## Chapter III: Games of Pure Chance Generated by Gambler's Ruin with Unlimited Credit: The Fuss-Catalan case

In Chapter II, we only allowed positive steps. Now we will also allow negative steps, and treat games that may be viewed as a "gambler's ruin with infinite credit", with arbitrary 'die'. In the next chapter we will treat the case of a general die, while in this chapter we only consider two-faced dice, where one of the faces is marked 1 and the other markded $-k$, and the more difficult case where one of the faces is marked -1 and the other marked $k$. We will start with their intersection, the very classical case of $\{-1,1\}$, treated in Feller's classic [F]. However, even in this case we will be able to go beyond Feller, since he did not use a computer.

The general set-up, to be considered in full generality in Chapter IV is as follows.
On the discrete line, you start at the origin $x=0$, and there is a fixed allowed set of steps consisting of both positive and negative integers and a probability distribution on them, let's call it $\mathcal{P}$. You are allowed to go as far left as possible (i.e. you can owe as much as necessary). At each round, you roll the $\mathcal{P}$ die, and move accordingly. You win as soon as you reach a location $\geq 1$, or more generally when you reach a location $\geq n$. In other words, your goal is to exit the casino with at least one dollar (or more generally, at least $n$ dollars). In the two-player (or multi-player) version, the players take turns rolling the $\mathcal{P}$ die, and whoever achieves the goal first is declared the winner. As before, we will first discuss the solitaire game, where the goal is to reach it as soon as possible.

## Classical Gambling: Winning a dollar or losing a dollar

Let's start with the simplest, most classical case, of simple random walk, where you start with 0 dollars, and at each round you win a dollar with probability $p$ and lose a dollar with probability $1-p$. The expected gain at each individual round is $p \cdot 1+(1-p) \cdot(-1)=2 p-1$, so if $p>\frac{1}{2}$, then sooner or later you will reach your goal. If $p<\frac{1}{2}$, then you may never make it, sliding down to infinite debt. In the border-line case of a fair coin, $p=\frac{1}{2}$, as we will soon see, you are also guaranteed to 'eventually' be in possession of 1 dollar (and more generally, $n$ dollars for each $n>0$, as big as you wish). Alas, as we will also soon see, the expected time until that happens is infinite, and since life is finite, there is a good chance that when you will pass away, your heirs will have a huge debt.

## Analyzing Gambling histories

For typographical clarity, let's denote -1 by $\overline{1}$.
Our alphabet is $\{-1,1\}=\{\overline{1}, 1\}$. A 'gambling history' consists of a word that ends in 1 , whose sum is 1 , and whose proper partial sums are all non-positive. Obviously the length of such a game is odd.

If you are really lucky, you exit after one step, since you won a dollar right away.
If you lost a dollar at the first round, you can recover at the second round, and then win a dollar
at the third round. Etc.
For the sake of clarity and concreteness, let's list the first few 'histories'.
Length 1: $\{1\}$. Probability $=p$.
Length 3: $\{\overline{1} 11\}$. Probability $=p^{2}(1-p)$.
Length 5: $\{\overline{1} 1 \overline{1} 11, \overline{1} \overline{1} 111\}$. Probability $2 \cdot p^{3}(1-p)^{2}$.
Length 7:

$$
\{\overline{1} 1 \overline{1} 1 \overline{1} 11, ~ \overline{1} 1 \overline{1} \overline{1} 111, ~ \overline{1} 111 \overline{1} 11, ~ \overline{1} \overline{1} 1 \overline{1} 111, ~ \overline{1} \overline{1} \overline{1} 1111\},
$$

with probability $5 \cdot p^{3}(1-p)^{2}$.
It is useful, for humans, to visualize such a history as a lattice path in the discrete plane starting at $(0,0)$ where $\overline{1}$ corresponds to a step $(1,-1)$ and 1 corresponds to a step $(1,1)$. For example, the word (gambling history)

$$
\overline{1} \overline{1} 11 \overline{1} 11 \text {, }
$$

corresponds to the walk

$$
(0,0) \rightarrow(1,-1) \rightarrow(2,-2) \rightarrow(3,-1) \rightarrow(4,0) \rightarrow(5,-1) \rightarrow(6,0) \rightarrow(7,1) .
$$

Let's study the anatomy of such histories, or equivalently, paths . Obviously they are all of odd length, and they all end with 1 . So we can write, for any history $W$

$$
W=U 1
$$

where $U$ is a word that sums to 0 , all whose partial sums are non-positive. Such words are called Dyck words.

