DYNAMICS OF CANCER RECURRENCE

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Mutation-induced drug resistance in cancer often causes the failure of therapies and cancer recurrence, despite an initial tumor reduction. The timing of such cancer recurrence is governed by a balance between several factors such as initial tumor size, mutation rates and growth kinetics of drug-sensitive and resistance cells. To study this phenomenon we characterize the dynamics of escape from extinction of a subcritical branching process, where the establishment of a clone of escape mutants can lead to total population growth after the initial decline. We derive uniform in-time approximations for the paths of the escape process and its components, in the limit as the initial population size tends to infinity and the mutation rate tends to zero. In addition, two stochastic times important in cancer recurrence will be characterized: (i) the time at which the total population size first begins to rebound (i.e., become supercritical) during treatment, and (ii) the first time at which the resistant cell population begins to dominate the tumor.

1. Introduction. We consider a situation arising from population genetics, where a population with net negative growth rate can escape certain extinction via creation of a new mutant type. This scenario arises in a variety of biological and medical applications. In particular, we consider the following scenario in which a population of drug-sensitive cancer cells is placed under therapy, leading to a sustained overall decline in tumor size. However, drug-resistance mutations may arise in the population, conferring a net positive growth rate to mutated cells and their progeny under therapy. If a mutant arises prior to extinction of the original population and forms a viable, growing subpopulation, then the population has “escaped” extinction. These types of escape events due to acquired resistance cause the failure of many drugs including antibiotics, cancer therapies and anti-viral therapies. In the cancer setting, the discovery of new molecularly targeted therapies has lead to dramatic successes in tumor reduction in the past decade; however, the majority of these therapies fail due to the development of drug resistance and subsequent increase in tumor burden and progression of disease. Examples of targeted therapies for which acquired resistance exists include erlotinib/gefitinib in EGFR-mutant nonsmall cell lung cancer, imatinib, dasatinib or nilotinib in BCR–ABL driven chronic myeloid leukemia and vemurafenib in BRAF-mutant melanoma.
There has been a significant amount of previous work in the cancer modeling literature on understanding the evolutionary dynamics of drug resistance in cancer. For example, using stochastic processes with a differentiation hierarchy to represent the sensitive and resistant cells of a tumor, Coldman and Goldie studied the emergence of resistance to one or two drugs [3, 5, 6]. In a different twist, Harnevo and Agur studied drug resistance emerging due to oncogene amplification using a stochastic branching process model [7, 8]. Others have used multi-type branching process models to study the probability of resistance emerging due to point mutations in a variety of situations, for example, [9, 15]. Komarova and Wodarz also utilized a multi-type branching model to investigate the general situation in which $k$ mutations are required to confer resistance against $k$ drugs [12, 13]. Most recently, in [4] the authors considered an inhomogeneous process wherein the birth and death rates of both sensitive and resistant cells are dependent upon a temporally varying drug concentration profile, to accommodate the effects of pharmacokinetic dynamics as the drug is metabolized over time. The analysis in most of these works has been focused on calculations of the eventual probability of developing resistance and the resistant population size, rather than the variable timing of tumor recurrence.

In addition to work specifically related to mathematical modeling of cancer recurrence, we also discuss some mathematical contributions to the study of extinction paths in subcritical branching processes and the dynamics of escape in this context. In particular, in [10] Jagers and co-authors considered large population approximations of “the path to extinction” in Markovian sub-critical branching processes. In this work they established convergence of finite dimensional distributions of these paths viewed on the time scale of extinction. The follow-up work [11] generalized these results to a broader class of inter-arrival times (i.e., distributions more general than exponential). Sehl et al. investigated the limiting moments of extinction times of subcritical branching processes, and used this as a tool for investigating the effects of various cancer therapies on healthy tissue [20]. Last, Sagitov and Serra characterized the asymptotic structure for BGW process with escape, as mutation rate $\mu \to 0$, conditioned on successful escape, which is an important asymptotic regime in many problems such as the evolution of new species [19].

A typical solid tumor has a density between $10^7$ and $10^9$ cancer cells per cubic centimeter [14]. Therefore, in this work we are interested in deriving path approximations of the escape process that are uniform in time, in the regime of a very large initial population. In the large population limit, it is tempting to assume that the stochastic model can be approximated by a purely deterministic model. However, a simple comparison of the mean behavior of the stochastic model with a deterministic model illustrates that it is important to consider the stochasticity of the extinction time. Here, we develop limiting stochastic approximations for the population process that greatly simplify the population process model while maintaining the stochastic extinction time behavior. Interesting earlier work by Jagers, Sagitov et al. established convergence of the finite dimensional distributions for the declining sensitive cell populations on the time scale of extinction, leaving open the question
of tightness [10]. In the present work we first construct nearly-deterministic uniform in time limit approximations to both the declining sensitive population paths as well as the supercritical resistant cell escape paths. Then, tightness of the joint sensitive and resistant process can be established as a simple consequence of these approximations, yielding the weak convergence result in simpler fashion than via direct analysis of the joint process.

We then use these approximations to characterize the distribution of “turnaround times,” at which the total population size switches from subcritical to supercritical. In the clinical context, this represents the time at which progression of disease is observed through serial tumor scans or bloodwork (in leukemias); thus the ability to characterize and predict this time is of significant prognostic interest. In addition, we characterize the “crossover time” at which the resistant mutants first overtake the original type in the population. Estimates of crossover times, and more generally the times at which certain composition thresholds are reached, are extremely useful in clinical decision-making. For example, when simultaneous combination therapies are considered, understanding these random times allows for informed decisions on the optimal time to switch to another therapy and thus “target” a different subpopulation of cells within the tumor. Figure 1 illustrates these times in a sample path simulation of the process, in addition to a sample distribution of turnaround times. Our results are derived in the framework where the time scale of the processes is sped up by the extinction time of the original population,

![Sample simulation of escape dynamics (population size versus time). Dark black line: total population size of the tumor, labeled grey lines: resistant and sensitive cell population size. The circle marks the minimum of the total tumor size process (i.e., the turnaround time), and the point at which red and blue lines cross is the crossover time. A histogram plotting the distribution of the minimum turnaround time for each sample path is plotted in green in the background. Parameters: starting population 1000 sensitive, 0 resistant. Net growth rate of sensitive and resistant birth–death processes are −1.0 and 2.0, respectively, and the mutation rate \( \mu = 0.01 \).](image)
a natural time scale since this time represents the maximum length of effectiveness of the drug. We restrict our attention to binary branching processes which are appropriate for modeling cancer cell populations undergoing binary division; however, these results can be extended to study more general offspring distributions, and thus may be useful for studying escape dynamics in viral populations, for instance.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we introduce the model and discuss earlier results in the field. In Section 3 we present some results on the mean of the resistant cell population at multiples of the extinction time. In Section 4 we present a path approximation result where we show that the limit process uniformly approximates both the sensitive and resistant cell process on the time scale of the extinction time of the sensitive cells. We determine limiting distributions of the crossover time when the resistant cell population first becomes dominant, and the random time of disease progression or the “turnaround” time. In Section 5 we briefly illustrate an application of these results to studying the time of disease recurrence due to drug resistance in nonsmall cell lung cancer (NSCLC). In Section 7 we present the proofs of our main results.

Throughout the paper we use the following standard Landau asymptotic notation for nonnegative functions \( f(\cdot) \) and \( g(\cdot) \): \( f(x) = O(g(x)) \) means that \( f(x) \leq cg(x) \) for some \( c \in (0, \infty) \), \( f(x) = \Omega(g(x)) \) if and only if \( f(x) \geq cg(x) \), \( f(x) = o(g(x)) \) holds if and only if \( f(x)/g(x) \to 0 \) as \( x \to \infty \) and last, \( f(x) \sim g(x) \) holds if and only if \( f(x)/g(x) \to 1 \) as \( x \to \infty \).

**2. Model and previous work.** In this section we introduce the mathematical model and notation, and review previous results on related problems. We start with an initial population of drug sensitive cells with size \( x \). This population \( Z_0(t) \) is modeled as a subcritical Markovian binary branching process which declines during treatment with net growth rate \( \lambda_0 < 0 \), birth rate \( r_0 \) and death rate \( d_0 \); we will also use the notation \( |\lambda_0| = r \). Resistance mutations arise at rate \( \mu x Z_0(t) \), and each of these mutations gives rise to a supercritical Markovian binary branching process initialized by one mutant cell with net growth rate \( \lambda_1 > 0 \). We set \( \mu_x = \mu x^{-\alpha} \) for \( \mu > 0 \) and \( \alpha \in (0, 1) \). The total population of mutants, which we will call “resistant cells,” is denoted \( Z_1(t) \). These processes are defined on a probability space \((\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})\). In addition, we define the filtration \( \mathcal{F}_i^j \) generated by \( Z_j(s) \), for \( s \leq t \) and \( j \leq i \). Note that in this work, unless otherwise stated, the expectation and probability operators are conditioned on the initial conditions \( Z_0(0) = x \) and \( Z_1(0) = 0 \).

Since the net growth rate of the original population is negative, it will go extinct eventually with probability 1. We will denote this time of extinction by \( T_x \), where \( x \) denotes the starting population. The following limit theorem from [17] will prove useful throughout the rest of the paper:

\[
T_x - \frac{1}{r} \log x \Rightarrow \frac{1}{r} (\eta + \log c) \quad \text{as} \; x \to \infty,
\]
where $\eta$ is a standard Gumbel random variable and $c$ is the Yaglom constant for $Z_0$. For a binary branching process, the Yaglom constant has the form $(d_0 - r_0)/r_0$.

Previously, Jagers and colleagues [10] studied the paths to extinction in a subcritical Markovian branching process, which we will also call $Z_0$ starting at size $x$. They considered the process $Z_0$ on the time scale of the extinction time and established convergence in finite dimensional distributions as $x \to \infty$.

**Theorem 1** (Jagers et al. [10]). For $u \in [0, 1)$,

$$x^{u-1} Z_0(uT_x) \xrightarrow{FD} c e^{-u\eta}.$$  

Similar results on convergence in finite dimensional distribution of subcritical branching processes with more general inter-arrival times were also shown in [11]. In addition, Kimmel and Wu generalized these results to consider the case of critical branching processes [22].

