

THE ASYMPTOTIC DISTRIBUTION OF THE NUMBER OF ZERO FREE INTERVALS OF A STABLE PROCESS

BY

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1. **Introduction.** Let $\{X(t); t \geq 0\}$ be the one-dimensional symmetric stable process of index α , $0 < \alpha \leq 2$, that is, a process with stationary independent increments whose continuous transition density $f(t, y-x)$ relative to Lebesgue measure is given by

$$(1.1) \quad f(t, x) = (2\pi)^{-1} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-t|\xi|^\alpha} e^{ix\xi} d\xi.$$

We assume throughout this paper that $X(0) = 0$ and that the sample functions are normalized to be right continuous and have left-hand limits everywhere.

Let us also introduce the *stable subordinator*, $\{T(t); t \geq 0\}$, of index β , $0 < \beta < 1$, that is, a process with stationary independent and *positive* increment whose continuous transition density, $g(t, y-x)$, is given by $g(t, x) = 0$ for $x \leq 0$ and by

$$(1.2) \quad e^{-ts^\beta} = \int_0^\infty e^{-sx} g(t, x) dx$$

for $x > 0$. We assume $T(0) = 0$ and that the sample functions are normalized to be right continuous and have left-hand limits everywhere. In addition almost all sample functions of T are *strictly* monotone increasing. Finally we assume that the processes X and T are completely independent and are defined over the same complete probability space, (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) . It is perhaps more reasonable to assume that X and T are defined over different (complete) probability spaces, but for notational convenience we prefer the above assumption.

Define

$$(1.3) \quad \begin{aligned} A(\omega) &= \{t: 0 \leq t \leq 1, X(t, \omega) = 0 \text{ or } X(t-, \omega) = 0\}, \\ B(\omega) &= \{t: 0 \leq t \leq 1, T(\tau, \omega) = t \text{ or } T(\tau-, \omega) = t \text{ for some } \tau\}. \end{aligned}$$

If $0 < \alpha \leq 1$ then $A(\omega) = \{0\}$ for almost all ω , and it is not difficult to see that for general α , $0 < \alpha \leq 2$,

$$A(\omega) = \{t: 0 \leq t \leq 1, X(t, \omega) = 0\}$$

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for almost all ω . However we will not need this fact and so we omit its proof. In view of our regularity assumptions on the sample functions of X and T , it follows that $A(\omega)$ and $B(\omega)$ are compact subsets of $[0,1]$ for each ω . Therefore the complements of $A(\omega)$ and $B(\omega)$ in $[0,1]$ are relatively open subsets of $[0,1]$, and, as such, each can be written uniquely as the disjoint union of at most countably many (relatively) open subintervals of $[0,1]$. If $\varepsilon > 0$, let $N_\alpha(\varepsilon)$ ($N_\beta^*(\varepsilon)$) be the number of such intervals in the complement of $A(\omega)$ ($B(\omega)$) which exceed ε in length. The following two theorems are the main results of the present paper.

THEOREM A. $N_\alpha(\varepsilon)$ and $N_\beta^*(\varepsilon)$ are random variables and if $\beta = 1 - 1/\alpha$, $1 < \alpha \leq 2$, then they have the same distribution for each fixed $\varepsilon > 0$.

THEOREM B. If $0 < \beta < 1$, then $\lim_{\varepsilon \downarrow 0} P[\Gamma(1-\beta)\varepsilon^\beta N_\beta^*(\varepsilon) \leq x] = G_\beta(x)$ where $G_\beta(x)$ is a Mittag-Leffler distribution which is uniquely determined by its moments

$$(1.4) \quad \int_0^\infty x^n dG_\beta(x) = n! [\Gamma(1 + n\beta)]^{-1}, \quad n = 0, 1, \dots$$

The definition of the distribution G_β and the fact that its moments are given by (1.4) is contained in [7]. The fact that G_β is uniquely determined by its moments follows from the criterion on p. 110 of [4].