Let's analyze such a Dyck word $U$ or rather its corresponding path from $(0,0)$ to $(2 n, 0)$, say. Of course, it may be the empty word, but if it is not, let $(2 r, 0) 0<r \leq n$ be the first time that it hits the $x$-axis. Then we can write

$$
U=U_{1} U_{2}
$$

where $U_{2}$ is another word of that kind (of length $2 n-2 r$ ), but $U_{1}$, consisting of the first $2 r$ letters of $U$, has the special property that all its partial sums (except the 0 -th and the last) are strictly negative, or in terms of its path, except for its starting and ending points, they lie strictly below the $x$-axis. Such a word must necessarily start with a $\overline{1}$ and end with a 1 , and may be written as $\overline{1} U_{3} 1$, where $U_{3}$ is an arbitrary Dyck word. Conversely, for any Dyck word $U_{3}, \overline{1} U_{3} 1$ corresponds to such a 'strictly below the $x$-axis' path. So we have the (context-free) grammar

$$
U=\text { EmptyWord } \vee \overline{1} U 1 U
$$

(DyckGrammar)
where now $U$ stands for 'an arbitrary Dyck word'.
let $x_{1}$ and $x_{-1}$ be commuting variables.
For any word $u=u_{1} \ldots u_{m}$, let the weight of $u$ be $x_{u_{1}} \cdots x_{u_{m}}$. For example,

$$
\text { weight }(\overline{1} \overline{1} \overline{1} 11 \overline{1} 11)=x_{-1} x_{-1} x_{-1} x_{1} x_{1} x_{1} x_{-1} x_{1} x_{1}=x_{-1}^{4} x_{1}^{5} .
$$

Let $F\left(x_{-1}, x_{1}\right)$ be the weight enumerator of the set of Dyck words, i.e. the sum of all the weights of all these words, a certain formal power series in $x_{-1}, x_{1}$.

Obviously the weight of the empty word is 1 (the empty product), hence applying weight to (DyckGrammar), we get the quadratic equation

$$
F=1+x_{-1} F x_{1} F .
$$

Abbreviating $X=x_{-1} x_{1}$, we get

$$
F=1+X F^{2} .
$$

Recalling what we learned in seventh grade (or what the Babylonians knew more than 3000 years ago), we can express $F$ explicitly

$$
F=\frac{1-\sqrt{1-4 X}}{2 X}
$$

Recalling what we learned in 12 -th grade (or what Isaac Newton knew more that 300 years ago) we can write

$$
F=\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{(2 m)!}{m!(m+1)!} X^{m}
$$

implying the fact that the number of Dyck paths of length $2 m$ is the super-famous Catalan number $C_{m}=\frac{(2 m)!}{m!(m+1)!}$, that is the subject of Richard Stanley's modern classic [St], and the most popular sequence, A108, in the great OEIS [Sl].

The above is the standard, very boring proof of that famous fact. We know at least a dozen proofs, some of them are given in [St]. Here is one of our favorite proofs due to Aryeh Dvoretzky and Theodore Motzkin [DM].

The fact that the number of Dyck paths of length $2 m$ equals the Catalan number $C_{m}$ is equivalent the fact that the number of words in $\{1,-1\}$ of length $2 m+1$ whose sum is 1 and all whose proper-partial sums are non-positive is $C_{m}$. Every word of length $2 m+1$ in $\{-1,1\}$ that adds up to 1 has $m+1$ ' 1 ' and $m ‘ \overline{1}$ '. There are $\binom{2 m+1}{m}$ such words. The $2 m+1$ cyclic shifts of each such word are all different (why?), and exactly one of them has the property that its partial sums are all non-positive (why?). Hence the number of gambling histories that we are interested in is $\frac{1}{2 m+1} \cdot\binom{2 m+1}{m}=C_{m}$.