3. **Mean of $Z_1(uT_x)$**. In this section we examine the growth rate of the mean of $Z_1$. In addition, we examine a common modeling assumption and note the importance of considering the tails of the extinction time $T_x$ in studies of escape dynamics. We will first consider the expected resistant population at $vT_x$ for some $v > 0$ (and temporarily assume $\alpha = 0$),

$$E[Z_1(vT_x)] = E\left[\mu T_x \int_0^{v/1} Z_0(uT_x) \exp(\lambda_1 T_x(v-u)) du\right].$$

If we assume that sensitive cells follow a deterministic decay $Z_0(t) = xe^{\lambda_0 t}$ and approximate their extinction time as $T_x \approx -\lambda_0/\log x$, then we can heuristically estimate the expected value as

$$E[Z_1(vT_x)] = \frac{\mu}{r} \log x \int_0^{v/1} x^{1-u} x^{(\lambda_1/r)(v-u)} du$$

$$= \frac{\mu}{r} x^{1-\lambda_1 v/\lambda_0} \log x \int_0^{v/1} x^{-u(1+\lambda_1/r)} du$$

$$= \frac{\mu}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_0} x^{1+\lambda_1 v/r} \left(1 - \exp\left[-(v \wedge 1)\left(1 + \frac{\lambda_1}{r}\right) \log x\right]\right).$$

Thus we observe that this expected value is finite for all $v > 0$.

However, suppose that there is just a single sensitive cell at time $t = 0$ whose birth rate is $r_0 = 0$, and death rate $r$. Then, of course, the extinction time satisfies $T_1 \sim \exp(r)$ and by conditioning on this time we have

$$E[Z_1(vT_x)] = \mu \int_0^\infty E[e^{\lambda_1 (vT_1 - s)}] 1_{\{T_1 \geq v/s\}} ds.$$  

Due to the exponential tails of $T_1$ we see that the above integral diverges to $\infty$ for $\lambda_1 v \geq r$ and we clearly see the importance of the randomness in the extinction...
time. The previous result easily applies to models with births and deaths in the sensitive cell population. In particular, we have the following proposition.

**Proposition 1.** Let \( v > 0 \) and \( \frac{\lambda_1 v}{r} > 1 \), then for all \( x \), \( \mathbb{E}[Z_1(vT_x)] \) is infinite.

**Proof.** By conditioning on \( Z_0(s), s > 0 \) and then applying a change of measure we can write the integral of interest as

\[
\mathbb{E}[Z_1(vT_x)] = \mathbb{E}\left[ \mu T_x \int_0^{v+1} Z_0(uT_x) \exp[\lambda_1 T_x(v - u)] du \right]
= \mu \int_0^{v+1} \int_0^{\infty} t e^{\lambda_1 t(v-u)} \mathbb{E}[Z_0(uT_x)|T_x \in dt] g_x(t) dt du,
\]

where \( g_x(t) dt = \mathbb{P}(T_x > dt) \).

Noting the fact that if \( u < 1 \) then \( \mathbb{E}[Z_0(uT_x)|T_x \in dt] \geq 1 \), we can bound this from below by

\[
\mathbb{E}[Z_1(vT_x)] \geq \mu \int_0^{v+1} \int_0^{\infty} t e^{\lambda_1 t(v-u)} g_x(t) dt du
\]

The final inequality is based on the fact that for \( x \geq 1 \), \( \mathbb{P}(T_x > s) \geq \mathbb{P}(T_1 > s) \) and the asymptotic result that as \( t \to \infty \), \( \mathbb{P}(T_1 > t) \sim c e^{-rt} \). Considering the final equation in the previous display, we see that if \( \lambda_1 v > r \) then for \( u \) sufficiently small, the inner integral diverges to \( \infty \). □

We can easily find the asymptotic growth rate of \( \mathbb{E}[Z_1(vT_x)] \) as \( x \to \infty \). Based on the previous subsection, we know that this is only meaningful if we consider \( v \leq -\lambda_0/\lambda_1 \); for simplicity we will just assume that \( v \leq 1 \) and \( r = |\lambda_0| \geq \lambda_1 \). Earlier heuristic calculations (where we set \( \alpha = 0 \)) indicate that the mean of \( Z_1(vT_x) \) grows like \( x^{1+v\lambda_1/r} \) as \( x \not\to \infty \). In particular we have the following theorem.

**Theorem 2.** Assume that \( r \geq \lambda_1 \), then for \( v \in (0, 1] \) and \( \alpha \in (0, 1) \) we have that

\[
\mathbb{E}[Z_1(vT_x)] \sim x^{1+v\lambda_1/r-\alpha} \frac{e^{\lambda_1 v/r} \mu \Gamma(1 - \lambda_1 v/r)}{\lambda_1 + r}.
\]

We defer the proof of this result to Section 7.
4. Paths of escape. We now establish an approximation theorem for the paths of the joint process \((Z_0(uT_x), Z_1(uT_x))\). In the large \(x\) limit, scaled versions of these paths can be approximated uniformly in time by a simple stochastic process whose only source of randomness arises from the stochasticity of the limit theorem for the extinction time.

Before beginning, we first establish some notation. We will work with scaled versions of the sensitive and resistant populations sped up in time. Let us define

\[
s_x(t) = \frac{1}{r} \log x + t.
\]

For \(u \in [0, 1]\) and \(t \in \mathbb{R}\), define

\[
\begin{align*}
Z^0_x(us_x(t)) &= x^{u-1} Z_0\left( u \left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + t \right) \right), \\
Z^1_x(us_x(t)) &= x^{-\lambda_1 u/r - 1 + \alpha} Z_1\left( u \left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + t \right) \right).
\end{align*}
\]

Throughout the rest of the paper, the superscript \(x\) will denote scaling by the appropriate function of \(x\). For ease of notation we introduce the following notation:

\[
\phi^0_x(u, t) = \mathbb{E} Z^0_x(us_x(t)) = e^{\lambda_0 ut}, \\
\phi^1_x(u, t) = \mathbb{E} Z^1_x(us_x(t)) = \frac{\mu e^{\lambda_1 ut}}{\lambda_1 - \lambda_0} \left( 1 - e^{(\lambda_0 - \lambda_1)ut} \right)^{x (\lambda_0 - \lambda_1)/r}.
\]

In addition, we will sometimes need to work with the population processes sped up in time but not scaled in space, which are defined for \(Z_i(us_x(t))\), for \(i = 0, 1\) and their means are denoted by

\[
\phi_i(u, t) = \mathbb{E} Z_i(us_x(t)).
\]

In the following, we establish the approximation result by first showing that for any \(t \in \mathbb{R}\) we can approximate the scaled joint process by its mean uniformly in \(u\). This is done by martingale arguments and showing relevant second moments are uniformly bounded in \(x\). We then prove that this approximation is uniform for \(t\) in compact sets, and that one can approximate \((Z_0(uT_x), Z_1(uT_x))\) uniformly in time by \((\phi_0(u, T_x - \frac{1}{r} \log x), \phi_1(u, T_x - \frac{1}{r} \log x))\), where the previous formula is interpreted as the mean functions \(\phi^x_i\) evaluated at the random parameter \(T_x - \frac{1}{r} \log x\). We begin with a result on the moments of \(Z_0\) and \(Z_1\).

**Lemma 1.** Let \(\tilde{Z}_1\) be a binary branching process starting from size one with birth rate \(r_1\) and death rate \(d_1\), then for \(0 < s < s_x(t)\),

\[
\begin{align*}
\mathbb{E} [Z_1(s_x(t))^2] &= \frac{\mu^2}{x^{2\alpha}} \int_0^{s_x(t)} \int_0^{s_x(t)} \mathbb{E} [Z_0(s) Z_0(y)] e^{\lambda_1(s_x(t) - s)} e^{\lambda_1(s_x(t) - y)} ds dy \\
&\quad + \frac{\mu}{x^{\alpha}} \int_0^{s_x(t)} \mathbb{E} Z_0(s) \mathbb{E} [\tilde{Z}_1(s_x(t) - s)^2] ds.
\end{align*}
\]
\[ E[Z_0(s)Z_1(s_x(t))] = \frac{\mu}{x^\alpha} \int_0^{s_x(t)} E[Z_0(y)Z_0(s)]e^{\lambda_1(s_x(t) - y)} dy. \]

\[ \text{Var}[Z_1(s_x(t))] = \frac{\mu^2}{x^{2\alpha}} \int_0^{s_x(t)} \int_0^{s_x(t)} \text{Cov}(Z_0(s), Z_0(y))e^{\lambda_1(2s_x(t) - (s + y))} ds dy \\
+ \frac{\mu}{x^\alpha} \int_0^{s_x(t)} E[Z_0(s)]E[\tilde{Z}_1(s_x(t) - s)^2] ds. \]

The proof of this result can be found in Section 7.

Lemma 1 allows us to establish the following result via the Doob’s maximal inequality.

**Lemma 2.** For \( a \in (0, 1), \varepsilon > 0 \) and \( t \in \mathbb{R} \),

(i) \[ \lim_{x \to \infty} P\left( \sup_{u \in [0, a]} |Z_0^x(us_x(t)) - \phi_0^x(u, t)| > \varepsilon \right) = 0. \]

(ii) \[ \lim_{x \to \infty} P\left( \sup_{u \in [0, 1]} |Z_1^x(us_x(t)) - \phi_1^x(u, t)| > \varepsilon \right) = 0. \]

The proof of this result can be found in Section 7.

We can strengthen Lemma 2 by showing the convergence above is in fact uniform for \( t \) in a compact set.

**Lemma 3.** For \( a \in (0, 1), \varepsilon > 0 \) and \( M > 0 \),

(i) \[ \lim_{x \to \infty} P\left( \sup_{t \in [-M, M]} \sup_{u \in [0, a]} |Z_0^x(us_x(t)) - \phi_0^x(u, t)| > \varepsilon \right) = 0. \]

(ii) \[ \lim_{x \to \infty} P\left( \sup_{t \in [-M, M]} \sup_{u \in [0, 1]} |Z_1^x(us_x(t)) - \phi_1^x(u, t)| > \varepsilon \right) = 0. \]

The result is established by showing that the probabilities in the statement of Lemma 2 are monotone in the parameter \( t \). Again, we defer the full proof until Section 7.

