

## IS THE SIBUYA DISTRIBUTION A PROGENY?

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### Abstract

For  $0 < a < 1$ , the Sibuya distribution  $s_a$  is concentrated on the set  $\mathbb{N}^+$  of positive integers and is defined by the generating function  $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} s_a(n)z^n = 1 - (1 - z)^a$ . A distribution  $q$  on  $\mathbb{N}^+$  is called a progeny if there exists a branching process  $(Z_n)_{n \geq 0}$  such that  $Z_0 = 1$ , such that  $\mathbb{E}(Z_1) \leq 1$ , and such that  $q$  is the distribution of  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} Z_n$ . In this paper we prove that  $s_a$  is a progeny if and only if  $\frac{1}{2} \leq a < 1$ . The main point is to find the values of  $b = 1/a$  such that the power series expansion of  $u(1 - (1 - u)^b)^{-1}$  has nonnegative coefficients.

*Keywords:* Branching process; progeny; Sibuya law

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## 1. Introduction

### 1.1. Progeny of a branching process

If  $p$  is a distribution on the set  $\mathbb{N}$  of nonnegative integers with generating function

$$f_p(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p_n z^n,$$

consider the branching process  $(Z_n)_{n=0}^{\infty}$  governed by  $p$ . It is easily seen that

$$\mathbb{E}(z^{Z_n}) = f_p^{(n)}(z) = f_p(\dots(f_p(z))\dots) \quad n \text{ times.}$$

It is well known that  $\Pr(\text{there exists } n: Z_n = 0) = 1$  if and only if  $m = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n p_n \leq 1$ . Under these circumstances, the random variable

$$S = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} Z_n$$

is finite. Its distribution  $q$  is called the progeny of  $p$  and we have the following link between the generating functions of  $p$  and  $q$ . For all  $z$  such that  $|z| \leq 1$  the following holds:

$$f_q(z) = z f_p(f_q(z)). \tag{1}$$

Since  $Z_0 = 1$ , the sum  $S$  is concentrated on  $\mathbb{N}^+$ . Given  $p$ , the calculation of  $q$ , or of  $f_q$ , is not easy in general. It can be done using the Lagrange–Bürmann formula (see [7, p. 129]).

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To compute  $q$ , the only simple case is when  $f_p$  is a fractional linear function (also called the Möbius or homographic function); see [6, p. 266]. Surprisingly enough, given  $f_q$ , computing  $f_p$  is easier. In fact, the function  $z = g(u) = f_q^{(-1)}(u)$  valued in  $[0, 1]$  is well defined for  $u \in [0, 1]$  by  $u = f_q(z)$  and (1) leads to

$$f_p(u) = \frac{u}{g(u)}. \tag{2}$$

Although the correspondence  $p \mapsto q$  is one-to-one, clearly not all distributions  $q$  on  $\mathbb{N}^+$  can be the progeny of some  $p$ . For instance,  $q$  cannot have a bounded support, except in the degenerate case where  $p_0 = 1$ . Another necessary condition for  $q$  to be a progeny is  $q_1 = f'_q(0) > 0$ . If that were not true, the reciprocal function  $g$  of  $f_q$  would not be analytic at 0. In general, given a probability  $q$  on  $\mathbb{N}^+$ , no necessary and sufficient condition for  $q$  to be a progeny is known. Two classical treatises on these subjects are [3] and [1].

### 1.2. Sibuya distribution

In the remainder of this paper, we use the Pochhammer symbol  $(x)_n = x(x + 1) \cdots (x + n - 1)$ . The Sibuya distribution  $s_a$  with parameter  $a \in (0, 1)$  is a probability on positive integers  $\mathbb{N}^+ = \{1, 2, \dots\}$  such that if  $S \sim s_a$  then

$$f_{s_a}(z) = \mathbb{E}(z^S) = 1 - (1 - z)^a. \tag{3}$$

It is easily seen that, for  $n \geq 1$ ,

$$\Pr(S = n) = s_a(n) = \frac{1}{n!} a(1 - a)(2 - a) \cdots (n - 1 - a) = \frac{-(-a)_n}{n!}. \tag{4}$$

Although this law  $s_a$  has been considered before, traditionally one refers to [5] for its study. In the latter,  $s_a$  appears as a particular case of what Sibuya calls a digamma law: Equations (16) and (28) of that paper for  $\gamma = -\alpha = a$  yield (4) above. Surprisingly, (3) does not appear in the paper. If  $S \sim s_{1/2}$ , the distribution of  $2S$  is well known as the law of first return to 0 of a simple random walk. Another probabilistic interpretation of  $S \sim s_a$  is  $S(w) = \min\{n : w \in A_n\}$ , where  $(A_n)_{n \geq 1}$  is a sequence of independent events such that  $\Pr(A_n) = a/n$ . Kozubowski and Podgórski [4] provided numerous observations and a rich set of references about  $s_a$ .