## Enter Probability

So far what we did was enumerative combinatorics. We found out that the weight-enumerator of the set of Dyck words is

$$
\frac{1-\sqrt{1-4 x_{-1} x_{1}}}{2 x_{-1} x_{1}},
$$

and hence the weight enumerator of words in $\{-1,1\}$ that add-up to 1 , and such that all their proper partial sums are $\leq 0$, is $x_{1}$ times that, i.e.

$$
\frac{1-\sqrt{1-4 x_{-1} x_{1}}}{2 x_{-1}} .
$$

Assume that each round in the gambling game is independent of the other ones, and for each of them the probability of winning a dollar is $p$, and hence of losing a dollar is $1-p$. Plugging-in $x_{-1}=(1-p) t, x_{1}=p t$, in the above explicit enumerating generating function, we get the following human-generated, well-known (see [F]) proposition.

Proposition 5: The probability generating function of the random variable 'numer of rounds it takes until the first time you have one dollar', if you start with 0 dollars and at each round you win a dollar with probability $p$ and lose a dollar with probability $1-p$, let's call it $g(t)$ is

$$
g(t)=\frac{1-\sqrt{1-4(1-p) p t^{2}}}{2(1-p) t} .
$$

So far all our power series were formal, but it is easy to see that if $p \geq \frac{1}{2}$ then plugging-in $t=1$ leads to a convergent series, that sums-up to 1 , in agreement with the obvious fact that if $p>\frac{1}{2}$ sooner or later you will succeed, and the slightly less obvious fact that it is still true when $p=\frac{1}{2}$. If $p<\frac{1}{2}$, then we must take the other sign of the square-root, leading to the classical and well-known fact that the probability of one day having one dollar in your possession is $\frac{p}{1-p}$.

More generally, suppose that your goal in life is not just to exit the casino with one dollar, but you want to make $n$ dollars. Since each additional dollar is yet another 1-dollar game, we immediately get.

Proposition 5': The probability generating function of the random variable 'numer of rounds it takes until the first time you have $n$ dollars', if you start with 0 dollars and at each round you win a dollar with probability $p$ and lose a dollar with probability $1-p$, is given by

$$
\left(\frac{1-\sqrt{1-4(1-p) p t^{2}}}{2(1-p) t}\right)^{n}
$$

From now let's assume that $p \geq \frac{1}{2}$. To get the expected duration we can sill do it by hand, find $\left(g(t)^{n}\right)^{\prime}=n g(t)^{n-1} g^{\prime}(t)$, then compute $g^{\prime}(t)$, plug-in $t=1$ and simplify, getting that the expectation is $\frac{n}{2 p-1}$.

For the $k$-th moment, we compute $\left(t \frac{d}{d t}\right)^{k}\left(g(t)^{n}\right)$, plug-in $t=1$, and simplify, expressing all higher derivatives of $g(t)$ in terms of $g(t)$ and $t$, followed by substituting $t=1$.

An even better way, that would be the only way later on when we do the general gambling caes, is to use implicit differentiation, using the relation

$$
f(t)=1+p(1-p) t^{2} f(t)^{2}
$$

and its implied relation for $g(t)=p t f(t)$.
It turns out that if you use the explicit expression $g(t)=\frac{1-\sqrt{1-4(1-p) p t^{2}}}{2(1-p) t}$ all the radicals disappear, and if you use implicit differentiation, and then plug-in $t=1$, you never have to divide 0 by 0 , so either way you would get that all the moments are polynomials in $n$ and rational functions in $p$. In particular, if $p$ is a rational number, then they are all also rational numbers. The expectation, is $\frac{n}{2 p-1}$.

For higher moments, We get the following computer-generated proposition.
Proposition 6: Let $X_{n, p}$ be the random variable "Number of rounds until reaching $n$ dollars for the first time" in a gambling game where the probability of winning a dollar is $p$ and of losing a dollar is $1-p$. Assume that $p>\frac{1}{2}$. We have

$$
\begin{gathered}
E\left[X_{n, p}\right]=\frac{n}{2 p-1} . \\
\operatorname{Var}\left[X_{n, p}\right]=\frac{4 n p(1-p)}{(2 p-1)^{3}} .
\end{gathered}
$$

The skewness (aka scaled third moment about the mean) is

$$
\alpha_{3}\left[X_{n, p}\right]=\left(-2 p^{2}+2 p+1\right)(-1+2 p)^{-2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{-\frac{n p(-1+p)}{(-1+2 p)^{3}}}}
$$