Using this uniform approximation result, we establish the following theorem for the process paths evaluated at multiples of the \( Z_0 \) extinction time.
THEOREM 3. For \( a < 1, \varepsilon > 0 \) and \( \mu_x = \mu x^{-\alpha} \), where \( \alpha \in (0, 1) \),

(i) \[
\lim_{x \to \infty} \mathbb{P} \left( \sup_{u \in [0,a]} x^{u-1} \left| Z_0(uT_x) - \phi_0 \left( u, T_x - \frac{1}{r} \log x \right) \right| > \varepsilon \right) = 0.
\]

(ii) \[
\lim_{x \to \infty} \mathbb{P} \left( \sup_{u \in [0,1]} x^{u - \lambda_1/r - 1} \left| Z_1(uT_x) - \phi_1 \left( u, T_x - \frac{1}{r} \log x \right) \right| > \varepsilon \right) = 0.
\]

PROOF. This result now follows directly from Lemma 3 and the result in (2.1).

We define the following stochastic processes: if \( u \in [0, 1] \),

\[
\psi_0(u) = e^{-u(\eta + \log c)},
\]

\[
\psi_1(u) = \begin{cases} \frac{\mu}{\lambda_1 + r} e^{(\lambda_1 u/r)(\eta + \log c)}, & u > 0, \\ 0, & u = 0. \end{cases}
\]

These processes represent the limits of our scaled population processes. However, note that \( \psi_1 \) is not right-continuous at 0 and therefore it is not possible to establish that the scaled population processes are tight on an interval of the form [0, b] in the standard Skorokhod topology. This is a result of the massive influx of mutations near \( t = 0 \) in the unscaled process.

Next, we utilize Theorem 3 to establish weak convergence in the Skorokhod sense of the joint process.

COROLLARY 4. For \( \alpha \in [0, 1) \) and \( 0 < a < b < 1 \) the joint process
\[
\{ (x^{u-1} Z_0(uT_x), x^{u - \lambda_1 u/r - 1} Z_1(uT_x)), u \in [a, b] \} \Rightarrow \{ (\psi_0(u), \psi_1(u)), u \in [a, b] \}
\]
as \( x \to \infty \) in the standard Skorokhod topology, \( D([a, b]) \).

PROOF. For ease of notation, throughout this proof we will use the following notation:

\[
\phi^x(u) = \left( \phi_0^x \left( u, T_x - \frac{1}{r} \log x \right), \phi_1^x \left( u, T_x - \frac{1}{r} \log x \right) \right).
\]

Clearly, from the result in Theorem 3 it suffices to prove that as \( x \to \infty \)
\[
\left( \phi_0^x \left( \cdot, T_x - \frac{1}{r} \log x \right), \phi_1^x \left( \cdot, T_x - \frac{1}{r} \log x \right) \right) \Rightarrow (\psi_0(\cdot), \psi(\cdot))
\]
in \( D([a, b]) \). We will carry this out via Theorem 13.3 of [1]. First, we observe that convergence in finite dimensional distributions follows from (2.1) and the continuous mapping theorem. Thus it only remains to establish tightness. Since our limit
functions are continuous at \( u = a \) and \( u = b \), it suffices to establish that for every \( \varepsilon > 0 \)
\[
\lim_{\delta \to 0} \lim_{x \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(\omega''(\delta) \geq \varepsilon) = 0,
\]
where
\[
\omega''(\delta) \triangleq \sup\{ \| \phi^x(u) - \phi^x(u_1) \| \wedge \| \phi^x(u_2) - \phi^x(u) \| : u_1 \leq u \leq u_2, u_2 - u_1 \leq \delta \}
\]
and \( \| x \| \equiv |x_1| + |x_2| \). From the mean value theorem there exists a constant \( C \) such that for \( u < v \in [a, b] \)
\[
\| \phi^x(u) - \phi^x(v) \| \leq C (v - u) \left| T_x - \frac{1}{r} \log x \right| e^{\lambda_1 v |T_x - (1/r) \log x|}
\]
\[
\leq C (v - u) e^{(\lambda_1 + 1) b |T_x - (1/r) \log x|}.
\]
Thus, if \( \omega''(\delta) \geq \varepsilon \), then
\[
C \delta e^{(\lambda_1 + 1) b |T_x - (1/r) \log x|} \geq \varepsilon,
\]
and therefore,
\[
\mathbb{P}(\omega''(\delta) \geq \varepsilon) \leq \mathbb{P}\left( \left| T_x - \frac{1}{r} \log x \right| \geq b(\lambda + 1) \log(\varepsilon/\delta) \right).
\]
Condition (4.2) then follows by taking the limit as \( x \to \infty \) [using (2.1)] and then sending \( \delta \) to 0. \( \square \)

4.1. Crossover time. We define the following stochastic time:
\[
\xi \equiv \inf\{ t > 0 | Z_1(t) \geq Z_0(t) \},
\]
which we refer to as the “crossover” time, since it is the first time at which the \( Z_0 \)
and \( Z_1 \) paths cross, and represents roughly the time at which the \( Z_1 \) or resistant
cell population begins to dominate the tumor. In this section we investigate, using
the limit theorems proven in the previous section, the distribution of the crossover
time scaled by \( T_x \). First we utilize the crossover time of the limit processes to
obtain an estimate of this time. In particular, we define \( \tilde{u} \) to be the solution to
\[
\phi_0\left( \tilde{u}, T_x - \frac{1}{r} \log x \right) = \phi_1\left( \tilde{u}, T_x - \frac{1}{r} \log x \right).
\]
We obtain
\[
\tilde{u} = \frac{\log(\mu + (\lambda_1 + r)x^\alpha) - \log \mu}{T_x(\lambda_1 + r)}
\]
and establish the following result.
**Theorem 5.** The estimate $\tilde{u}$ and the scaled crossover time, $\frac{\xi}{T_x}$, converge to each other in probability as $x \to \infty$, that is, for all $\varepsilon > 0$,

$$
\mathbb{P}\left(\left|\frac{\xi}{T_x} - \tilde{u}\right| > \varepsilon\right) \to 0 \quad \text{as} \quad x \to \infty.
$$

See Section 7 for the proof of this result, which follows as an application of Theorem 3.

4.2. Turnaround time: Progression of disease. In this section we characterize the time at which the total tumor population stops declining and starts increasing. Define the following set of random times associated with the unscaled escape process:

$$
\tau = \arg\min_{t \geq 0} \{Z_0(t) + Z_1(t)\}.
$$

Using the sample path approximations, we can approximate this set of times, rescaled by the extinction time $T_x$, as the random variable

$$
u^* \equiv \frac{\log(r/(\lambda_1 \mu)) + \log(x^\alpha (\lambda_1 + r) - \mu)}{(\lambda_1 + r) T_x}.
$$

This corresponds to the time at which the approximated path of the total population size has derivative zero. Looking at the highest order terms in (4.3), we see that for large $x$,

$$
u^* \approx \frac{\alpha r}{\lambda_1 + r}.
$$

Thus a higher mutation rate, or smaller $\alpha$, leads to a quicker turnaround time (relative to the extinction time). In addition, as the decay rate $r$ increases, the time of progression relative to the time of extinction increases.

Throughout this section we work with the sped-up but unscaled joint population processes, $Z_i(us_x(t))$. For simplicity, write the sum of the mean of $Z_0$ and $Z_1$ as

$$
f_{x,t}(u) \equiv \mathbb{E}Z_0(us_x(t)) + \mathbb{E}Z_1(us_x(t))
$$

We will first show that with high probability, the critical point of $f_{x,t}$,

$$
u^*(t) \equiv \frac{\log(r/(\lambda_1 \mu)) + \log(x^\alpha (\lambda_1 + r) - \mu)}{(\lambda_1 + r)((1/r) \log x + t)}
$$

is close to the minimum of $Z_0(us_x(t)) + Z_1(us_x(t))$. We then establish that this statement is in fact true uniformly for $t$ in compact sets, and that $\tau/T_x$ is well approximated by $\nu^*$. 
Since \( u^*(t) \) is a critical point of \( f_{x,t} \), we have the following representation that will be useful:

\[
f_{x,t}(u^*(t)) = xe^{\lambda_0 u^*(t)((1/r)\log x + t)} \left( 1 - \frac{\mu}{x^\alpha(\lambda_1 + r)} \right) \left( 1 + \frac{r}{\lambda_1} \right),
\]

and

\[
f_{x,t}(u^*(t) + y) = xe^{\lambda_0 u^*(t)((1/r)\log x + t)} \left( 1 - \frac{\mu}{x^\alpha(\lambda_1 + r)} \right) \times \left( e^{\lambda_1 y((1/r)\log x + t)} + \frac{r}{\lambda_1} e^{\lambda_1 y/r} x^\alpha(\lambda_1 + r) \right).
\]

Therefore,

\[
f_{x,t}(u^*(t) + y) = f_{x,t}(u^*(t)) \left[ \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_1 + r} \right] \left( x^{-y} e^{\lambda_0 y t} + \frac{r}{\lambda_1} e^{\lambda_1 y/r} x^\alpha(\lambda_1 + r) \right).
\]

With this “steepness” at the minimum property we can establish that with high probability (for \( x \) large) the minimum of the total population is achieved at \( u^*(t) \).

**Lemma 4.** For \( \epsilon > 0 \),

\[
P\left( \frac{\tau - (1/r)\log x + t}{\epsilon} \cap [u^*(t) - \epsilon, u^*(t) + \epsilon] \neq \emptyset \right) \to 0
\]

as \( x \to \infty \).

The proof of this result is deferred to Section 7.

Similar to the approximation result in Lemma 2, it is then possible to establish that an analogous result holds uniformly for \( t \) in compact sets.

**Lemma 5.** For \( \epsilon > 0 \) and a constant \( M > 0 \),

(i) \[
P\left( \sup_{t \in [-M,M]} \inf_{u \in [0,u^*(t) - \epsilon]} \left[ Z_0(u) + Z_1(u) \right] < Z_0(u^*T_x) + Z_1(u^*T_x) \right) \to 0.
\]

(ii) \[
P\left( \sup_{t \in [-M,M]} \inf_{u \in [0,u^*(t) + \epsilon]} \left[ Z_0(u) + Z_1(u) \right] < Z_0(u^*T_x) + Z_1(u^*T_x) \right) \to 0
\]

as \( x \to \infty \).