An immediate consequence of Theorems A and B is the following corollary.

COROLLARY. If $1 < \alpha \leq 2$, then

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \downarrow 0} P[\Gamma(1/\alpha)\varepsilon^{1-1/\alpha} N_\alpha(\varepsilon) \leq x] = F_\alpha(x) = G_{1-1/\alpha}(x).$$

Of course, in the case $\alpha = 2$ these results are well known. Moreover the above corollary should be compared with the recent result of Kesten [5]. In [5] Kesten obtains the limiting distribution of the number, $N'_\alpha(\varepsilon)$, of intervals of positivity of X in $0 \leq t \leq 1$ for all α , $0 < \alpha \leq 2$. We would like to thank Professor Kesten for making his manuscript available to us. In particular, we owe references [4;7] to him.

2. The proof of Theorem A. Given a complete probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) , a function A from Ω to subsets of the real line, R , is said to be a *random set* if

- (i) $A(\omega)$ is compact for almost all ω ,
- (ii) $\{\omega: A(\omega) \subset E\} \in \mathcal{F}$ for all open subsets E of R .

Two random sets A and B (not necessarily defined over the same probability space) are *stochastically equivalent* if for every set E that is a finite union of open intervals

$$(2.1) \quad P\{\omega: A(\omega) \subset E\} = P\{\omega: B(\omega) \subset E\}.$$

These definitions were introduced in [2]. A random set, A , is *contained* in the closed interval $[a, b]$ if $A(\omega) \subset [a, b]$ for all ω . If a random set A is contained in $[a, b]$ then $[a, b] - A(\omega)$ is an open subset of $[a, b]$ for almost all ω , and, as such, can be written uniquely as the union of at most countably many disjoint (relatively) open subintervals of $[a, b]$. If $\varepsilon > 0$, let $N_A(\varepsilon)$ be the number of such intervals whose length is greater than ε . Clearly $N_A(\varepsilon)$ is defined and finite for almost all ω .

THEOREM 2.1. *If A is a random set contained in $[a, b]$, then $N_A(\varepsilon)$ is a random variable. If A and B are stochastically equivalent random sets contained in $[a, b]$ then $N_A(\varepsilon)$ and $N_B(\varepsilon)$ have the same distribution for each $\varepsilon > 0$.*

Proof. Let $\varepsilon > 0$ be fixed, and let $k \geq 1$ be an integer. Let E denote a finite disjoint union of *exactly* k closed intervals I_1, \dots, I_k each of which has rational end points, is contained in $[a, b]$, and has length greater than ε . Of course, if k is too large there will be no such E 's. Let E_1, E_2, \dots be an enumeration of all such E 's; then (\emptyset denotes the empty set)

$$(2.2) \quad \{\omega: N_A(\varepsilon) \geq k\} = \bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} \Delta_n,$$

where

$$(2.3) \quad \Delta_n = \{\omega: E_n \cap A(\omega) = \emptyset\} = \{\omega: A(\omega) \subset E_n^c\}.$$

Here E_n^c is the complement of E_n in $[a, b]$ and hence is a finite union of (relatively) open subintervals of $[a, b]$. Clearly this implies that $N_A(\varepsilon)$ is a random variable. Moreover

$$(2.4) \quad P\{\omega: N_A(\varepsilon) \geq k\} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n \Delta_i\right),$$

and for fixed n the inclusion-exclusion formula implies that

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^n \Delta_i\right) = \sum P(\Delta_i) - \sum P(\Delta_i \cap \Delta_j) + \dots.$$

Looking at a typical intersection we see that

$$P(\Delta_i \cap \dots \cap \Delta_j) = P\{\omega: A(\omega) \subset E_i^c \cap \dots \cap E_j^c\}.$$

Since $E_i^c \cap \dots \cap E_j^c$ is a finite union of open intervals (not necessarily disjoint), it follows that if A and B are stochastically equivalent the left side of (2.4) is unchanged if A is replaced by B . Thus $N_A(\varepsilon)$ and $N_B(\varepsilon)$ have the same distribution.