The kurtosis (aka scaled fourth moment about the mean) is

$$
\alpha_{4}\left[X_{n, p}\right]=\frac{-4 p^{4}+(6 n+8) p^{3}+(-9 n+6) p^{2}+(3 n-10) p-1}{n p(-1+p)(-1+2 p)} .
$$

For the 5 -th through 10 -th scaled moments, see the output file
http://sites.math.rutgers.edu/~zeilberg/tokhniot/oGenPileGames1.txt .
The Two Player version for the $(1,-1)$ case
Using Lagrange inversion (see [Z4] for a lucid statement and proof) or otherwise, it is easy to see that the probability of reaching $m$ dollars for the first time after exactly $n$ rounds, in a solitaire
game where the probability of winning a dollar is $p$ and the probability of losing a dollar is $1-p$, let's call it $b_{n, m}$ is

$$
b_{n, m}=\frac{m(2 n+m-1)!p^{n+m}(1-p)^{n}}{n!(n+m)!} .
$$

Suppose that two players take turns and whoever reaches $m$ dollars first is declared the winner. As before, the probability of winning the game for the player whose turn is to move is $a(m)=$ $(1+f(m)) / 2$, where

$$
f(m)=\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} b_{n, m}^{2}
$$

Using the Zeilberger algorithm once again we have the next computer-generated proposition.
Proposition 7: In the two player version game with a fair coin, i.e. the probability of winning a dollar and losing a dollar are both $\frac{1}{2}$, the winning probability of the player whose turn is to move is $(1+f(m)) / 2$ where $f(m)$ satisfies the second-order recurrence

$$
\left(2 m^{2}+5 m+2\right) f(m+2)+\left(-12 m^{2}-24 m-10\right) f(m+1)+\left(2 m^{2}+3 m\right) f(m)=-\frac{8}{\pi},
$$

subject to the initial conditions

$$
f(1)=-\frac{-4+\pi}{\pi} \quad, \quad f(2)=-\frac{-16+5 \pi}{\pi}
$$

For the loaded case, where $p>\frac{1}{2}$, we have the next proposition.
Proposition 8: In the two player version game with the probability of winning a dollar is $p$ and losing a dollar is $1-p$, provided $\frac{1}{2}<p<1$, the winning probability of the player whose turn is to move is $(1+f(m)) / 2$ where $f(m)$ satisfies the fourth-order recurrence

$$
\begin{gathered}
m(-1+p)^{4}(m-3) f(m)-(-1+p)^{2}\left(2 m^{2}-7 m+4\right) f(m-1) \\
+\left(-2 m^{2} p^{4}+4 m^{2} p^{3}+8 m p^{4}-2 m^{2} p^{2}-16 m p^{3}-4 p^{4}+8 m p^{2}+8 p^{3}+m^{2}-4 p^{2}-4 m+4\right) f(m-2) \\
-p^{2}\left(2 m^{2}-9 m+8\right) f(m-3)+p^{4}(m-1)(m-4) f(m-4)=0,
\end{gathered}
$$

subject to the appropriate initial conditions.

## Winning a dollar or losing k dollars

Now let's generalize to the gambling game where, as before, you start with a capital of 0 dollars, but now at each round you win a dollar with probability $p$ or lose $k$ dollars with probability $1-p$, and the game ends as soon as you owe 1 dollar. Very soon we will treat the more general case where the goal is to exit with $m$ dollars, but for now let's consider the case of $m=1$.

In order to guarantee that the game ends, the expected gain of a single round, $p \cdot 1-(1-p) \cdot k=$ $(k+1) p-k$ should be positive. So we will assume that $p>\frac{k}{k+1}$. In the border-line case $p=\frac{k}{k+1}$ the game still ends with probability 1 , but its expected duration is infinite.

Now the alphabet is $\{1,-k\}$, and we will try to adapt the above argument that workded for the classical case. Let's abbreviate $\bar{k}:=-k$. Now the steps are $(1,1)$ and $(1,-k)$.

Let's study the anatomy of such words (histories) or, equivalently, paths. Obviously all these words are of length $n(k+1)+1$, for some non-negative integer $n$, and they all end with 1 . So we can write, for any history $W$,

$$
W=U 1
$$

where $U$ is a word that sums to 0 , all whose partial sums are non-positive. we will call such words $(1,-k)$-Dyck words.