See Section 7 for details of the proof.

We can now establish that the turnaround time of the scaled process \( \tau \) normalized by the extinction time \( T_x \) converges in probability to \( u^* \).
In Figure 2 we compare the sample probability density function of $\tau/T_x$ from simulations of the $(Z_0, Z_1)$ process with the theoretical PDF of $u^*$. It is observed that even with an initial starting population of size $x = 100,000$, the comparisons are favorable. Thus, in the application of interest where $x$ is on the order of $10^6$ cells or greater, we expect these limiting approximations to be of use.

5. An example: Recurrence dynamics in nonsmall cell lung cancer. In this section we apply the results to a simple model of drug resistance in nonsmall cell lung cancer (NSCLC). Nonsmall cell lung cancer is a disease in which malignant cells form in the tissues of the lung; it is the most common type of lung cancer, which causes over 150,000 deaths per year in the U.S. In recent years, a new class
of targeted anti-cancer drugs called tyrosine kinase inhibitors has been developed. These inhibitors target molecules specifically within cancer cells and inhibit key signaling pathways such as the epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR). Two such inhibitors, erlotinib and gefitinib, have been shown to be extremely successful in reducing tumor burden in a substantial subset of NSCLC patients. However, point mutations in the binding site of the drug have been identified that confer resistance to both therapies, and thus lead to recurrence or progression of the disease.

In previous work [2] we characterized the in vitro growth rates of a pair of human NSCLC cell lines which were sensitive or resistant to the drug erlotinib (see Figure 3). Here we utilize this experimental growth kinetic data and apply our results on turnaround time distribution to study the properties of the time of disease progression. In particular, for a series of drug concentrations we characterize the distribution of the random time $u^*$, using the experimental data to ascertain $r_0, d_0, r_1$ and $d_1$. In addition, we use known estimates of the biological parameter $\mu_x \approx 10^{-8}$, which corresponds to the mutation probability per cell division per base pair in the genome [16, 21]. We can then apply our estimates of the turnaround time distribution to study how the time until progression varies as a function of drug concentration. These distributions of $u^*$ are helpful in predicting the likely success of the therapy. In particular, $u^*$ indicates the fraction of the total time that the drug is effective ($T_x$) at which disease progression occurs. If the distribution of $u^*$ for a particular drug at a specific concentration has most of its mass bounded far below 1, the chance that the sensitive cell drug population is eradicated by the time of progression is extremely low. On the other hand, drugs whose profiles which place most of the $u^*$ distribution’s mass closer to 1 have better prospects of eliminating the tumor. In Figure 4 we plot the $u^*$ distribution for a NSCLC tumor starting with $10^9$ sensitive cells treated with erlotinib at various concentrations. Note that the current standard of care, the FDA approved dose elicits a concentration of 3 $\mu M$ in the plasma which corresponds to the upper right plot. As the drug concentration increases, the distribution of $u^*$ moves accordingly to the right;
however, even at the highest concentration the majority of the mass is still bounded well below 1 which indicates likely failure of the therapy. In clinical observations, following an initial response in terms of tumor reduction, 100 percent of patients develop resistance usually within 24 months of starting treatment [18].

One major clinical question in NSCLC treatment today is: once the disease has progressed and the tumor size begins to increase, what course of therapy is optimal? In particular, should the drug be withdrawn or should the patient be kept on erlotinib or gefitinib? If drug is maintained, how long should it be administered beyond progression? Here, estimates of the \( u^* \) distribution can be of use. We note that \( \tau \) is a clinically observable quantity since it represents the time until disease progression from the start of treatment. Once \( \tau \) is observed, using Theorem 6 and the approximation in (4.4) we can approximate \( T_x \), which represents the time at which the entire drug-sensitive population is eradicated. This gives a clear endpoint, \( T_x \) beyond which erlotinib therapy is unwarranted. Furthermore, we can easily obtain the distribution of the population size of resistant cells at this time \( Z_1(T_x) \) to estimate the projected resistant tumor size at the time the sensitive cells are eradicated. This information aids in determining whether erlotinib treatment

Fig. 4. Distributions of the turnaround time, \( u^* \), for a NSCLC tumor with initially \( 10^9 \) sensitive cells, treated with erlotinib at 1 \( \mu M \) (top left), 3 \( \mu M \) (top right), 5 \( \mu M \) (bottom left) and 10 \( \mu M \) (bottom right).
should be maintained until $T_x$ or a switch to alternative therapy should be made prior to $T_x$.

6. Summary. In this work we have considered the stochastic dynamics of escape from extinction in a binary branching process model. By considering the large starting population limit, we approximate the birth–death process with a simpler stochastic process whose only randomness is inherited from the weak limit of the extinction time. Using this limit, we approximate the distribution of the time until the total population begins to increase, and the time at which the escape mutants first begin to dominate the population. One of many possible future extensions is to consider the problems in this paper in a non-Markovian setting, that is, nonexponential distribution between events. This work contributes to a growing body of literature concerned with the mathematical understanding of cancer evolution, as well as to the general understanding of extinction and escape paths in branching process models. In future work we examine the setting $\alpha = 1$, where $O(1)$ mutations arise before extinction and escape from extinction is not assured in the large $x$ limit.

7. Proof of main results.

7.1. Proof of Theorem 2. We first establish the scaling of the mean for large initial population $x$.

By conditioning on the path of $Z_0$ until $T_x$ we get the formula (3.1); performing a change of measure and flipping the order of integration (by Tonelli’s theorem) we see

$$
\mathbb{E}[Z_1(vT_x)] = \mu_x \mathbb{E} \left[ \int_0^\infty 1_{[T_x \geq y/v]} Z_0(y) \exp(\lambda_1(vT_x - y)) \, dy \right] 
$$

$$
= \mu_x \int_0^\infty \mathbb{E}[1_{[T_x \geq y/v]} Z_0(y) \exp(\lambda_1(vT_x - y))] \, dy 
$$

$$
= \mu_x \int_0^\infty \int_{y/v}^{\infty} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} ne^{\lambda_1(vu-y)} \mathbb{P}(T_x \in dt \mid Z_0(y) = n) \mathbb{P}(Z_0(y) = n) \, dy \, dt.
$$

Note that $\mathbb{P}(T_x \in dt \mid Z_0(y) = n) = g_n(t - y) \, dt$, where $g_n$ is the density of the extinction time for a population starting from a population of size $n$, and can be written as $g_n(t) = n(G(t))^n - 1 g(t)$, where $g$ is the density of the extinction time for a population starting from a single cell, and $G$ is the c.d.f. Therefore, upon rearranging the order of integration we get that

$$
\mathbb{E}[Z_1(vT_x)] = \mu_x \int_0^\infty \int_{y/v}^{\infty} e^{\lambda_1(vu-y)} g(t - y) \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^2 (G(t - y))^{n-1} \mathbb{P}(Z_0(y) = n) \right) \, dt \, dy.
$$
Next define

\[ F_x(s,t) = E\left[ sZ_0(t) \right] \quad \text{and} \quad F(s,t) = E\left[ sZ_0(t) | Z_0(0) = 1, Z_1(0) = 0 \right], \]

and observe that due to the independence of the branching structure \( F_x(s,t) = (F(s,t))^x \). Therefore,

\[
\begin{align*}
\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} n^2 s^{n-1} \mathbb{P}(Z_0(t) = n) &= s \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} F_x(s,t) + \frac{\partial}{\partial s} F_x(s,t) \\
&= sx(F(s,t))^{x-1} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial s^2} F(s,t) + sx(x-1)(F(s,t))^{x-2} \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial s} F(s,t) \right)^2 \\
&\quad + x(F(s,t))^{x-1} \frac{\partial}{\partial s} F(s,t).
\end{align*}
\]

(7.1)

For ease of notation we will simply write \( \frac{\partial}{\partial s} F(s,t) = F'(s,t) \). Using (7.1) we obtain

\[
\mathbb{E}\left[ Z_1(vT_x) \right] = x \mu x \int_0^\infty \int_{y/v}^\infty e^{\lambda_1(vt-y)} g(t-y) F(G(t-y), y)^{x-2} \\
\times \left[ (x-1)G(t-y) F'(G(t-y), y)^2 \\
+ G(t-y) F(G(t-y), y) F''(G(t-y), y) \\
+ F(G(t-y), y) F'(G(t-y), y) \right] dy \, dt.
\]

This expression can be analyzed using techniques from [10]. In particular, if we introduce the change of variable

\[ t = \frac{1}{r}(z + \log cx) = z_x, \]

observe that

\[ e^{\lambda_1(vz_x-y)} = e^{\lambda_1(vz/r-y)} (cx)^{\lambda_1 v/r}. \]

After the change of variables we have

\[ \mathbb{E}\left[ Z_1(vT_x) \right] = I_1(x, v) + I_2(x, v), \]

where

\[
\begin{align*}
I_1(x, v) &= \frac{x(x-1)(cx)^{\lambda_1 v/r} \mu_x}{r} \int_0^{\infty} \int_{ry/v - \log cx}^\infty \Phi_1(z, y) \, dz \, dy, \\
I_2(x, v) &= \frac{x(cx)^{\lambda_1 v/r} \mu_x}{r} \int_0^{\infty} \int_{ry/v - \log cx}^\infty \Phi_2(z, y) \, dz \, dy.
\end{align*}
\]
and
\[ \Phi_1(z, y) = e^{\lambda_1(vz/r-y)} g(z_x - y) G(z_x - y) \]
\[ \times (F(G(z_x - y), y))^{x-2} (F'(G(z_x - y), y))^2, \]
\[ \Phi_2(z, y) = e^{\lambda_1(vz/r-y)} g(z_x - y) (F(G(z_x - y), y))^{x-1} \]
\[ \times [G(z_x - y) F''(G(z_x - y), y) + F'(G(z_x - y), y)]. \]