Let a be a real number satisfying $0 \leq a < 1$, and define

$$(2.5) \quad \begin{aligned} A_a(\omega) &= \{t: a \leq t \leq 1, X(t, \omega) = 0 \text{ or } X(t-, \omega) = 0\}, \\ B_a(\omega) &= \{t: a \leq t \leq 1, T(\tau, \omega) = t \text{ or } T(\tau-, \omega) = t \text{ for some } \tau\}, \end{aligned}$$

where X and T are the processes defined in §1. We assume from now on that the index, α , of X satisfies $1 < \alpha \leq 2$. In particular, A_0 and B_0 are the sets A and B defined in (1.3). It was shown in [2, Proof of Theorem A] that A_a and B_a are stochastically equivalent random sets for each $a > 0$ provided $\beta = 1 - 1/\alpha$. Thus by Theorem 2.1 we see that $N_a(a, \varepsilon) = N_{A_a}(\varepsilon)$ and $N_\beta^*(a, \varepsilon) = N_{B_a}(\varepsilon)$ have the same distribution for each fixed $a > 0$ and $\varepsilon > 0$ provided $\beta = 1 - 1/\alpha$. Since for almost all ω the sets $A(\omega)$ and $B(\omega)$ contain points arbitrarily close to 0 (this is an immediate consequence of Lemma 3.1 of [2]), it follows that $N_a(a, \varepsilon) \rightarrow N_a(\varepsilon)$ and $N_\beta^*(a, \varepsilon) \rightarrow N_\beta^*(\varepsilon)$ as $a \rightarrow 0$ for almost all ω . In fact for a sufficiently small (depending on ε and ω) we have $N_a(a, \varepsilon, \omega) = N_a(\varepsilon, \omega)$ and similarly for N^* . Thus $N_a(\varepsilon)$ and $N_\beta^*(\varepsilon)$ have the same distribution if $\beta = 1 - 1/\alpha$, and Theorem A is proved.

3. First passage times. In this section we give a preliminary calculation that will be needed in the proof of Theorem B. Let $T = \{T(t); t \geq 0\}$ be the stable subordinator of index β , $0 < \beta < 1$, and we assume in this section that $T(0) = 0$. Let us recall the Ito representation of T (see [3] or [6, §37]). In the present case ($T(t)$ strictly increasing) this is especially simple. For fixed ω let $p(dt, dx, \omega)$ be the measure on $[0, \infty) \times (0, \infty)$ defined by the relationship that

$$p((t_1, t_2], (x_1, x_2], \omega)$$

is the number of points τ , $t_1 < \tau \leq t_2$ such that $[T(\tau, \omega) - T(\tau -, \omega)] \in (x_1, x_2]$. Here $0 \leq t_1 < t_2$ and $0 < x_1 < x_2$. The measure, p , is called the Poisson measure of T . The random variable $p(dt, dx)$ has a Poisson distribution with expected value $dt \nu(dx)$ where $\nu(dx) = \beta[\Gamma(1 - \beta)x^{1+\beta}]^{-1}dx$ is the Lévy measure of T . See [1, §6]. Moreover

$$(3.1) \quad T(t, \omega) = \int_{0+}^{\infty} x p([0, t], dx, \omega),$$

where in this case the integral is just the countable sum of the jumps of $T(\tau, \omega)$ on the interval $0 \leq \tau \leq t$. Finally the random variable $p([t, s], dx)$, $s > t$, is independent of \mathcal{B}_{t-} , the σ -algebra generated by $\{T(\tau); \tau < t\}$, and if A_1, \dots, A_n are disjoint Borel subsets of $\{(t, x); t \geq 0, x > 0\}$ which are at a positive distance from the t -axis, then $\int_{A_1} p(dt, dx), \dots, \int_{A_n} p(dt, dx)$ are independent random variables.