Let's analyze such a $(1,-k)$-Dyck word $U$ or rather its corresponding path from $(0,0)$ to $((k+1) n, 0)$, say. Of course, it may be the empty word, but if it is not, let $(r(k+1), 0) 0<r \leq n$ be the first time that it hits the $x$-axis. Then we can write

$$
U=U_{1} U_{2}
$$

where $U_{2}$ is another arbitrary $(1,-k)$-Dyck word, but $U_{1}$ has the special property that all its partial sums (except the 0 -th and the last) are strictly negative, or in terms of its path, except for its starting and ending points, they lie strictly below the $x$-axis. Such a word must necessarily start with a $\bar{k}$ and end with a 1 , but to recover the 'debt' of $k$, must regain these lost $k$ dollars, one dollar at a time, so it may be written as $\bar{k}\left(U_{3} 1\right)^{k}$, where $U_{3}$ is an arbitrary $(1,-k)$-Dyck word. Conversely, for any such word $U_{3}, \bar{k}\left(U_{3} 1\right)^{k}$ is such a strictly below the $x$-axis word. So we have the (context-free) grammar

$$
U=\text { EmptyWord } \vee \bar{k}(U 1)^{k} U \quad, \quad((1,-k)-\text { DyckGrammar })
$$

where now $U$ stands for 'an arbitrary ( $1,-k$ )-Dyck word'.
Let $F\left(x_{-k}, x_{1}\right)$ be the weight-enumerator for all such words. Applying the weight operation, we get that $F=F\left(x_{-k}, x_{1}\right)$ satisfies

$$
F=1+\left(x_{-k} x_{1}^{k}\right) F^{k+1} .
$$

Abbreviating $X:=x_{-k} x_{1}^{k}$, this can be written

$$
F=1+X F^{k+1} .
$$

When $k=2$ and $k=3$, we can solve these equations 'explicitly' using 'radicals', thanks to Cardano and Ferrari, but thanks to Abel, Ruffini, and Galois we know that we can not do it for $k \geq 4$. Even the 'explicit' solutions for $k=2$ and $k=3$ are not very useful. On the other hand, thanks to Lagrange inversion (see,e.g. [Z4]) we can find the Maclaurin expansion explicitly.

$$
F(X)=\sum_{m=0}^{\infty} \frac{((k+1) m)!}{m!(k m+1)!} X^{m}
$$

featuring the Fuss-Catalan numbers $C_{k, m}=\frac{((k+1) m)!}{m!(k m+1)!}$.

It follows that the weight-enumerator of words in $\{-k, 1\}$ that add-up to 1 , and such that the proper-partial sums are all non-positive is $F\left(x_{-k} x_{1}^{k}\right) x_{1}$, since the last letter must be 1 .

Equivalently (and that's is our actual object of interest) the number of words with $m$ ' $-k$ ' and $m k+1$ ' 1 ' whose proper-partial sums are all non-positive equals the Fuss-Catalan number $C_{k, m}$. This can be also proved by adapting the [DM] proof. There are $\binom{m k+1+m}{m}$ words altogether, and for each of these its $m k+1+m$ cyclic shifts are all different, and exactly one of them is a 'good' word, hence there are $\frac{1}{m k+1+m}\binom{m k+1+m}{m}=C_{k, m}$ such words.

Since, in order to exit with $n$ dollars, we must gain one dollar, $n$ times, the weight-enumerator of words that reach $n$ for the first time is $\left(F\left(x_{-k} x_{1}^{k}\right) x_{1}\right)^{n}$.

So far we did enumerative combinatorics. To convert it to probability, we plug-in the above $x_{1}=p t$ and $x_{-k}=(1-p) t$. Using implicit differentiation, we can compute the expectation, variance, and higher moments. Since in this case we do not encounter $0 / 0$, all the moments are rational functions of $p$. In particular, if the number $p$ is rational, all the quantities are rational numbers.

Using implicit differentiation, for symbolic $k$ and symbolic $p$ and symbolic $n$, our beloved computer generated the next proposition.

Proposition 9: Suppose that at each round, you win a dollar with probability $p$ and lose $k$ dollars with probability $1-p$, and you quit as soon as you reach $n$ dollars. If $p>k /(k+1)$, then, of course, sooner or later you will reach your goal. How long should it take? Denote by $X_{n, k, p}$ the random variable, 'number of moves until reaching $n$ dollars'. We have the following facts.

Let $g(t)$ be the formal power series, in $t$, satisfying the algebraic equation

$$
g(t)-1-p^{k}(1-p) t^{k+1} g(t)^{k+1}=0
$$

The probability generating function of $X_{n, k, p}$ is

$$
(p t g(t))^{n}
$$

By implicit differentiation, followed by substituting $t=1$, we can compute any desired derivative, and hence the expectation, variance, and higher moments. We have

$$
E\left[X_{n, k, p}\right]=\frac{n}{(p-1) k+p}
$$

[as expected (npi), since the expected gain in one move is $(p-1) k+p]$. The variance is given by

$$
\operatorname{Var}\left[X_{n, k, p}\right]=-\frac{n p(k+1)^{2}(p-1)}{((p-1) k+p)^{3}}
$$

The skewness (aka 'third scaled-moment about the mean') is

$$
\alpha_{3}\left[X_{n, k, p}\right]=-(k+1)\left(k p^{2}+p^{2}-k-2 p\right)(k p-k+p)^{-2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{-\frac{n p(k+1)^{2}(p-1)}{((p-1) k+p)^{3}}}} .
$$

The kurtosis (aka 'fourth scaled-moment about the mean') is

$$
\begin{gathered}
\alpha_{3}\left[X_{n, k, p}\right]= \\
\frac{-(k+1)^{2} p^{4}-2(k+1)\left(k-\frac{3}{2} n-3\right) p^{3}+\left(6 k^{2}+(-6 n+6) k-3 n-6\right) p^{2}-2 k\left(k-\frac{3}{2} n+4\right) p-k^{2}}{n p(p-1)(p(k+1)-k)}
\end{gathered}
$$

For the scaled fifth and sixth moments, see the output file
http://sites.math.rutgers.edu/ zeilberg/tokhniot/oGenPileGames2.txt .
The Two Player version for the $(1,-k)$ case
Since the probability mess function is explicit, given in terms of the Fuss-Catalan numbers, we can use the Zeilberger algorithm to compute recurrences for the probability of the first player winning, for symbolic $n$, and symbolic $p$ (assuming that it is larger than $\frac{k}{k+1}$ ). Alas, we can not do it for symbolic $k$, since the Fuss-Catalan numbers are not bi-holonomic in both $n$ and $k$.

For the case $k=2$ we have the next proposition.
Proposition 10: In the two player version game, if the probability of winning a dollar is $p$ and of losing two dollars is $1-p$, provided $\frac{2}{3}<p<1$, the probability of the player whose turn is to move of winning the game is $(1+f(m)) / 2$ where $f(m)$ satisfies the sixth-order linear recurrence

$$
\begin{gathered}
m(p-1)^{4}(m-5) f(m) \\
-2(p-1)^{2}\left(m^{2}-6 m+6\right) f(m-2)-p^{2}(p-1)^{2}\left(2 m^{2}-13 m+12\right) f(m-3) \\
+(m-3)(m-4) f(m-4)-p^{2}\left(2 m^{2}-15 m+24\right) f(m-5)+p^{4}(m-2)(m-6) f(m-6)=0
\end{gathered}
$$

subject to the appropriate initial conditions.
For the case $k=3$ we have the next proposition.
Proposition 11: In the two player version game, if the probability of winning a dollar is $p$ and of losing three dollars is $1-p$, provided $\frac{3}{4}<p<1$, the probability of the player whose turn is to move of winning the game is $(1+f(m)) / 2$ where $f(m)$ satisfies the eighth-order linear recurrence

$$
\begin{gathered}
m(p-1)^{4}(m-7) f(m)-(p-1)^{2}\left(2 m^{2}-17 m+24\right) f(m-3) \\
-2 p^{2}(p-1)^{2}\left(m^{2}-9 m+12\right) f(m-4)+(m-4)(m-6) f(m-6) \\
-p^{2}\left(2 m^{2}-21 m+48\right) f(m-7)+p^{4}(m-3)(m-8) f(m-8)=0
\end{gathered}
$$

subject to the appropriate initial conditions.
For the case $k=4$ we have the next proposition.

