with jumps of size $\pm 1, \pm 2$, i.e. in (21)

$$
P\left(\xi_{i}= \pm 1\right)=p_{1} / 2, \quad P\left(\xi_{i}= \pm 2\right)=p_{2} / 2 ; p_{1}+p_{2}=1
$$

Let $\tau=\min \left\{u>0: X_{u} \in\{1,2, \ldots\}\right\}$. Then

$$
\begin{gathered}
P\left(X_{\tau}=1\right)=\frac{y_{1}+y_{2}}{2}-\sqrt{\frac{y_{1}^{2}}{4}-1}+\sqrt{\frac{y_{2}^{2}}{4}-1} \\
P\left(X_{\tau}=2\right)=\left(\frac{y_{1}}{2}-\sqrt{\frac{y_{1}^{2}}{4}-1}\right)\left(\frac{y_{2}}{2}+\sqrt{\frac{y_{2}^{2}}{4}-1}\right)
\end{gathered}
$$

where

$$
\begin{aligned}
& y_{1}=-\frac{p_{1}}{2 p_{2}}+\sqrt{\frac{p_{1}^{2}}{4 p_{2}^{2}}+2+\frac{2}{p_{2}}\left(1+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right)} \\
& y_{2}=-\frac{p_{1}}{2 p_{2}}-\sqrt{\frac{p_{1}^{2}}{4 p_{2}^{2}}+2+\frac{2}{p_{2}}\left(1+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right)}
\end{aligned}
$$

Proof. The Gaussian process $\Phi$ associated with $X$ is an $\operatorname{AR}(2)$ process $\Phi_{t}=A_{1} \Phi_{t-1}+$ $A_{2} \Phi_{t-2}+Z_{t}$ with $A_{1}, A_{2}, Z_{t}$ defined in (17) - (18). The one-step predictor for $\Phi$ is $\hat{\Phi}(t)=A_{1} \Phi_{t-1}+A_{2} \Phi_{t-2}$. The coefficients $A_{1}, A_{2}$ of the prediction formula are expressed through the first-hit probabilities of the random walk:

$$
A_{1}=p_{t}^{\{s: s \leq t-1\}}(t-1), A_{2}=p_{t}^{\{s: s \leq t-1\}}(t-2)
$$

The symmetry of $X$ gives us the desired formulas.
Using symmetry and reflection properties of random walks, we obtain the following result:

Result 3. Let $X_{u}, u \geq 0$ be as in Result 2. Let

$$
\tau_{n}=\min \left\{u>0: X_{u} \in\{n, n+1, \ldots\}\right\}
$$

Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
P\left(X_{\tau_{n}}=n+1\right) & =\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2} \frac{\alpha_{2}^{n}-\alpha_{1}^{n}}{\alpha_{2}-\alpha_{1}} \\
& =\left(\alpha_{1} \alpha_{2}\right)\left(\alpha_{1}^{n-1}+\alpha_{1}^{n-2} \alpha_{2}+\ldots+\alpha_{2}^{n-1}\right) \\
P\left(X_{\tau_{n}}=n\right) & =\frac{\alpha_{2}^{n+1}-\alpha_{1}^{n+1}}{\alpha_{2}-\alpha_{1}} \\
& =\alpha_{1}^{n}+\alpha_{1}^{n-1} \alpha_{2}+\ldots+\alpha_{2}^{n}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\alpha_{1}$ and $\alpha_{2}$ are defined in (17).
We get this by direct solution of system (20) for the case $k=2$, and the symmetry of the random walk.

For example, if the parameters in Result 2 are $p_{1}=3 / 5, p_{2}=2 / 5, \theta=1 / 16$, and $\mu=5 / 4$, then from the calculations at the end of example 2 of the previous section we find that $P\left(X_{\tau}=1\right)=1 / 2$ and $P\left(X_{\tau}=2\right)=1 / 4$.
Result 4. Let $X_{u}, u \geq 0$ be a randomized symmetric random walk (21) with jumps of size $\pm 1, \pm 2, \ldots, \pm k$, i.e. in (21).

$$
P\left(\xi_{i}= \pm l\right)=p_{l / 2} ; l=1, \ldots, k ; p_{1}+\ldots+p_{k}=1
$$

Assume that all roots $\alpha_{1}, \ldots, \alpha_{k},\left|\alpha_{j}\right|<1$, of the polynomial $P_{2 k}$ from (19) are distinct. Let $\tau_{n}=\min \left\{u>0: X_{u} \in\{n, n+1, \ldots\}\right\}$. Then $P\left(X_{\tau_{n}}=n+l\right)=$ $\gamma_{k-l-1}^{(n-1)}, l=0,1, \ldots, k-1$, where $\gamma_{k-1}^{(n-1)}, \ldots, \gamma_{0}^{(n-1)}$ are found from system (20).
Result 5. Let $X$ be as in Result 4, except without conditions on the roots of $P_{2 k}$. Then $P\left(X_{\tau_{1}}=l+1\right)=\gamma_{k-l-1}^{0}=A_{l+1}, l=0,1, \ldots, k-1$ where $A_{1}, \ldots, A_{k}$ are found from (16).
In general, $P\left(X_{\tau_{n}}=n+l\right), l=0, \ldots, k-1$, can be found as coefficients of $\Phi_{t-l-1}$ in the prediction formula, estimating $\Phi_{t+n-1}$ from observed values $\Phi_{t-1}, \Phi_{t-2}, \ldots$
Until now we were interested in first-hit probabilities for sets of the form $\{n, n+1, \ldots\}$ (the first-hit probabilites for sets $\{\ldots,-(n+1),-n\}$ are the same because of the symmetry of this random walk). The following result involves first-hit probabilities for sets of the form $\{\ldots, q, q+m+1, \ldots\}$ when the process starts from points $q+l$ of the set $\{q+1, \ldots, q+m\}$. A similar situation is discussed in Feller (1968), ch. XIV, $\S 8$, where the problem is related to sequential analysis. As before, we consider a randomized symmetric random walk, for simplicity allowing only jumps of $\pm 1$ at one step.
Result 6. Let $X_{u}, u \geq 0$ be a symmetric randomized random walk (21) with $\xi_{i}$ taking values $\pm 1$ only, each with probability $1 / 2$, except that let now $X_{0}=q+l$. Let $\tau=\min \left\{u>0: X_{u} \in\{\ldots, q, q+m+1, \ldots\}\right\}$, for some $m \geq 1$ and $1 \leq l \leq m$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
P\left(X_{\tau}=q\right) & =A^{l}-A^{2 m+2-l} \frac{1-A^{2 l}}{1-A^{2 m+2}} \\
P\left(X_{\tau}=q+m+1\right) & =A^{m+1-l} \frac{1-A^{2 l}}{1-A^{2 m+2}},
\end{aligned}
$$

where

$$
A=\left(1+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right)-\sqrt{\left(1+\frac{\theta}{\mu}\right)^{2}-1}
$$

Proof. To prove the result we have to show that for an $\operatorname{AR}(1)$ process $\Phi_{t}$ satisfying $\Phi_{t}=A \Phi_{t-1}+Z_{t}, Z_{t} \sim$ White $\operatorname{Noise}(0,2 A / \mu)$, the following prediction formula holds:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Phi_{q+l \mid q, m} & :=E\left(\Phi_{q+l} \mid \Phi_{1}, \ldots, \Phi_{q-1}, \Phi_{q}, \Phi_{q+m+1}, \Phi_{q+m+2}, \ldots, \Phi_{n}\right) \\
& =\left[A^{l}-A^{2 m+2-l} \frac{1-A^{2 l}}{1-A^{2 m+2}}\right] \Phi_{q}+\left[A^{m+1-l} \frac{1-A^{2 l}}{1-A^{2 m+2}}\right] \Phi_{q+m+1}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $n \geq q+m+1$ and $q \geq 1$. The latter follows easily from application of the Kalman Fixed-Point Smoother to estimation of the missing value $\Phi_{q+l}$ of our $\operatorname{AR}(1)$ process (see Brockwell and Davis (1987), §12.7).

The formulas of result 6 can be easily checked for the simplest case, $m=1$ :

$$
\begin{gathered}
P\left(X_{\tau}=q\right)=P\left(X_{\tau}=q+2\right)=1 / 2 P(\text { path length is at least } 1) \\
=1 / 2 \int_{0}^{\infty} \theta e^{-\theta z} d z\left(1-e^{-z \mu}\right)=1 / 2\left(1-\frac{\theta}{\theta+\mu}\right)=\frac{\mu}{2(\theta+\mu)}=\frac{A}{1+A^{2}},
\end{gathered}
$$

where the last equality follows from the identity $A^{2}-2(\theta+\mu) / \mu A+1=0$. The case of $m>1$, however, involves calculations similar to ones following result 1 . The advantage of the method appears when we try to calculate first-hit probabilities for random walks with jumps $\pm 1, \ldots, \pm k, k>1, m \geq 1$, through the theory of estimation of missing values of an $A R(k)$ process. Programs for performing such calculations can be found in Wampler (1986).

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