We will now establish that for \( v \in (0, 1) \), \( x^{\alpha - 1 - \lambda_1 v/r} I_1(x, v) = \tilde{I}_1(x, v) \to I_1(v) \) and \( x^{\alpha - 1 - \lambda_1 v/r} I_2(x, v) = \tilde{I}_2(x, v) \to 0 \) as \( x \to \infty \). The integrand of \( \tilde{I}_1(x, v) \) is
\[ f_x(z, y) = c_0 x g(z_x - y) G(z_x - y) \]
\[ \times (F(G(z_x - y), y))^{x-2} (F'(G(z_x - y), y))^2 e^{\lambda_1(vz/r-y)}, \]
where \( c_0 = \mu e^{\lambda_1 v/r} \). From [10] we know that as \( z \to \infty \), \( g(z) \sim rce^{-rz} \), and therefore
\[ g(z_x - y) \sim \frac{r}{x} e^{ry} e^{-z} \]
as \( x \to \infty \). Next note that there exists a \( \xi_x \in (G(z_x - y), 1) \) such that
\[ F'(G(z_x - y), y) = F'(1, y) + (1 - G(z_x - y)) F''(\xi_x, y) \]
\[ = e^{-ry} + O(1 - G(z_x - y)), \]
and therefore
\[ F'(G(z_x - y), y) \sim e^{-ry}. \]

Last, observe that
\[ F(G(z_x - y), y) = 1 + e^{-ry} (G(z_x - y) - 1) + O(G(z_x - y) - 1)^2, \]
and therefore
\[ \log F(G(z_x - y), y) = -(1 - G(z_x - y)) e^{-ry} + O(G(z_x - y) - 1)^2. \]

Observe that
\[ 1 - G(z_x - y) \sim \frac{e^{ry} e^{-z}}{x}, \]
which gives that
\[ (F(G(z_x - y), y))^{x-2} \sim \exp[-e^{-z}]. \]

Combining (7.2), (7.3) and (7.4) we see that
\[ \lim_{x \to \infty} f_x(z, y) = c_1 e^{-z(1-(\lambda_1/r)v)} e^{-y(r+\lambda_1)} \exp[-e^{-z}], \]
where \( c_1 = rc_0 \). In order to evaluate the limit of \( \tilde{I}_1 \) it thus remains to show that the limit can be passed inside the integral; this will be done by finding an integrable function \( h \) such that \( f_x(z, y) \leq h(z, y) \). First note that since \( G(z) \leq 1 \) and \( F'(s, t) \leq E_1 Z_0(t) = e^{-rt} \), we have

\[
f_x(z, y) \leq c_0 x \lambda_1(z/v - r - y) g(z_x - y) (F(G(z_x - y), y))^{x-2} e^{-2ry}.
\]

Then observe that there exists a constant \( k_1 \) such that

\[
g(z_x - y) \leq k_1 e^{-(z_x - y)} \geq \frac{k_2}{x} e^{-z} e^{ry}.
\]

Since \( \log x \leq x - 1 \) we have

\[
(F(G(z_x - y), y))^{x-2} = \exp[(x - 2) \log F(G(z_x - y), y)] \leq \exp[-(x - 2)(1 - F(G(z_x - y), y))].
\]

Using results from the proofs of Proposition 1 and Lemma 1 of [10], we can establish that

\[
1 - F(G(z_x - y), y) \geq e^{-z}.
\]

Based on (7.6) and (7.7) we see that we can use the dominating function

\[
h(z, y) = k_3 e^{\lambda_1(vz/r - y)} e^{-z} e^{-ry} \exp[-k_2 e^{-z}].
\]

With this result we see that

\[\lim_{x \to \infty} \tilde{I}_1(x, v) = c_0 \int_0^\infty \int_{x \to \infty} f_x(z, y) \, dz \, dy = c_1 \int_0^\infty \int_{-\infty}^\infty e^{\lambda_1(vz/r - y)} e^{-ry} e^{-z} \exp[-e^{-z}] \, dz \, dy = \frac{\mu e^{\lambda_1/v} r}{\Gamma(1 - \lambda_1/v)} \left( \lambda_1 + r \right).\]

We now consider \( \tilde{I}_2 \). First observe that for \((s, t) \in [0, 1] \times [0, \infty)\) there exists finite \( k_4 \) such that \( F'(s, t) \leq k_4 \) and \( F''(s, t) \leq k_4 \) and, of course, \( F(s, t) \leq 1 \). Therefore, if we consider \( \tilde{I}_2 \) in terms of the original variables, there exists a finite constant \( k_5 \) such that

\[
\tilde{I}_2(x, v) \leq k_5 x^{-v\lambda_1/r} \int_0^\infty \int_{y/v}^\infty e^{\lambda_1(vt - y)} g(t - y) \, dt \, dy = k_5 x^{-v\lambda_1/r} \int_0^\infty \int_{y/(1/v - 1)}^\infty e^{-\lambda_1 y} g(s) e^{\lambda_1 v(s + y)} \, ds \, dy = k_6 x^{-v\lambda_1/r},
\]

where the first equality follows by using the change of variable \( s = t - y \). Thus \( \tilde{I}_2(x, v) \to 0 \) as \( x \to \infty \) for \( v \in (0, 1] \).
7.2. Proof of Lemma 1. We will start by establishing item (ii). Define \( F_0^\infty \) to be the sigma algebra generated by the wave 0 population until their eventual extinction, then

\[
E[Z_1(s_x(t)) | F_0^\infty] = \mu_x \int_0^{s_x(t)} Z_0(y)e^{\lambda_1(s_x(t)-y)} dy
\]

and therefore

\[
E[Z_0(s)Z_1(s_x(t))] = e^{\lambda_1 s_x(t)} \mu_x \int_0^{s_x(t)} E[Z_0(y)Z_0(s)] e^{-\lambda_1 y} dy.
\]

Now we establish the second moment result, item (i). For simplicity we evaluate \( E[Z_1(t)] \) for a positive \( t \). For ease of notation we will use the following \( \tilde{E}[\cdot] = E[\cdot | F_0^\infty] \). Consider a partition of \([0, t]\), \( 0 < \Delta < 2\Delta < \cdots < t \), where \( \Delta = t/m \) for a large integer \( m \). Then we can write

\[
E[Z_1(t)^2 | F_0^\infty] = \tilde{E}\left( \sum_{j=0}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{N_j} B_{j,k}(t - \tau_{j,k}) \right)^2
\]

\[
= \sum_{j=0}^{m} \tilde{E}\left( \sum_{k=1}^{N_j} B_{j,k}(t - \tau_{j,k}) \right)^2
\]

\[
+ \sum_{j=0}^{m} \sum_{\ell \neq j} \tilde{E}\left( \sum_{k=1}^{N_j} B_{j,k}(t - \tau_{j,k}) \right) \tilde{E}\left( \sum_{k=1}^{N_\ell} B_{\ell,k}(t - \tau_{\ell,k}) \right),
\]

where \( N_j \) is the number of type-1 mutants created in \([j\Delta, (j+1)\Delta)\), \( \{B_{j,k}\} \) is a collection of i.i.d binary birth–death processes with birth rate \( a_1 \) and death rate \( d_1 \) and \( \tau_{j,k} \) is the time of creation for the \( k \)th mutant created in \([j\Delta, (j+1)\Delta)\). In the previous display we have used the independence of the branching process to derive the second equality. For \( 0 \leq j \leq m \),

\[
E[N_j] = \Delta \mu_x Z_0(j\Delta) + o(\Delta),
\]

\[
E[N_j^2] = \Delta \mu_x Z_0(j\Delta)(1 + \Delta \mu_x Z_0(j\Delta)) + o(\Delta).
\]

Therefore,

\[
\tilde{E}\left( \sum_{k=1}^{N_j} B_{j,k}(t - \tau_{j,k}) \right)^2 = \tilde{E}N_j \tilde{E}[B(t - \tau_j)^2] + \tilde{E}[N_j(N_j - 1)](\tilde{E}[B(t - \tau_j)^2]
\]

\[
= \Delta \mu_x Z_0(j\Delta) \tilde{E}[B(t - \tau_j)^2] + O(\Delta^2)
\]

\[
= \Delta \mu_x Z_0(j\Delta) \left( \frac{2r_1}{\lambda_1} e^{2\lambda_1(t-\tau_j)} - \frac{r_1 + d_1}{\lambda_1} e^{\lambda_1(t-\tau_j)} \right)
\]

\[
+ O(\Delta^2)
\]
and
\[ \mathbb{E}\left( \sum_{k=1}^{N_\ell} B_{\ell,k}(t - \tau_{\ell,k}) \right) = \Delta \mu_x Z_0(j \Delta) \mathbb{E}(B(t - \tau_j)) = \Delta \mu_x Z_0(j \Delta) e^{\lambda_1(t - \tau_j)}. \]

Using the previous two expressions we get
\[
\mathbb{E}[Z_1(t)^2] = \Delta \mu_x \sum_{j=0}^{m} Z_0(j \Delta) \left( \frac{2r_1}{\lambda_1} e^{2\lambda_1(t - \tau_j)} - \frac{r_1 + d_1}{\lambda_1} e^{\lambda_1(t - \tau_j)} \right) \\
+ (\mu_x \Delta)^2 \sum_{j=0}^{m} \sum_{\ell=0, \ell \neq j} Z_0(j \Delta) Z_0(\ell \Delta) e^{\lambda_1(t - \tau_j)} e^{\lambda_1(t - \tau_\ell)}.
\]

Sending $\Delta \to 0$, integrating over $Z_0$ and replacing $t$ with $1/r \log x + t$ gives us the desired formula for item (i).

Item (iii) follows immediately from item (i).

7.3. Proof of Lemma 2. We will prove the more difficult second statement first. We observe that it suffices to prove that as $x \to \infty$,
\[
\mathbb{P} \left( \sup_{u \in [0,1]} e^{-\lambda_1 u t} \left| Z_1^x(u s_x(t)) - \phi_1^x(u, t) \right| > e^{-\lambda_1 t \varepsilon} \right) \to 0.
\]

Next observe that
\[
e^{-\lambda_1 u t} x^{-\alpha + 1 + \lambda_1 u/r} \left( Z_1(u s_x(t)) - \phi_1(u, t) \right) \\
= \left( e^{-\lambda_1 u t} x^{\alpha + 1 + \lambda_1 u/r} Z_1(u s_x(t)) - \frac{\mu}{x^{1+\alpha}} \int_0^{u s_x(t)} Z_0(s) e^{-\lambda_1 s} ds \right) x^\alpha \\
+ \frac{\mu}{x} \int_0^{u s_x(t)} (Z_0(s) - x e^{\lambda_0 s}) e^{-\lambda_1 s} ds,
\]

and therefore
\[
\mathbb{P} \left( \sup_{u \in [0,1]} e^{-\lambda_1 u t} \left| Z_1^x(u s_x(t)) - \phi_1^x(u, t) \right| > e^{-\lambda_1 t \varepsilon} \right) \\
\leq \mathbb{P} \left( \sup_{u \in [0,1]} x^{\alpha} \left| e^{-\lambda_1 u t} x^{1+\lambda_1 u/r} Z_1(u s_x(t)) - \frac{\mu}{x^{1+\alpha}} \int_0^{u s_x(t)} Z_0(s) e^{-\lambda_1 s} ds \right| > \varepsilon/2 \right) \\
+ \mathbb{P} \left( \sup_{u \in [0,1]} \frac{\mu}{x} \int_0^{u s_x(t)} \left| Z_0(s) - x e^{\lambda_0 s} \right| e^{-\lambda_1 s} ds > \varepsilon/2 \right).
\]

However, we can observe that the process considered in the second expression in the sum is monotonic in $u$, and the process considered in the first expression is a
martingale in \( u \), which allows us to arrive at the following simpler inequality:

\[
P\left( \sup_{u \in [0,1]} e^{-\lambda_1 u t} | Z^x_1(usx(t)) - \phi^x_1(u,t) | > e^{-\lambda_1 t} \varepsilon \right)
\]

\[
(7.8) \quad \leq 4 x^{2\alpha} \frac{2}{e^2} \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \frac{e^{-\lambda_1 t}}{x^{\lambda_1/r+1}} Z_1(s_x(t)) - \frac{\mu}{x^{1+\alpha}} \int_0^{s_x(t)} Z_0(s) e^{-\lambda_1 s} ds \right)^2 \right]
\]

\[+ P \left( \frac{\mu}{x} \int_0^{s_x(t)} | Z_0(s) - xe^{\lambda_0 s} | e^{-\lambda_1 s} ds > \varepsilon / 2 \right) .
\]

Consider the latter quantity first, where it suffices to show that as \( x \to \infty \),

\[
\frac{\mu}{x} \int_0^{s_x(t)} \mathbb{E} \left[ | Z_0(s) - xe^{\lambda_0 s} | \right] e^{-\lambda_1 s} ds \to 0.
\]

Next observe that

\[
\text{Var}(Z_0(s)) = x \left( \frac{r_0 + d_0}{\lambda_0} \right) \left( e^{2\lambda_0 s} - e^{\lambda_0 s} \right).
\]

It follows from the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality that

\[
\frac{\mu}{x} \int_0^{s_x(t)} \mathbb{E} \left[ | Z_0(s) - xe^{\lambda_0 s} | \right] e^{-\lambda_1 s} ds = O\left( x^{-1/2} \right).
\]

Moving on to the first term in (7.8),

\[
x^{2\alpha} \mathbb{E} \left[ \left( \frac{e^{-\lambda_1 t}}{x^{\lambda_1/r+1}} Z_1(s_x(t)) - \frac{\mu}{x^{1+\alpha}} \int_0^{s_x(t)} Z_0(s) e^{-\lambda_1 s} ds \right)^2 \right]
\]

\[
= \left( \frac{e^{-\lambda_1 t}}{x^{1+\lambda_1/r}} \right)^2 \mathbb{E} \left[ Z_1(s_x(t))^2 \right] - 2 x^{2\alpha} \frac{\mu e^{-\lambda_1 t}}{x^{2+\lambda_1/r+\alpha}} \int_0^{s_x(t)} e^{-\lambda_1 s} \mathbb{E} \left[ Z_0(s) Z_1(s_x(t)) \right] ds
\]

\[+ \left( \frac{\mu}{x} \right)^2 \int_0^{s_x(t)} \int_0^{s_x(t)} \mathbb{E} \left[ Z_0(s) Z_0(y) \right] e^{-\lambda_1 s} e^{-\lambda_1 y} ds dy .
\]

Using Lemma 1 we see that (7.9) can be written as

\[
2 r_1 x^{\alpha-1} \frac{\mu}{\lambda_1} \int_0^{s_x(t)} e^{\lambda_0 (2-\lambda_1)} ds - \frac{(r_1 + d_1) \mu e^{-\lambda_1 t}}{\lambda_1 x^{1-\alpha+\lambda_1/r}} \int_0^{s_x(t)} e^{\lambda_0 (\lambda_0 - \lambda_1)} ds = O\left( x^{\alpha-1} \right),
\]

thus establishing the result (ii).

We now move on to the proof of item (i). First observe that

\[
\sup_{u \in [0,a]} | Z^x_0(usx(t)) - \phi^x_0(u,t) | \leq e^{-\lambda_0 a t^-} \sup_{u \in [0,a]} e^{-\lambda_0 u t^-} | Z^x_0(usx(t)) - \phi^x_0(u,t) | ,
\]

where \( t^- = - \min(t,0) \). We will show that as \( x \to \infty \),

\[
P \left( \sup_{u \in [0,a]} | e^{-\lambda_0 t^-} Z^x_0(usx(t)) - 1 | \geq e e^{\lambda_0 a t^-} \right) \to 0.
\]
Observe that $e^{-\lambda_0 ut} x^{u-1} Z_0(us_x(t)) - 1$ is a martingale with respect to $u$. Therefore, it suffices to show that as $x \to \infty$,

$$
\mathbb{E}[e^{-\lambda_0 ot} Z_0^x(as_x(t)) - 1]^2 = x^{2a-1} e^{-2\lambda_0 t} \text{Var}_1 Z_0(as_x(t)) \to 0,
$$

where $\text{Var}_1 Z_0(t)$ represents the variance of $Z_0(t)$ starting with an initial population size 1. The previous expression reduces to

$$
x^{a-1} e^{-a\lambda_0 t} (x^{-a} e^{-\lambda_0 at} - 1)(r_0 + d_0)/\lambda_0,
$$

and since we have assumed that $a < 1$, the result is established.

### 7.4. Proof of Lemma 3

Throughout the proof assume that $x > e^{rM}$. We first establish the result for the $Z_1$ population by showing the following monotonicity property in $t$:

$$
\sup_{u \in [0,1]} \left| Z_1^x \left( u \left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + t_0 \right) \right) - \phi_1^x (u, t_0) \right| 
\leq \sup_{u \in [0,1]} \left| Z_1^x \left( u \left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + t_1 \right) \right) - \phi_1^x (u, t_1) \right|
$$

for $t_0 \leq t_1$. For any $u \in [0,1]$ set

$$
\bar{u} \equiv \frac{u((1/r) \log x + t_0)}{(1/r) \log x + t_1},
$$

which, of course, implies that $\bar{u} \left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + t_1 \right) = u(\frac{1}{r} \log x + t_0)$. In addition, observe that $\bar{u} \leq u$ and thus $x^{-\lambda_1 u/r} \leq x^{-\lambda_1 \bar{u}/r}$. Therefore,

$$
x^{-\lambda_1 u/r} \left| Z_1 \left( u \left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + t_0 \right) \right) - \phi_1 (u, t_0) \right| 
\leq x^{-\lambda_1 \bar{u}/r} \left| Z_1 \left( \bar{u} \left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + t_1 \right) \right) - \phi_1 (\bar{u}, t_1) \right|.
$$

Since $u \in [0,1]$ was arbitrary we have that

$$
\sup_{t \in [-M,M]} \sup_{u \in [0,1]} x^{a-1-\lambda_1 u/r} \left| Z_1(us_x(t)) - \phi_1 (u, t) \right| 
\leq \sup_{u \in [0,1]} x^{a-1-\lambda_1 u/r} \left| Z_1 \left( u \left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + M \right) \right) - \phi_1 (u, M) \right|.
$$

Result (ii) now follows by an application of Lemma 2.

The proof of result (i) will follow a similar approach. In particular, for $t \leq M$ and $u \in [0, a]$, define

$$
\hat{u} = u \left( \frac{(1/r) \log x + t}{(1/r) \log x + M} \right).
$$
Notice that
\[ u - \hat{u} = u \left( \frac{M - t}{(1/r) \log x + M} \right) \leq a \left( \frac{M - t}{(1/r) \log x + M} \right) = n(x, M). \]

Using the definition of \( n(x, M) \) it follows that \( n(x, M) \log x \leq 2arM \) which implies that \( x^{u-\hat{u}} \leq e^{2arM} \). Based on the definition of \( \hat{u} \) and the upper bound on \( x^{u-\hat{u}} \)
\[ x^u |Z_0(us_x(t)) - \phi_0(u, t)| \]
\[ = x^{u-\hat{u}} x^\hat{u} |Z_0 \left( \hat{u} \left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + M \right) \right) - \phi_0(\hat{u}, M)| \]
\[ \leq e^{2arM} x^{\hat{u}} |Z_0 \left( \hat{u} \left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + M \right) \right) - \phi_0(\hat{u}, M)|. \]

Since the previous inequality holds for any \( u \), we know that for any \( t \in [-M, M] \),
\[ \sup_{u \in [0, a]} x^u |Z_0(us_x(t)) - \phi_0(u, t)| \]
\[ \leq e^{2arM} \sup_{u \in [0, a]} x^{\hat{u}} |Z_0 \left( u \left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + M \right) \right) - \phi_0(u, M)|. \]

Thus the result of (i) is established by using the result of Lemma 2 for \( t = M \).

7.5. Proof of Theorem 5. First we prove that \( P(\xi / T_x \leq \tilde{u} - \epsilon) \rightarrow 0 \) as \( x \rightarrow \infty \). In particular, recall that
\[ \phi_0(u, t) = x^{1-u} e^{\lambda_0 ut}, \]
\[ \phi_1(u, t) = \frac{\mu x^{1-a+\lambda_1 u/r} e^{\lambda_1 ut}}{\lambda_1 + r} \left( 1 - e^{u(\lambda_0 - \lambda_1) t x^{(\lambda_0 - \lambda_1) u/r}} \right). \]

Then let us utilize the notation \( d(T_x) \equiv T_x - \frac{1}{r} \log x \) to represent the deviation of \( T_x \) from its scaling,
\[ P \left( \sup_{u \leq \tilde{u} - \epsilon} (Z_1(uT_x) - Z_0(uT_x)) > 0 \right) \]
\[ \leq P \left( \sup_{u \leq \tilde{u} - \epsilon} x^{u-1} (Z_1(uT_x) - \phi_1(u, d(T_x))) + (\phi_1(u, d(T_x)) - \phi_0(u, d(T_x))) \right) \\
+ (\phi_0(u, d(T_x)) - Z_0(uT_x)) > 0, |d(T_x)| \leq \frac{1}{r} \log x \)
\[ + P \left( |d(T_x)| > \frac{1}{r} \log x \right) \]
\[ \leq P \left( \sup_{u \leq \tilde{u} - \epsilon} x^{u-1} (Z_1(uT_x) - \phi_1(u, d(T_x))) \right) \]
\[+ \sup_{u \leq \tilde{u} - \epsilon} x^{u-1} (\phi_1(u, d(T_x)) - \phi_0(u, d(T_x)))
\]
\[+ \sup_{u \leq \tilde{u} - \epsilon} x^{u-1} (\phi_0(u, d(T_x)) - Z_0^x(uT_x)) > 0, |d(T_x)| \leq \frac{1}{r} \log x \]
\[+ \mathbb{P}\left(|d(T_x)| > \frac{1}{r} \log x\right).
\]
Clearly \(\mathbb{P}(|d(T_x)| > \frac{1}{r} \log x) \to 0\) as \(x \to \infty\), and it thus remains to analyze the first expression on the right-hand side of previous display. First notice that if 
\[|d(T_x)| \leq \frac{1}{r} \log x,\]
then
\[\sup_{u \leq \tilde{u} - \epsilon} x^{u-1} (\phi_1(u, d(T_x)) - \phi_0(u, d(T_x))) = x^{\tilde{u} - \epsilon - 1} (\phi_1(\tilde{u} - \epsilon, d(T_x)) - \phi_0(\tilde{u} - \epsilon, d(T_x))).\]
Therefore, it suffices to show that the following converges to 0:
\[\mathbb{P} \left( \sup_{u \leq \tilde{u} - \epsilon} x^{u-1} (Z_1(uT_x) - \phi_1(u, d(T_x))) + x^{\tilde{u} - \epsilon - 1} (\phi_1(\tilde{u} - \epsilon, d(T_x)) - \phi_0(\tilde{u} - \epsilon, d(T_x))) + \sup_{u \leq \tilde{u} - \epsilon} x^{u-1} (\phi_0(u, d(T_x)) - Z_0^x(uT_x)) > 0 \right).
\]
To study this let us start by considering the first term in the sum above:
\[\sup_{u \leq \tilde{u} - \epsilon} |x^{u-1} (Z_1(uT_x) - \phi_1(u, d(T_x)))| \]
\[(7.12) \leq \sup_{u \leq \tilde{u} - \epsilon} x^{u(1 + \lambda_1/r) - \alpha} \sup_{u \leq \tilde{u} - \epsilon} |x^{u-1} (Z_1(uT_x) - \phi_1(u, d(T_x)))).\]
The second term in the product converges to zero in probability via Theorem 3. The first term tends to zero by the following argument:
\[\log \left[ \sup_{u \leq \tilde{u} - \epsilon} x^{u(1 + \lambda_1/r) - \alpha} \right]
\]
where in the third equality we have utilized the fact that
\[
\hat{u} \left( \frac{\lambda_1 + r}{r} \right) = \frac{1}{r T_x} \log \left[ \frac{(\lambda_1 + r) x^\alpha}{\mu} + 1 \right]
\]
due to the definition of \( \hat{u} \). Observe that \((-\frac{\lambda_1}{r} + 1) \epsilon \log x \) diverges to negative infinity, while the first and third terms approach finite limits. This can be seen by observing that
\[
\frac{\log x}{r T_x} \to 1
\]
in probability. Thus, we conclude that (7.12) goes to zero in probability.

The second term in (7.11) is considered next. Via the definition of \( \phi_0(u, d(T_x)) \) and the limit result on the extinction time (2.1), we have that as \( x \to \infty \),
\[
x^{\hat{u} - \epsilon - 1} \phi_0(\hat{u} - \epsilon, d(T_x)) \Rightarrow c^{- (\hat{u} - \epsilon)} e^{-(\hat{u} - \epsilon) \eta},
\]
where \( \eta \) is a standard Gumbel random variable and \( c \) is the positive Yaglom constant. Importantly, this limit random variable is positive with probability one. The first term can be shown to approach zero by noting that
\[
x^{\hat{u} - \epsilon - 1} \phi_1(\hat{u} - \epsilon, d(T_x)) = x^{(\hat{u} - \epsilon)(1 + \lambda_1/r) - \alpha} x^{(\hat{u} - \epsilon)\lambda_1/r - 1} \phi_1(\hat{u} - \epsilon, d(T_x)),
\]
where the first term approaches zero, as argued previously since its log approaches negative infinity, and the product of the remaining terms approaches a constant times the exponential of a Gumbel, which is again a result of (2.1). The third term in (7.11),
\[
\sup_{u \leq \hat{u} - \epsilon} x^{u - 1} (\phi_0(u, d(T_x)) - Z_0^1(u T_x)),
\]
converges to zero in probability by Theorem 3. Therefore,
\[
\limsup_{x \to \infty} \P(\xi / T_x \leq \hat{u} - \epsilon) \leq \P(c^{- (\hat{u} - \epsilon)} e^{-(\hat{u} - \epsilon) \eta} \leq 0) = 0.
\]

Next, we need to show that \( \P(\xi / T_x \geq \hat{u} + \epsilon) \to 0 \). We have by definition of \( \xi \) that
\[
\P(\xi / T_x > \hat{u} + \epsilon) \leq \P(Z_0((\hat{u} + \epsilon) T_x) - Z_1((\hat{u} + \epsilon) T_x) > 0)
\]
\[
= \P(x^{\alpha - (\hat{u} + \epsilon)(\lambda_1/r) - 1} (Z_0((\hat{u} + \epsilon) T_x) - Z_1((\hat{u} + \epsilon) T_x)) > 0)
\]
\[
= \P(x^{\alpha - (\hat{u} + \epsilon)(\lambda_1/r) - 1} (Z_0((\hat{u} + \epsilon) T_x) - \phi_0(\hat{u} + \epsilon, d(T_x)))
\]
\[
+ x^{\alpha - (\hat{u} + \epsilon)(\lambda_1/r) - 1} (\phi_0(\hat{u} + \epsilon, d(T_x)) - \phi_1(\hat{u} + \epsilon, d(T_x)))
\]
\[
+ x^{\alpha - (\hat{u} + \epsilon)(\lambda_1/r) - 1} (\phi_1(\hat{u} + \epsilon, d(T_x)) - Z_1((\hat{u} + \epsilon) T_x)) > 0).
\]
It is easily shown that the right-hand side of the previous display goes to 0 using analogous arguments from the analysis of (7.11).
7.6. **Proof of Lemma 4.** Here we establish Lemma 4, namely, that \( u^*(t) \) approximates \( \tau/(\frac{1}{r} \log x + t) \).

**Proof.** We will prove first that

\[
\Pr\left( \inf_{u \in [u^*(t) + \varepsilon, \infty]} Z_1(u s_x(t)) < Z_0(u^*(t)s_x(t)) + Z_1(u^*(t)s_x(t)) \right) \to 0.
\]

Consider the following decomposition of the event of interest,

\[
\Pr\left( \inf_{u \in [u^*(t) + \varepsilon, \infty]} Z_1(u s_x(t)) < Z_0(u^*(t)s_x(t)) + Z_1(u^*(t)s_x(t)) \right) \leq \Pr\left( \inf_{u \in [u^*(t) + \varepsilon, \infty]} Z_1(u s_x(t)) < f(u^*(t) + \varepsilon/2) \right) + \Pr(Z_0(u^*(t)s_x(t)) + Z_1(u^*(t)s_x(t)) > f_{x,t}(u^*(t) + \varepsilon/2)).
\]

We can apply Markov’s inequality to the last probability to see

\[
\Pr(Z_0(u^*(t)s_x(t)) + Z_1(u^*(t)s_x(t)) > f_{x,t}(u^*(t) + \varepsilon/2)) \leq \frac{\mathbb{E}[Z_0(u^*(t)s_x(t)) + Z_1(u^*(t)s_x(t))]}{f_{x,t}(u^*(t) + \varepsilon/2)} = O(x^{-\lambda_1 \varepsilon/2r}),
\]

where the last equality follows from the “steepness” at the minimum property (4.6).

Define the event

\[
A_{\varepsilon}(x, t) = \inf\{Z_1(u s_x(t)) : u \in [u^*(t) + \varepsilon, \infty)\} < f(u^*(t) + \varepsilon/2).
\]

Then,

\[
\Pr(A_{\varepsilon}(x, t)) = \Pr(A_{\varepsilon}(x, t), Z_1((u^*(t) + \varepsilon)s_x(t)) < f_{x,t}(u^*(t) + 3\varepsilon/4)) + \Pr(A_{\varepsilon}(x, t), Z_1((u^*(t) + \varepsilon)s_x(t)) > f_{x,t}(u^*(t) + 3\varepsilon/4)) \leq \Pr(Z_1((u^*(t) + \varepsilon)s_x(t)) < f_{x,t}(u^*(t) + 3\varepsilon/4)) + \Pr(A_{\varepsilon}(x, t), Z_1((u^*(t) + \varepsilon)s_x(t)) > f_{x,t}(u^*(t) + 3\varepsilon/4)).
\]

Using Chebyshev’s inequality and the result in (4.6) again, we see that

\[
\Pr(Z_1((u^*(t) + \varepsilon)s_x(t)) < f_{x,t}(u^*(t) + 3\varepsilon/4)) = \Pr(Z_1((u^*(t) + \varepsilon)s_x(t)) - \mathbb{E}[Z_1((u^*(t) + \varepsilon)s_x(t))] < f_{x,t}(u^*(t) + 3\varepsilon/4) - \mathbb{E}Z_1((u^*(t) + \varepsilon)s_x(t)))]
\leq \frac{\mathbb{E}|Z_1((u^*(t) + \varepsilon)s_x(t)) - \mathbb{E}Z_1((u^*(t) + \varepsilon)s_x(t))|^2}{|f_{x,t}(u^*(t) + 3\varepsilon/4) - \mathbb{E}Z_1((u^*(t) + \varepsilon)s_x(t))|^2}.
\]
Let us consider first the denominator in the above expression, and note that since \( u^*(t) \) minimizes \( \mathbb{E} Z_0(\mu s x(t)) + \mathbb{E} Z_1(\mu s x(t)) \), we have that
\[
\frac{r}{\lambda_1} x e^{\lambda_0 u^*(t)((1/r) \log x + t)} \left( 1 - \frac{\mu}{x^\alpha(\lambda_1 + r)} \right) = \frac{x^{1-\alpha} \mu}{\lambda_1 + r} e^{\lambda_1 u^*(t)((1/r) \log x + t)}.
\]

Thus,
\[
\mathbb{E}[Z_1((u^*(t) + \varepsilon) s x(t))] = \begin{aligned}
x e^{\lambda_0 u^*(t)((1/r) \log x + t)} & \left[ -\frac{\mu}{x^\alpha(\lambda_1 + r)} e^{\lambda_0 \varepsilon((1/r) \log x + t)} \\
+ \frac{r}{\lambda_1} \left( 1 - \frac{\mu}{x^\alpha(\lambda_1 + r)} \right) e^{\lambda_1 \varepsilon((1/r) \log x + t)} \right].
\end{aligned}
\]

Also,
\[
f_{x,t}(u^*(t) + 3\varepsilon/4) = \begin{aligned}
x e^{\lambda_0 u^*(t)((1/r) \log x + t)} & \left( 1 - \frac{\mu}{x^\alpha(\lambda_1 + r)} \right) e^{\lambda_0 3\varepsilon/4((1/r) \log x + t)} \\
+ \left( \frac{r}{\lambda_1} \right) e^{\lambda_1 3\varepsilon/4((1/r) \log x + t)},
\end{aligned}
\]

and therefore
\[
\left| f_{x,t}(u^*(t) + 3\varepsilon/4) - \mathbb{E} Z_1((u^*(t) + \varepsilon) s x(t)) \right|^2
= \begin{aligned}
x^{1-u^*(t)} e^{\lambda_0 u^*(t)t} & \left[ \left( 1 - \frac{\mu}{x^\alpha(\lambda_1 + r)} \right) x^{-3\varepsilon/4} e^{3\lambda_0 \varepsilon t}/4 + \frac{r}{\lambda_1} x^{3\lambda_1 \varepsilon t}/4 e^{3\lambda_1 \varepsilon t}/4 \right] \\
+ \frac{\mu}{x^\alpha(\lambda_1 + r)} x^{-\varepsilon} e^{-\varepsilon t} & - \frac{r}{\lambda_1} \left( 1 - \frac{\mu}{x^\alpha(\lambda_1 + r)} \right) x^{\lambda_1 \varepsilon t}/r e^{\lambda_1 \varepsilon t} \right|^2
= \Omega(x^{2(\lambda_1 \varepsilon/r + 1-u^*(t))}).
\end{aligned}
\]

Next we consider the variance term. For ease of notation define \( \theta(t) \equiv (u^*(t) + \varepsilon)\left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + t \right) \), then from item (iii) of Lemma 1,
\[
\text{Var}[Z_1((u^*(t) + \varepsilon) s x(t))] = \begin{aligned}
\left( \frac{\mu}{x^\alpha} \right)^2 & \int_0^{\theta(t)} \int_0^{\theta(t)} \text{Cov}(Z_0(s), Z_0(y)) e^{\lambda_1(2\theta(t) - s - y)} ds dy \\
+ \left( \frac{\mu}{x^\alpha} \right) & \int_0^{\theta(t)} \mathbb{E} Z_0(s) (2r_1 e^{2\lambda_1(\theta(t) - s)} - (r_1 + d_1) e^{\lambda_1(\theta(t) - s)}) ds.
\end{aligned}
\]
We now establish that Cov($Z_0(s), Z_0(y)$) is an $O(x)$ quantity. Since the population $Z_0$ starts with $x$ independent cells, we can write the covariance as

$$\text{Cov}(Z_0(s), Z_0(y)) = x \mathbb{E}_1[Z_0(s)Z_0(y)] - \mathbb{E}_1[Z_0(s)]\mathbb{E}_1[Z_0(y)]$$

Based on this we know that the second term in the definition of Var $Z_1$ is the dominant term and therefore $\text{Var}[Z_1((u^s(t) + \varepsilon)s_x(t))] = O(x^{1-\alpha+2\lambda_1(u^s(t) + \varepsilon)/r})$.

Then, in order to establish that (7.15) goes to zero it suffices to show that

$$\lim_{x \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(Z_1((u^s(t) + \varepsilon)s_x(t)) < f_{x,t}(u^s(t) + 3\varepsilon/4)) = 0.$$
as \( x \to \infty \). Note that based on arguments from the above case it suffices to establish that the following probability converges to 0 as \( x \to \infty \):

\[
\mathbb{P}
\left(
\inf_{u \in [0, u^*(t) - \varepsilon]} Z_0(u s_x(t)) < f_{x,t}(u^*(t) - \varepsilon/2)
\right)
\leq \frac{1}{(c_0 - 1) f_{x,t}(u^*(t) - \varepsilon/2)} \times \mathbb{E}
\left[
(c_0 f_{x,t}(u^*(t) - \varepsilon/2) - Z_0((u^*(t) - \varepsilon)s_x(t)))^{+}
\right]
\leq \frac{c_0 f_{x,t}(u^*(t) - \varepsilon/2)}{(c_0 - 1) f_{x,t}(u^*(t) - \varepsilon/2)} \times \mathbb{P}(Z_0((u^*(t) - \varepsilon)s_x(t)) < c_0 f_{x,t}(u^*(t) - \varepsilon/2)),
\]

where we chose \( c_0 > 1 \), and the penultimate inequality follows from Doob’s inequality and that \(-Z_0(s_x(t))\) is a submartingale. The final probability can be rewritten as

\[
\mathbb{P}(Z_0((u^*(t) - \varepsilon)s_x(t)) - \mathbb{E}Z_0((u^*(t) - \varepsilon)s_x(t)) < c_0 f_{x,t}(u^*(t) - \varepsilon/2) - \mathbb{E}Z_0((u^*(t) - \varepsilon)s_x(t))).
\]

Note since \( \mathbb{E}Z_0((u^*(t) - \varepsilon)s_x(t)) = x^{1+\varepsilon-u^*(t)} e^{s_0(t)(u^*(t) - \varepsilon)} \) and \( f_{x,t}(u^*(t) - \varepsilon/2) = x^{1+\varepsilon/2-u^*(t)} (1 + o(1)) \), we know that there exists a positive constant \( C_0 \) such that for \( x \) sufficiently large

\[
\mathbb{E}Z_0((u^*(t) - \varepsilon)s_x(t)) - c f_{x,t}(u^*(t) - \varepsilon/2) \geq C_0 x^{1+\varepsilon-u^*(t)},
\]

and therefore for \( x \) sufficiently large

\[
\mathbb{P}(Z_0((u^*(t) - \varepsilon)s_x(t)) - \mathbb{E}Z_0((u^*(t) - \varepsilon)s_x(t)) < c f_{x,t}(u^*(t) - \varepsilon/2) - \mathbb{E}Z_0((u^*(t) - \varepsilon)s_x(t)))
\leq \mathbb{P}(|Z_0((u^*(t) - \varepsilon)s_x(t)) - \mathbb{E}Z_0((u^*(t) - \varepsilon)s_x(t))| > C_0 x^{1+\varepsilon-u^*(t)}).
\]

Thus, via Chebyshev’s inequality we have

\[
\mathbb{P}(|Z_0((u^*(t) - \varepsilon)s_x(t)) - \mathbb{E}Z_0((u^*(t) - \varepsilon)s_x(t))| > C_0 x^{1+\varepsilon-u^*(t)})
\leq \frac{x^{1/2} \text{Var}_1 Z_0((u^*(t) - \varepsilon)s_x(t)))^{1/2}}{C_0 x^{1+\varepsilon-u^*(t)}}
= O(x^{-(1+\varepsilon-u^*)/2}),
\]

where the final equality follows by evaluating the variance of \( Z_0(u^*(t)s_x(t)) \). \( \Box \)
7.7. Proof of Lemma 5. As in the proof of the previous lemma, we consider the deviations to the left and right of $u^*(t)$ separately. First, note that if $t_0 > t_1$, then
\[
\inf_{u \in [0, u^*(t_0) - \varepsilon)} Z_0\left( u\left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + t_0 \right) \right) + Z_1\left( u\left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + t_0 \right) \right) = \inf \left\{ Z_0(s) + Z_1(s) : s \leq (u^*(t_0) - \varepsilon)\left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + t_0 \right) \right\} \\
\geq \inf \left\{ Z_0(s) + Z_1(s) : s \leq (u^*(t_1) - \varepsilon)\left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + t_1 \right) \right\} = \inf_{u \in [u^*(t_1) - \varepsilon, u^*(t_1)]} Z_0\left( u\left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + t_1 \right) \right) + Z_1\left( u\left( \frac{1}{r} \log x + t_1 \right) \right).
\]
Furthermore, it follows from the definition of $u^*(t)$ that $Z_i(u^*(t)(\frac{1}{r} \log x + s)) = Z_i(u^*(s)(\frac{1}{r} \log x + s))$ for all $s, t$. In particular, $Z_i(u^*(s)(\frac{1}{r} \log x + s)) = Z_i(u^*T_x)$. Then via Lemma (4),
\[
P\left( \sup_{t \in [-M, M]} \inf_{u \in [u^*(t) - \varepsilon, u^*(t)]} Z_0(uT_x(t)) + Z_1(uT_x(t)) < Z_0(u^*T_x) + Z_1(u^*T_x) \right)
\]
converges to zero as $x \to \infty$. A similar argument can be used for deviations to the right of $u^*(t)$ to show that
\[
P\left( \sup_{t \in [-M, M]} \inf_{u \in [u^*(t) + \varepsilon, \infty)} Z_0(uT_x(t)) + Z_1(uT_x(t)) < Z_0(u^*T_x) + Z_1(u^*T_x) \right)
\]
also converges to zero as $x \to \infty$, establishing the lemma.

REFERENCES


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