If $u > 0$ define

$$(3.2) \quad S(u, \omega) = \inf \{t: T(t, \omega) \geq u\}.$$

Since $T(t)$ is strictly increasing, $S(u)$ is continuous and nondecreasing. It is the first passage time of T past u . We now state the main result of this section.

THEOREM 3.1. *For each $u > 0$ and integer $k \geq 0$ we have*

$$E(S(u)^k) = k! [\Gamma(1 + \beta k)]^{-1} u^{\beta k}.$$

Proof. For $\lambda > 0$ and $s > 0$, define

$$H_k(\lambda, s) = E \int_0^\infty e^{-\lambda S(u)^k} e^{-su} du.$$

Now $T(t, \omega)$ is a sum of jumps and so if we let t_n be the places where $T(t)$ jumps and $I_n = [T(t_n-), T(t_n))$ then $\bigcup I_n = [0, \infty)$ since $T(0) = 0$ and $T(t) \rightarrow \infty$ as $t \rightarrow \infty$. Of course, the t_n depend on ω . For notational convenience let us write $T^*(t)$ for $T(t-)$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty e^{-\lambda S(u)^k} e^{-su} du &= \frac{1}{s} \sum_n e^{-\lambda t_n^k} [e^{-sT^*(t_n)} - e^{-sT(t_n)}] \\ &= \frac{1}{s} \sum_n e^{-\lambda t_n^k} e^{-sT^*(t_n)} [1 - e^{-s[T(t_n) - T^*(t_n)]}] \\ &= \frac{1}{s} \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty e^{-\lambda t^k} e^{-sT^*(t)} [1 - e^{-sx}] p(dt, dx). \end{aligned}$$

But $T^*(t)$ and $p(dt, dx)$ are independent and

$$E[\exp(-sT^*(t))] = E[\exp(-sT(t))] = e^{-ts^\beta}$$

for fixed t . Therefore (these manipulations are easily justified by first approximating the integral by a sum and then passing to the limit)

$$\begin{aligned} H_k(\lambda, s) &= \frac{1}{s} \int_0^\infty \int_0^\infty e^{-\lambda t^k} e^{-ts^\beta} (1 - e^{-sx}) \frac{\beta dx}{\Gamma(1 - \beta)x^{1+\beta}} \\ &= s^{\beta-1} \int_0^\infty e^{-\lambda t^k} e^{-ts^\beta} dt. \end{aligned}$$

Differentiating with respect to λ and letting $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ we obtain (the interchange of limit procedures is easily justified)

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty E[S(u)^k] e^{-su} du &= s^{\beta-1} \int_0^\infty t^k e^{-ts^\beta} dt \\ &= k! s^{-1-\beta k}. \end{aligned}$$

Inverting this Laplace transform we obtain Theorem 3.1.

It is an easy consequence of this theorem that the distribution function of $S(u)$ is $G_\beta(u^{-\beta}x)$ where G_β is defined in (1.4).

4. Proof of Theorem B. Let $M(\varepsilon)$ be the number of jumps of $T(t)$ in the interval $0 \leq t \leq S(1)$ of length greater than ε . Thus if $Q(dt, \varepsilon) = p(dt, (\varepsilon, \infty))$ where p is the Poisson measure for $T(t)$, then $M(\varepsilon) = Q([0, S_1], \varepsilon)$. Of course, $S_1 = S(1)$

is defined in (3.2). Clearly $0 \leq M(\varepsilon) - N_\beta^*(\varepsilon) \leq 1$ for almost all ω . We will prove that

$$(4.1) \quad E\{[\Gamma(1 - \beta)\varepsilon^\beta M(\varepsilon)]^k\} \rightarrow k![\Gamma(1 + \beta k)]^{-1}$$

as $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ for each integer $k \geq 0$. From this the corresponding relation with $M(\varepsilon)$ replaced by $N_\beta^*(\varepsilon)$ follows easily, and then Theorem B is a consequence of the moment convergence theorem for distributions [4, p. 115]. