A two-parameter random walk with approximate exponential probability distribution

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Abstract. We study a non-Markovian random walk in dimension 1. It depends on two parameters $\epsilon_R$ and $\epsilon_L$, the probabilities to go straight on when walking to the right, respectively to the left. The position $x$ of the walk after $n$ steps and the number of reversals of direction $k$ are used to estimate $\epsilon_R$ and $\epsilon_L$. We calculate the joint probability distribution $p_n(x, k)$ in closed form and show that, approximately, it belongs to the exponential family.

Keywords Exponential family, persistent random walk, number of reversals of a random walk, joint probability distribution

1. Introduction

Consider a random walk starting in the origin $x = 0$ of the lattice $\mathbb{Z}$. The probability that after $n$ steps the walk is in $x$ and changed its direction $k$ times is denoted $p_n(x, k)$. This paper investigates the question how $p_n(x, k)$ depends on model parameters. We wonder whether it can be written into the form

$$p_n(x, k) = D_n(x, k) \exp(G + \beta k + Fx).$$

(1)

In this expression, $G$, $\beta$ and $F$ depend on model parameters. However, the prefactor $D_n(x, k)$ does not depend on model parameters. The function $\beta$ has the interpretation of an inverse temperature (in dimensionless units), the function $F$ is an external force, the function $G$, when divided by $\beta$, is a free energy and serves to normalize $p_n(x, k)$ is said to belong to the exponential family. It has nice properties. In particular, averages of $x$ and $k$ can be calculated by taking derivatives of $G$ with respect to the parameters.

Random walk models are omnipresent in statistical physics and have been studied extensively. Quite often results are obtained in the limit of large $n$. Here, the focus is on all $n$. Deviations from $p_n(x, k)$, found below, are neglegible in the large $n$-limit. Standard techniques aim at calculating correlation functions. It is rather seldom that exact expressions for probability distributions can be written down in closed form. In

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the present model such closed form expression exists for $p_n(x,k)$, but probably not for the marginals $p'_n(x) = \sum_k p_n(x,k)$ and $p''_n(k) = \sum_x p_n(x,k)$. Individual events have usually such a small probability that they cannot be evaluated numerically. In addition, in situations with a large number of degrees of freedom, knowledge of $p_n(x,k)$ is not sufficient to evaluate moments of the distribution in closed form. However, if a closed form expression of $p_n(x,k)$ is available then analytic relations can be used to evaluate relevant quantities.

The model, considered here, is that of a one-dimensional persistent random walk (see e.g. [1]) with drift. Many generalizations of the persistent random walk can be found in literature, e.g. for continuous time [2], or with a memory that goes back more than one step [3]. Planar persistent random walks have been studied in [4, 5].

Our model is a toy model that helps to understand features of more realistic models used in several branches of physics. One such application, well-known since the pioneering work of Flory [6], is the use of random walks to model the geometry of polymers. Persistent random walks play also a role in understanding the transition from ballistic to diffusive transport [10, 11, 12] and have been applied in financial physics, see e.g. [13].

Recent technological progress has made it possible to do experiments on single molecules and to measure the elongation of a single polymer $\langle x \rangle$ as a function of applied force $F$ (see e.g. [7, 8, 9]). The analysis of these experiments is based on the assumption that $p'_n(x)$ is proportional to $\exp(-\beta V(x) + F x)$ for some potential $V(x)$. This relation follows from (1) with $\exp(-\beta V(x)) = \sum_k D_n(x,k)e^{\beta k}$. The latter expression shows that $V(x)$ is indeed a free energy, as claimed in [9]. An in depth discussion of these experiments based on the results of the present paper is found in [14].

In the next section the model is introduced. In Section 3 average values for position $x$ and number of reversals $k$ are calculated using the method of generating functions. In Section 4 the number of walks ending in $x$ after $n$ steps, and having a given number of reversals $k$, is calculated. These counting results are used in Section 5 to write down the joint probability distribution $p_n(x,k)$. Section 6 considers the dependence of $p_n(x,k)$ on the parameters $\epsilon_R$ and $\epsilon_L$ and tries to answer the question whether this two-parameter probability distribution function (pdf) belongs to the exponential family. Section 7 shows how to calculate averages starting from the knowledge that the pdf is exponential. The final section gives a short discussion of the results.

2. Model

Consider a discrete-time random walk on the one-dimensional lattice $\mathbb{Z}$. The probability of the walk to step to the right (i.e., with increasing position) equals $\epsilon_R$ when coming from the left and $1 - \epsilon_L$ when coming from the right. This is not a Markov chain since the walk remembers the direction it comes from. Let $x_n$ be the position of the walk after $n$ steps. Let $\sigma_n = x_n - x_{n-1}$ be the direction of the $n$-th step. Then $x_{n+1} = x_n + 1$
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with probability

\[ \frac{1}{2}(1 + \sigma_n)\epsilon_R + \frac{1}{2}(1 - \sigma_n)(1 - \epsilon_L), \]  

(2)

\[ x_{n+1} = x_n - 1 \text{ otherwise.} \]

The process of the increments \( \sigma_n \) is a two-state Markov chain with transition matrix

\[ P = \begin{pmatrix} \epsilon_R & 1 - \epsilon_R \\ 1 - \epsilon_L & \epsilon_L \end{pmatrix}. \]  

(3)

In the stationary state \( \sigma_n \) equals \( \pm 1 \) with probability \( p^{(0)}_{\pm} \) given by

\[ p^{(0)}_+ = \frac{1 - \epsilon_L}{2 - \epsilon_R - \epsilon_L}, \quad p^{(0)}_- = \frac{1 - \epsilon_R}{2 - \epsilon_R - \epsilon_L}. \]  

(4)

Let \( k_n \) denote the number of reversals of the walk after \( n \) steps. By definition a reversal occurs at step \( n \) if \( \sigma_{n-1}\sigma_n = -1 \). Hence one has

\[ x_n = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sigma_j \]  

(5)

\[ k_n = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (1 - \sigma_{j-1}\sigma_j). \]  

(6)

The quantity of interest in this paper is the joint probability of position \( x_n \) and number of reversals \( k_n \). The obvious initial conditions are \( x_0 = 0 \) and \( \sigma_0 = \pm 1 \) with probability \( p^{(0)}_{\pm} \).

The physical interpretation of the model is twofold. The random walk is a simple model of a polymer with \( n \) units. Energy is proportional to minus the number of reversals \( k_n \). The position of the end point \( x_n \) measures the effect of an external force applied to the end point. Alternatively, \( k_n \) is the number of domains (decreased by 1 if \( \sigma_1 = \sigma_0 \)) of an Ising chain, and \( x_n \) is the total magnetization. Indeed, the variables \( \sigma_n \) describe Ising spins on a one-dimensional lattice. A domain is then a set of subsequent sites where the spins all have the same value, either up (+1) or down (-1). The boundary between two domains involves a reversal \( (\sigma_{j-1}\sigma_j = -1) \).

3. Generating functions

Let \( p^{\pm}(n, x, k) \) denote the probability that \( \sigma_n = \pm 1, x_n = x, \) and \( k_n = k \). The joint probability distribution, searched for, is then

\[ p_n(x, k) = p^n_+(x, k) + p^n_-(x, k). \]  

(7)

The following recursion relations hold

\[ p^{+}_n(x, k) = \epsilon_R p^{+}_{n-1}(x - 1, k) + (1 - \epsilon_L)p^{+}_{n-1}(x - 1, k - 1) \]  

(8)

\[ p^{-}_n(x, k) = (1 - \epsilon_R)p^{+}_{n-1}(x + 1, k - 1) + \epsilon_Lp^{+}_{n-1}(x + 1, k). \]  

(9)

Introduce generating functions

\[ f^{(n)}_x(w, z) = \sum_{x=-n}^{n} w^x \sum_{k=0}^{n} z^k p^{\pm}_n(x, k). \]  

(10)
and a similar expression for \( f^{(n)}(w, z) \). They satisfy

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
  f_+(n) \\
  f_-(n)
\end{pmatrix}
= M(w, z)
\begin{pmatrix}
  f_+(n-1) \\
  f_-(n-1)
\end{pmatrix}
\]

(11)

with

\[
M(w, z) = \begin{pmatrix}
  \epsilon_R w & (1 - \epsilon_L) wz \\
  (1 - \epsilon_R) z/w & \epsilon_L / w
\end{pmatrix}.
\]

(12)

It is possible to calculate the \( n \)-th power of this matrix by first diagonalizing it. The result is

\[
M^n(w, z) = \frac{1}{2} (\lambda^n_+ + \lambda^n_-) \begin{pmatrix}
  1 & 0 \\
  0 & 1
\end{pmatrix}
+ \frac{1}{2\nu} (\lambda^n_+ - \lambda^n_-) \begin{pmatrix}
  w\epsilon_R - \epsilon_L / w & 2(1 - \epsilon_L) wz \\
  2(1 - \epsilon_R) z/w & -w\epsilon_R + \epsilon_L / w
\end{pmatrix},
\]

(13)

with

\[
\lambda_\pm = \frac{1}{2}(\epsilon_R w + \epsilon_L / w \pm \nu)
\]

(14)

and

\[
\nu = \sqrt{(\epsilon_R w - \epsilon_L / w)^2 + 4(1 - \epsilon_R)(1 - \epsilon_L)z^2}.
\]

(15)

Let us now consider initial values. Note that \( f^{(0)}_\pm(w, z) \) is not yet defined because \( k_0 \) involves \( \sigma_{-1} \), which is undetermined. Starting point is therefore \( f^{(1)}_\pm(w, z) \), which is found to be given by

\[
f^{(1)}_\pm(w, z) = M(w, z) \begin{pmatrix}
  p^{(0)}_+ \\
  p^{(0)}_-
\end{pmatrix}.
\]

(16)

Hence, it is obvious to define

\[
f^{(0)}_\pm(w, z) = \begin{pmatrix}
  p^{(0)}_+ \\
  p^{(0)}_-
\end{pmatrix}.
\]

(17)

The generating function \( f^{(n)}(w, z) \) is now explicitly known

\[
f^{(n)}(w, z) = \frac{1}{2} (\lambda^n_+ + \lambda^n_-) + \frac{1}{2\nu} (\lambda^n_+ - \lambda^n_-) \left[ (\epsilon_R w - \epsilon_L / w)(p^{(0)}_+ - p^{(0)}_-) + 2(1 - \epsilon_R)p^{(0)}_+ z/w + 2(1 - \epsilon_L)p^{(0)}_- wz \right].
\]

(18)

It can be used to calculate expectation values by taking derivatives. For example,

\[
\langle k_n \rangle = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \bigg|_{w=z=1} f^{(n)}(w, z)
= 2n \frac{(1 - \epsilon_R)(1 - \epsilon_L)}{2 - \epsilon_R - \epsilon_L},
\]

(19)

and

\[
\langle x_n \rangle = \frac{\partial}{\partial w} \bigg|_{w=z=1} f^{(n)}(w, z)
= n \frac{\epsilon_R - \epsilon_L}{2 - \epsilon_R - \epsilon_L}.
\]

(20)
4. Counting walks

The present section is temporarily limited to the special case \( \epsilon_R = \epsilon_L = 1/2 \). From the next section on the general model will be considered again. Indeed, we first determine the number of walks \( c_\pm(n, x, s) \) which, starting in the origin in direction \( \pm 1 \), end in \( x \) after \( n \) steps and have \( s \) segments. The result does not depend on the value of \( \epsilon_R \) and \( \epsilon_L \). Hence the calculation can be done in the simplest case. In the next section the result will be used to calculate the joint probability distribution \( p_n(x, k) \) for the general model.

Divide the walk into segments of constant \( \sigma_j \). Number these segments from 1 to \( s_n \). Note that \( s_n = k_n + 1 \) if \( \sigma_1 = \sigma_0 \), \( s_n = k_n \) otherwise. This means that the number of segments equals 1 plus the number of reversals, not counting the initial reversal at \( x = 0 \), if present. Let \( \tau_j \) denote the length of the \( j \)-th segment. The probability that segment \( j \) has length \( l \) equals \( 2^{-l} \). The probability of counting \( s \) segments in a walk of \( n \) steps satisfies

\[
P(s_n = s) = \mathcal{P}\left( \sum_{j=1}^{s-1} \tau_j < n \leq \sum_{j=1}^{s} \tau_j \right)
= \sum_{l_1=1}^{\infty} \cdots \sum_{l_s=1}^{\infty} 2^{-l_1-\cdots-l_s} \mathbb{I}\{l_1 + \cdots + l_{s-1} < n \leq l_1 + \cdots + l_s\}
= \sum_{m=s-1}^{n-1} 2^{-m} \sum_{l_1=1}^{\infty} \cdots \sum_{l_{s-1}=1}^{\infty} \delta_{m,l_1+\cdots+l_{s-1}} \sum_{l_s=n-m}^{\infty} 2^{-l_s}
= 2^{-(n-1)} \sum_{m=s-1}^{n-1} \sum_{l_1=1}^{\infty} \cdots \sum_{l_{s-1}=1}^{\infty} \delta_{m,l_1+\cdots+l_{s-1}}
= 2^{-(n-1)} \left( \frac{n-1}{s-1} \right). \tag{21}
\]

Hence the conditional probability given a certain number of segments equals

\[
P(\tau_1 = l_1, \ldots, \tau_{s-1} = l_{s-1} \mid s_n = s) = \left( \frac{n-1}{s-1} \right)^{-1}. \tag{22}
\]

This means that the variables \( \tau_j \), after conditioning on a given number of segments, become uniformly distributed. This observation simplifies the following calculation.

The position \( x_n \) of the walk after \( n \) steps, assuming \( s_n \) segments, can be expressed into the segment lengths as

\[
x_n = \sigma_1 \left( \tau_1 - \tau_2 + \cdots \pm \tau_{s_n-1} \mp (n - \sum_{j=1}^{s_n-1} \tau_j) \right). \tag{23}
\]

The \( \pm \)-sign depends on whether the number of segments \( s_n \) is even or odd and equals \((-1)^{\epsilon_n}\). One obtains

\[
x_n = \sigma_1 \left( 2(\tau_1 + \tau_3 + \cdots + \tau_{s_n-1}) - n \right) \quad \text{if } s_n \text{ is even}
= \sigma_1 \left( n - 2(\tau_2 + \tau_4 + \cdots + \tau_{s_n-1}) \right) \quad \text{if } s_n \text{ is odd.} \tag{24}
\]
For simplicity let us first consider the case of an even number of segments. Let $s > 0$ be even. Then one has

$$\mathcal{P}(x_n = x, s_n = s) = \mathcal{P}(s_n = s)\mathcal{P}(\tau_1 + \tau_3 \cdots + \tau_{s-1} = (n + \sigma_1 x)/2 \mid s_n = s)$$

$$= 2^{-(n-1)} \sum_{l_1=1}^{\infty} \cdots \sum_{l_{s-1}=1}^{\infty} \Pi \{ \sum_{j=1}^{s-1} l_j < n, l_1 + l_3 + \cdots + l_{s-1} = (n + \sigma_1 x)/2 \}$$

$$= 2^{-(n-1)} \sum_{l_1=1}^{\infty} \sum_{l_2=1}^{\infty} \cdots \sum_{l_{s-1}=1}^{\infty} \Pi \{ l_1 + l_3 + \cdots + l_{s-1} = (n + \sigma_1 x)/2 \}$$

$$\times \sum_{l_2=1}^{\infty} \sum_{l_3=1}^{\infty} \cdots \sum_{l_{s-1}=1}^{\infty} \Pi \{ l_2 + l_4 + \cdots + l_{s-2} < (n - \sigma_1 x)/2 \}$$

$$= 2^{-(n-1)} \Theta_n^+ (x, s) C(n + x - 2, s - 2) C(n - x - 2, s - 2) \quad (25)$$

with

$$C(n, m) = \frac{n!!}{m!!((n - m)!!)} \quad (26)$$

and with $\Theta_n^\pm (x, s)$ equal 1 if there exists a walk of $n$ steps, starting in the origin in direction $\pm 1$, ending in $x$, and containing $s$ segments, and zero otherwise.

If $s$ is odd, $s \geq 3$, then one has

$$\mathcal{P}(x_n = x, s_n = s) = \mathcal{P}(s_n = s)\mathcal{P}(\tau_2 + \tau_4 \cdots + \tau_{s-1} = (n - \sigma_1 x)/2 \mid s_n = s)$$

$$= 2^{-(n-1)} \sum_{l_1=1}^{\infty} \cdots \sum_{l_{s-1}=1}^{\infty} \Pi \{ \sum_{j=1}^{s-1} l_j < n, l_1 + l_3 + \cdots + l_{s-1} = (n - \sigma_1 x)/2 \}$$

$$= 2^{-(n-1)} \sum_{l_1=1}^{\infty} \sum_{l_2=1}^{\infty} \cdots \sum_{l_{s-2}=1}^{\infty} \Pi \{ l_1 + l_3 + \cdots + l_{s-2} < (n + \sigma_1 x)/2 \}$$

$$\times \sum_{l_2=1}^{\infty} \sum_{l_3=1}^{\infty} \cdots \sum_{l_{s-1}=1}^{\infty} \Pi \{ l_2 + l_4 + \cdots + l_{s-1} = (n - \sigma_1 x)/2 \}$$

$$= 2^{-(n-1)} \Theta_n^\pm (x, s) C(n + \sigma_1 x - 2, s - 1) C(n - \sigma_1 x - 2, s - 3). \quad (27)$$

Note that, in case of an odd number of segments, the number of walks ending in $x_n$ depends on whether the walk starts to the left or to the right.

Finally, if $s = 1$ then there is clearly only one walk ending in the point $x_n$.

5. The joint probability distribution

Let us return to the general case with arbitrary $\epsilon_R$ and $\epsilon_L$. The probability of a given $n$-step walk depends only on $\sigma_0$, and on the final values $x_n$ and $k_n$. To see this, note
that a segment of length \( \tau \) has probability \((1 - \epsilon_R)\epsilon_R^{\tau - 1}\) if the direction is positive, and \((1 - \epsilon_L)\epsilon_L^{\tau - 1}\) if the direction is negative. A factor \( \epsilon_R \) can be associated with every step to the right, and \( \epsilon_L \) with every step to the left. But then a factor \((1 - \epsilon_R)/\epsilon_R\), respectively \((1 - \epsilon_L)/\epsilon_L\), must be associated with every reversal of direction from leftgoing to rightgoing, respectively rightgoing to leftgoing.

The number of steps to the right respectively to the left is \((n + x_n)/2\), respectively \((n - x_n)/2\). The number of reversals from leftgoing to rightgoing is denoted \(k_n^+\), from rightgoing to leftgoing \(k_n^-\). They depend on whether the number of reversals is even or odd. If \(k_n\) is odd then

\[
k_n^\pm = (k_n \pm \sigma_0)/2.
\]

Obviously is \(k_n^- + k_n^+ = k_n\) and \(k_n^+ - k_n^- = \sigma_0\). On the other hand, if \(k_n\) is even then the number of reversals is \(k_n^- = k_n^+ = k_n/2\), independent of the direction \(\sigma_0\). In both cases, the probability of the \(n\)-step walk, given that it ends in \(x\), has \(k^+\) reversals when going right and \(k^-\) when going left, is

\[
\gamma_n(x, k^+, k^-) \equiv \epsilon_R^{\frac{k^+}{2}} \epsilon_L^{\frac{k^-}{2}} \left( \frac{1 - \epsilon_R}{\epsilon_L} \right)^{k^+} \left( \frac{1 - \epsilon_L}{\epsilon_R} \right)^{k^-}.
\]

The number of such walks is denoted \(D_n^{\sigma_0}(x, k^+, k^-)\) and equals

\[
D_n^{\sigma_0}(x, k^+, k^-) = \Theta_{n+1}(x + \sigma_0, k^+ + k^- + 1)\Xi_{\sigma_0}^{k^+, k^-} \times C(n - 1 + x + \sigma_0, 2k^- + \sigma_0 - 1) \times C(n - 1 - x - \sigma_0, 2k^+ - \sigma_0 - 1).
\]

The function \(\Xi_{\sigma_0}^{k^+, k^-}\) equals 1 if \(k^+ = k^-\) or \(k^+ - k^- = \sigma_0\) and zero otherwise. To see from where (33) follows, consider a walk of \(n + 1\) steps starting at position \(-\sigma_0\) and apply the results of the previous section. Note that the number of segments of this walk is \(k^+ + k^- + 1\).

The final result for the joint probability distribution \(p_n(x, k)\) is then

\[
p_n(x, k) = p_n^{(0)} q_n^+(x, k) + p_n^{(0)} q_n^-(x, k)
\]

with the probability distribution \(q_n^\pm(x, k)\) given by

\[
q_n^\pm(x, k) = D_n^\pm \left( x, \frac{k}{2}, \frac{k}{2} \right) \gamma_n \left( x, \frac{k}{2}, \frac{k}{2} \right), \quad k \text{ even}
\]

\[
= D_n^\pm \left( x, \frac{k \pm 1}{2}, \frac{k \pm 1}{2} \right) \gamma_n \left( x, \frac{k \pm 1}{2}, \frac{k \pm 1}{2} \right), \quad k \text{ odd}.
\]

As an example let us calculate

\[
p_4(2, 3) = p_4^{(0)} D_4^+(2, 2, 1)\gamma_4(2, 2, 1) + p_4^{(0)} D_4^-(2, 1, 2)\gamma_4(2, 1, 2).
\]

One has

\[
D_4^+(2, 2, 1) = \Theta_5^+(3, 4)\Xi^+(2, 1)C(6, 2)C(0, 2)
\]

\[
D_4^-(2, 1, 2) = \Theta_5^-(1, 4)\Xi^-(1, 2)C(4, 2)C(2, 2).
\]
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Clearly, $\Theta^+_5(3, 4) = 0$ and $\Theta^-_5(1, 4) = 1$. Using

$$\gamma_4(2, 1, 2) = \epsilon_R(1 - \epsilon_R)(1 - \epsilon_L)^2$$

one obtains

$$p_4(2, 3) = 2\epsilon_R \frac{(1 - \epsilon_R)^2(1 - \epsilon_L)^2}{2 - \epsilon_R - \epsilon_L}.$$  (37)

This example shows that sometimes only one of the two terms contributing to the r.h.s. of (31) does not vanish.

6. Exponential family

One can write

$$\gamma_n \left( x, \frac{k}{2}, \frac{k}{2} \right) = \exp(G + \beta k + F x)$$

with

$$F = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{\epsilon_R}{\epsilon_L}$$

$$\beta = -\frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{\epsilon_R \epsilon_L}{(1 - \epsilon_R)(1 - \epsilon_L)}$$

$$G = \frac{n}{2} \ln \epsilon_R \epsilon_L.$$  (41)

This allows us to write $q_n^\pm(x, k)$, appearing in our main result (31), as

$$q_n^\pm(x, k) = D_n^\pm \left( x, \frac{k \pm \Delta}{2}, \frac{k \mp \Delta}{2} \right) \exp(G + \beta k + F x \pm \gamma \Delta),$$

where

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{2} \ln \frac{(1 - \epsilon_R)\epsilon_R}{(1 - \epsilon_L)\epsilon_L},$$

and with $\Delta = 1$ if $k$ is odd, and zero if $k$ is even. Hence the probability distributions $q_n^\pm(x, k)$ belong to the exponential family, however not with two but with three parameters $\beta$, $F$, and $\gamma$. The third parameter $\gamma$ controls boundary effects. Hence, $p_n(x, k)$ is a superposition of two distributions $q_n^\pm(x, k)$, both belonging to the exponential family. However, the domains on which these two pdfs differ from zero are not identical.

If $n$ is large then the variable $\Delta$ can usually be neglected, being small compared to typical values of $k$ and $x$. One obtains the approximate result that, for those values of $x$ and $k$ for which $p_n(x, k) \neq 0$,

$$p_n(x, k) \simeq \left( \frac{n \pm \Delta}{k/2} \right) \left( \frac{n \mp \Delta}{k/2} \right) \exp(G + \beta k + F x).$$  (44)

This shows that $p_n(x, k)$ approximately belongs to the exponential family with two parameters $\beta$ and $F$. Deviations between l.h.s. and r.h.s. of (44) occur for two reasons: there is a subtle difference in expressions for even $k$ and for odd $k$, and there is a small dependence on the initial condition $\sigma_0$. 


7. Calculating averages

Let us now see what exponential expressions are good for. First consider the approximate expression (44). From \( \sum_{x,k} p_n(x, k) = 1 \) follows

\[
0 \simeq \sum_n \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} p_n(x, k) \left( \frac{\partial G}{\partial \beta} + \langle k \rangle \right) = \sum_n \frac{\partial}{\partial F} p_n(x, k) \left( \frac{\partial G}{\partial F} + \langle x \rangle \right).
\]

Using (41) there follows

\[
0 = n^2 \epsilon_R - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_R (1 - \epsilon_R) \langle k \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_R \langle x \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_R (1 - \epsilon_R) \langle \Delta \rangle \tag{47}
\]

\[
0 = n^2 \epsilon_L - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_L (1 - \epsilon_L) \langle k \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_L \langle x \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_L (1 - \epsilon_L) \langle \Delta \rangle \tag{48}
\]

When solving these equations for \( \langle k \rangle \) and \( \langle x \rangle \) one recovers (19, 20). Hence, from the approximate result (44), which one can guess without hard work, one obtains immediately exact results for the averages \( \langle k \rangle \) and \( \langle x \rangle \).

Let us now try to do the same starting from the exact expressions (31, 42). From the normalization of \( q_{\pm}^\pm(x, k) \) follows the set of equations

\[
0 = n^2 \epsilon_R - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_R (1 - \epsilon_R) \langle k \rangle \pm + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_R \langle x \rangle \pm \pm \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_R (1 - \epsilon_R) \langle \Delta \rangle \pm \tag{49}
\]

\[
0 = n^2 \epsilon_L - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_L (1 - \epsilon_L) \langle k \rangle \pm - \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_L \langle x \rangle \pm \pm \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_L (1 - \epsilon_L) \langle \Delta \rangle \pm \tag{50}
\]

They can be written as

\[
\langle x \rangle \pm = n \frac{\epsilon_R - \epsilon_L}{2 - \epsilon_R - \epsilon_L} \pm \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_R \pm \epsilon_L \langle \Delta \rangle \pm \tag{51}
\]

\[
\langle k \rangle \pm = 2 n \frac{(1 - \epsilon_R)(1 - \epsilon_L)}{2 - \epsilon_R - \epsilon_L} \pm \frac{\epsilon_R - \epsilon_L}{2 - \epsilon_R - \epsilon_L} \langle \Delta \rangle \pm \tag{52}
\]

For large \( n \), the effect of the terms in \( \Delta \) is small, as can be seen from these equations.

Comparison with (19, 20) gives

\[
p_r^{(0)} \langle \Delta \rangle^+ = p_r^{(0)} \langle \Delta \rangle^- \tag{53}
\]

Hence one can write

\[
\langle \Delta \rangle^+ = \frac{2 - \epsilon_R - \epsilon_L}{2 (1 - \epsilon_L)} \langle \Delta \rangle \tag{54}
\]

\[
\langle \Delta \rangle^- = \frac{2 - \epsilon_R - \epsilon_L}{2 (1 - \epsilon_R)} \langle \Delta \rangle \tag{55}
\]

It is however not clear how to obtain a closed form expression for \( \langle \Delta \rangle \), which is the probability that \( k_n \) is odd.

The averages (51, 52) are calculated with boundary conditions \( \sigma_0 = +1 \) or \( \sigma_0 = -1 \). The expressions are the sum of a part independent of the boundary condition and a small contribution which depends on the boundary condition and on the probability.
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Figure 1. Average position $\langle x \rangle$, divide by $n$, as a function of external force $F$ for two different values of $\beta$; based on Equations (20, 39, 40).

$\langle \Delta \rangle$ that the number of reversals $k_n$ is odd. An annoying consequence of the fact that the probabilities $q_n^\pm(x, k)$ belong to the exponential family with three parameters instead of two is that the averages of $x_n$ and $k_n$ cannot be obtained from (42) by simple taking of derivatives. Even when the results of Section 3 are invoqued, not all quantities can be determined. In particular the probability $\langle \Delta \rangle$ cannot be obtained in this way.

Simple random walk corresponds with the choice $\epsilon_R = \epsilon_L = 1/2$. This implies infinite temperature (i.e. vanishing $\beta$) and absence of drift ($F = 0$). The third parameter $\gamma$ vanishes as well. Also random walk with drift is a special case, corresponding with $\epsilon_R + \epsilon_L = 1$. Again, $\beta = 0$ and $\gamma = 0$ follow. A persistent random walk is obtained when $\epsilon_R = \epsilon_L$. This implies $F = 0$, but non-vanishing $\beta$ and $\gamma$.

8. Discussion

We have studied a simple model of random walk depending on two parameters $\epsilon_R$ and $\epsilon_L$. The parameters are estimated using the position $x_n$ of the walk after $n$ steps, and the number of reversals of direction $k_n$. The technique of generating functions is used to calculate averages $\langle x_n \rangle$ and $\langle k_n \rangle$. Next, explicit expressions are obtained for the number of walks that end in the same position $x_n$ and have the same number of reversals $k_n$. These counts are used to write an explicit result (31) for the joint probability distribution $p_n(x, k)$. In the final part of the paper we try to write this joint probability distribution in the form of an exponential family. This succeeds only in an approximate manner. The distribution $p_n(x, k)$ is a superposition of two pdfs $q_n(x, k)$, both belonging to the exponential family, but with three parameters instead of two. The third parameter controls the probability that the number of reversals is odd. The difference between walks with even or odd number of reversals vanishes in the limit of large $n$.

Some of the main results of the paper are explicit expressions (39, 40) for thermodynamic parameters $\beta$ and $F$ in terms of the model parameters $\epsilon_R$ and $\epsilon_L$. They
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are used in Figure 1 to plot average position as a function of external force $F$. The latter quantity can be measured experimentally. Our result shows a typical sigmoidal curve, in qualitative agreement with the measurements of [7]. A more profound discussion of the implications of the present work is found in [14].

The calculation of the probability $\langle \Delta \rangle$ that the number of reversals is odd is an open problem. Also did we not succeed to obtain a closed expression for the marginal distribution $p'_n(x) = \sum_k p_n(x, k)$ of the position of the walker. Note that the result of Section 4, counting walks with given $x$ and $k$, is not needed in later sections to derive expressions for average position and average number of reversals. This is a positive consequence of knowing that the parameter dependence of the probability distributions of [12] is exponential. There is good hope to find distributions belonging to the exponential family also in more general models, because exact relations can be derived, even in cases where counting walks would raise an unsurmountable problem.

Deviations from exponential distribution, as in expression [14], are due to memory effects. The walker remembers initial conditions, even if these are carefully chosen. Reason here is that the process is non-markovian. Of course, these effects are negligible when the number of steps $n$ is large. In many realistic models long range interactions produce memory effects which remain important for large $n$. E.g., in polymers the excluded volume effect causes long range interactions. Such models are less suited for rigorous analysis. We expect that deviations from exponential dependence, found for finite $n$ in the present model, will occur in models with long range interactions, even in the limit of large system size.

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