Proposition 12: In the two player version game, if the probability of winning a dollar is $p$ and of losing four dollars is $1-p$, provided $\frac{4}{5}<p<1$, the probability of the player whose turn is to move of winning the game is $(1+f(m)) / 2$ where $f(m)$ satisfies the tenth-order linear recurrence

$$
\begin{gathered}
m(p-1)^{4}(m-9) f(m)-2(p-1)^{2}\left(m^{2}-11 m+20\right) f(m-4) \\
-p^{2}(p-1)^{2}\left(2 m^{2}-23 m+40\right) f(m-5)+(m-5)(m-8) f(m-8) \\
-p^{2}\left(2 m^{2}-27 m+80\right) f(m-9)+p^{4}(m-4)(m-10) f(m-10)=0,
\end{gathered}
$$

subject to the appropriate initial conditions.
For the case $k=5$ we have the next proposition.
Proposition 13: In the two player version game, if the probability of winning a dollar is $p$ and of losing five dollars is $1-p$, provided $\frac{5}{6}<p<1$, the probability of the player whose turn is to move of winning the game is $(1+f(m)) / 2$ where $f(m)$ satisfies the $12^{t h}$-order linear recurrence

$$
\begin{gathered}
m(p-1)^{4}(m-11) f(m)-(p-1)^{2}\left(2 m^{2}-27 m+60\right) f(m-5) \\
-2 p^{2}(p-1)^{2}\left(m^{2}-14 m+30\right) f(m-6)+(m-6)(m-10) f(m-10) \\
-p^{2}\left(2 m^{2}-33 m+120\right) f(m-11)+p^{4}(m-5)(m-12) f(m-12)=0,
\end{gathered}
$$

subject to the appropriate initial conditions.

## Winning k dollars or losing one dollar

This case is more complicated than the previous one, and we will have to treat one $k$ at a time even for the expectation. Also, we only consider the case of reaching at least one dollar for the first time, rather than the more general case of reaching $n$ dollars for the first time.

Now our alphabet is $\{k,-1\}$ and, in terms of lattice paths, the atomic steps are $(1, k)$ and $(1,-1)$.

Since the last step of such a path must be $(1, k)$ it can terminate at $y=k$, or $y=k-1, \ldots, y=1$, so we are forced to consider, in addition to $U_{0,0}$ the set of paths that start at $y=0$ and end at $y=0$ and never go above the $x$-axis, also $U_{0,-1}$ the set of paths that start at $y=0$ and end at $y=-1$ and never go above the $x$-axis, all the way to $U_{0,-(k-1)}$, the set of paths that start at $y=0$ and end at $y=-(k-1)$ and never go above the $x$-axis.

Such a word looks like

$$
U_{0,0} k \vee U_{0,-1} k \vee \quad \ldots \quad \vee U_{0,-(k-1)} k
$$

Let $U:=U_{0,0}$. Then the weight-enumerator of $U$ is $F\left(x_{k} x_{-1}^{k}\right)$ where $F(X)$ is as above, the solution of

$$
F(X)=1+X F(X)^{k+1}
$$

It can be seen that $U_{0,-r}=\left(\overline{1} U_{0,0}\right)^{r}$, hence its weight-enumerator is $\left(x_{-1} F(X)\right)^{r}$.
Substituting for $x_{-1}=p t$ and $x_{k}=(1-p) t$, we get the following human-generated proposition.
Proposition 14: Suppose that at each round, you lose one dollar with probability $p$ and win $k$ dollars with probability $1-p$, and you quit as soon as you reach at least 1 dollar. If $0<p<\frac{k}{k+1}$ then, of course, sooner or later, you will reach your goal. Let $g(t)$, be the formal power series, in $t$, satisfying the algebraic equation

$$
g(t)-1-p^{k}(1-p) t^{k+1} g(t)^{k+1}=0 .
$$

The probability generating function, let's call it $f(t)$, for the number of rounds until having a positive capital is

$$
f(t)=(1-p) \operatorname{tg}(t) \sum_{i=0}^{k-1}(p t g(t))^{i} .
$$

If you will apply implicit differentiation to the defining equation of $g(t)$, and then express $f^{\prime}(t)$ in terms of $g(t)$ and $g^{\prime}(t)$ and then plug-in $t=1$, you will get $0 / 0$. It turns out that the expressions for the expectation, variance, and higher moments are no longer rational functions of $p$, but are roots of algebraic equations. The reason is that when $t=1,1$ is a double (or higher-order) root of the defining equation for the probability itself $f(1)=1$.

Since Maple knows how to differenitate, both explicitly and implicitly, our beloved computer can handle it all automatically, and get explicit algebraic equation for symbolic $p$, or specific algebraic numbers for specific $p<\frac{k}{k+1}$, alas only for one $k$ at a time.

We have the following computer-generated proposition for the case $k=2$, i.e. for the gambling options $\{-1,2\}$, with $\operatorname{Pr}(-1)=p$ and $\operatorname{Pr}(2)=1-p$.

Proposition 15: Let $X$ be the random variable 'number of rounds until you reach positive capital' if you start at 0 , and at each round, you lose 1 dollar with probability $p$ and win 2 dollars with probability $1-p$. Assume that $p<\frac{2}{3}$.

The expectation is given by

$$
E[X]=\frac{3 p+\sqrt{-(3 p+1)(-1+p)}-1}{2 p(2-3 p)}
$$

For the variance, and third through the sixth moment, see
http://sites.math.rutgers.edu/z̃eilberg/tokhniot/oGenPileGames3.txt .
Note that for the most interesting case, $p=\frac{1}{2}$, the expectation is the beautiful number $1+\sqrt{5}$ (twice the golden ratio). This is so nice that we will single it out.

Beautiful Corollary: If a one-dimensional random walker starts at 0 and moves one step back with probability $\frac{1}{2}$ and two steps forward with probability $\frac{1}{2}$ and keeps going until he is at a
location $\geq 1$ for the first time, the expected number of steps that he takes is twice the Golden Ratio, i.e. $1+\sqrt{5}$.

For $k \geq 3$ and symbolic $p$, things get too complicated to reproduce here, so let's just mention the expectations for a few cases for the most interesting case, $p=\frac{1}{2}$.
$k=3$ : The expected duration of a random walk with $\operatorname{Pr}(-1)=\operatorname{Pr}(3)=\frac{1}{2}$ until reaching a location $\geq 1$ for the first time is the positive root of

$$
x^{3}-4 x-4=0
$$

that equals $2.382975767906237494 \ldots$.
$k=4$ : The expected duration of a random walk with $\operatorname{Pr}(-1)=\operatorname{Pr}(4)=\frac{1}{2}$ until reaching a location $\geq 1$ for the first time is the positive root of

$$
3 x^{4}+4 x^{3}-8 x^{2}-24 x-16=0,
$$

that equals $2.1561901553356811691 \ldots$.
$k=5$ : The expected duration of a random walk with $\operatorname{Pr}(-1)=\operatorname{Pr}(5)=\frac{1}{2}$ until reaching a location $\geq 1$ for the first time is the positive root of

$$
2 x^{5}+5 x^{4}-20 x^{2}-32 x-16=0
$$

that equals $2.07050432323944926 \ldots$. .
$k=6$ : The expected duration of a random walk with $\operatorname{Pr}(-1)=\operatorname{Pr}(6)=\frac{1}{2}$ until reaching a location $\geq 1$ for the first time is the positive root of

$$
5 x^{6}+18 x^{5}+20 x^{4}-40 x^{3}-144 x^{2}-160 x-64=0
$$

that equals $2.0333823565252879532 \ldots$.
$k=7$ : The expected duration of a random walk with $\operatorname{Pr}(-1)=\operatorname{Pr}(7)=\frac{1}{2}$ until reaching a location $\geq 1$ for the first time is the positive root of

$$
3 x^{7}+14 x^{6}+28 x^{5}-112 x^{3}-224 x^{2}-192 x-64=0
$$

that equals $2.0162018012796575781 \ldots$. .
$k=8$ : The expected duration of a random walk with $\operatorname{Pr}(-1)=\operatorname{Pr}(8)=\frac{1}{2}$ until reaching a location $\geq 1$ for the first time is the positive root of

$$
7 x^{8}+40 x^{7}+112 x^{6}+112 x^{5}-224 x^{4}-896 x^{3}-1280 x^{2}-896 x-256=0
$$

that equals $2.00796926912597191 \ldots$.

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