The most interesting feature of the Sibuya law from the point of view of branching processes is the semigroup property  $f_{s_a} \circ f_{s_{a'}} = f_{s_{aa'}}$ . This implies that if the branching process  $(Z_n)_{n=0}^\infty$  is governed by  $s_a$  then the law of  $Z_n$  is quite explicit and is equal to  $s_{a^n}$ . This distribution is an example of an embeddable law in a continuous semigroup for composition. See [2] for instance. There are other variations of this distribution, sometimes informally called Sibuya distributions. One is the mixture of  $s_a$  with the Dirac measure at 0,  $(1 - \lambda)\delta_0 + \lambda s_a$ , where  $0 < \lambda \leq 1$ , which has generating function

$$f_{(1-\lambda)\delta_0 + \lambda s_a}(u) = 1 - \lambda(1 - u)^a. \tag{5}$$

Another one is the natural exponential family extension of the Sibuya distribution, say  $s_a^{(\rho)}$ , defined for  $0 < \rho \leq 1$  by its generating function

$$f_{s_a^{(\rho)}}(u) = c(1 - (1 - \rho u)^a), \quad c = \frac{1}{1 - (1 - \rho)^a}. \tag{6}$$

However, in the present paper ‘Sibuya law’ will mean  $s_a$  for some  $0 < a < 1$  only.

**1.3. When is the Sibuya distribution a progeny?**

Since the Sibuya distribution is concentrated on  $\mathbb{N}^+$ , has an unbounded support, and satisfies  $q_1 = a > 0$ , the natural question is the following: given  $a \in (0, 1)$ , does there exist  $p$  such that  $q = s_a$ ? The following proposition gives the answer and constitutes the aim of the present paper.

**Proposition 1.** *The Sibuya distribution  $s_a$  is a progeny if and only if  $\frac{1}{2} \leq a < 1$ .*

Note that the question is a natural question, since we can compute  $g$  explicitly. One should not wonder whether (5) is a progeny, since it has an atom at 0. Case (6) is more interesting.

**Corollary 1.** *For  $\rho \in (0, 1)$ , the distribution  $s_a^{(\rho)}$  is a progeny if and only if  $\frac{1}{2} \leq a < 1$ .*

**2. Proofs**

*Proof of Proposition 1.* For simplicity, we let  $b = 1/a > 1$ . Calculating the function  $g$  which appears in (2) is easy since, if  $u \in [0, 1]$ , the only solution  $z \in [0, 1]$  of the equation  $u = 1 - (1 - z)^{1/b}$  is  $g(u) = 1 - (1 - u)^b$ . We therefore have to prove that the function

$$u \mapsto h_b(u) = \frac{u}{1 - (1 - u)^b}$$

has a power series expansion with nonnegative coefficients if and only if  $1 \leq b \leq 2$ .

We let  $B$  denote the set of  $b > 1$  such that  $s_{1/b}$  is a progeny. The case  $b = 1$  is degenerate.

*Step (i): 2 is in B, 3 is not in B.* We have

$$h_2(u) = \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{1 - u/2} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{2^{n+1}} u^n$$

and we obtain the well-known fact that  $s_{1/2}$  is the progeny of a geometric distribution starting at 0. For  $b = 3$ , we have

$$h_3(u) = \frac{1}{3} \times \frac{1}{1 - u + u^2/3} = \frac{1}{3} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r^n \frac{\sin(n + 1)\theta}{\sin \theta} u^n,$$

where  $re^{\pm i\theta} = \frac{1}{2}(3 \pm i\sqrt{3})$  are the complex roots of the polynomial  $1 - u + u^2/3$ . In fact,  $r = \sqrt{3}$  and  $\theta = \pm\pi/6$ . Clearly,  $\sin(n + 1)\theta / \sin \theta \geq 0$  for all  $n$  is impossible and therefore 3 is not in  $B$ .

*Step (ii): b is in B if  $1 < b < 2$ .* Using the Pochhammer symbol, we can write

$$(1 - u)^b = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-b)_n}{n!} u^n.$$

Let

$$H(u) = \frac{1}{bu^2} (-1 + bu + (1 - u)^b) = \frac{b - 1}{2} + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (b - 1)(2 - b)(3 - b) \cdots (n + 1 - b) \frac{u^n}{(n + 2)!}.$$

Since  $1 < b < 2$ , all the coefficients of  $H$  are positive. As a consequence of the definition of  $H$ ,

$$h_b(u) = \frac{1}{b} \frac{1}{1 - uH(u)} = \frac{1}{b} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u^n H(u)^n,$$

and, since the coefficients of  $H$  are positive, this implies that  $b \in B$ .

Step (ii):  $b$  is not in  $B$  if  $b > 3$ . Consider the numbers  $(P_n)_{n \geq 2}$  defined by

$$\frac{bu}{1 - (1 - u)^b} = 1 + \frac{b - 1}{2}u + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} P_n u^n. \tag{7}$$

A simple calculation shows that

$$P_2 = \frac{b^2 - 1}{6}, \quad P_3 = \frac{b^2 - 1}{4}, \quad P_4 = \frac{(19 - b^2)(b^2 - 1)}{30}, \quad P_5 = \frac{(9 - b^2)(b^2 - 1)}{4}.$$

Therefore,  $P_5 < 0$  if  $b > 3$ .

Step (iv):  $b$  is not in  $B$  if  $2 < b < 3$ . This point is more difficult. Let us introduce the numbers  $(p_n)_{n \geq 2}$  defined by

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1 - (1 - u)^b}{bu} &= \int_0^1 (1 - ux)^{b-1} dx \\ &= 1 - \frac{b - 1}{2}u + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} \frac{(1 - b)_n}{(n + 1)!} u^n \\ &= 1 - \frac{b - 1}{2}u + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} p_n u^n, \end{aligned} \tag{8}$$

where

$$p_n = \frac{1}{(n + 1)!} (b - 1)(b - 2)(3 - b) \cdots (n - b). \tag{9}$$

The radius of convergence of power series (8) is 1. Observe that, since  $n \geq 2$ , from (9), we have  $p_n > 0$  if  $2 < b < 3$ . To simplify, we now let

$$v = \frac{b - 1}{2}u, \quad u = \frac{2}{b - 1}v, \quad A_n = P_n \frac{2^n}{(b - 1)^n}, \quad a_n = p_n \frac{2^n}{(b - 1)^n},$$

where  $P_n$  was defined in (7). With this notation, equalities (7) and (8) become

$$\frac{2b}{b - 1} \frac{v}{1 - (1 - 2v/(b - 1))^b} = 1 + v + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} A_n v^n, \tag{10}$$

$$\frac{b - 1}{2b} \frac{1 - (1 - 2v/(b - 1))^b}{v} = 1 - v + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_n v^n. \tag{11}$$

Since  $2 < b < 3$ , the radius of convergence of the power series on the right-hand side of (11) is  $(b - 1)/2 < 1$ . Because  $a_n > 0$ , this remark implies that

$$\sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_n = \infty. \tag{12}$$

Now we multiply the right-hand sides of (11) and (10). Their product is 1. We obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (a_n + A_n)v^n + \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (a_n - A_n)v^{n+1} + \left( \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} a_n v^n \right) \left( \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} A_n v^n \right) &= v^2, \\ \sum_{n=2}^{\infty} (a_n + A_n)v^n + \sum_{n=3}^{\infty} (a_{n-1} - A_{n-1})v^n + \sum_{n=4}^{\infty} \left( \sum_{k=2}^{n-2} A_{n-k} a_k \right) v^n &= v^2. \end{aligned}$$

From this last equality, watching the coefficient on  $v^n$  for  $n \geq 4$ , we obtain

$$a_n + a_{n-1} + \sum_{k=2}^{n-2} A_{n-k} a_k = A_{n-1} - A_n. \quad (13)$$

Now assume that  $A_n \geq 0$  for all  $n \geq 2$ , which is equivalent to assuming that  $b \in \mathcal{B}$ . Then (13) implies that  $a_n \leq A_{n-1} - A_n$ . Summing from  $n = 4$  to  $N$  we obtain, for all  $N$ ,

$$\sum_{n=4}^N a_n \leq A_3 - A_N \leq A_3,$$

which contradicts (12). Therefore, there exists at least one  $n$  such that  $A_n < 0$  and the proposition is proved.  $\square$

*Proof of Corollary 1.* If  $f_q(z) = c(1 - (1 - \rho z)^{1/b})$  then

$$g(u) = \frac{1}{\rho} \left( 1 - \left( 1 - \frac{u}{c} \right)^b \right).$$

From the proposition, the corresponding fecundity distribution  $p$  does exist if and only if  $1 < b \leq 2$ , since

$$\frac{f_p(cu)}{c\rho} = \frac{u}{1 - (1 - u)^b}. \quad \square$$

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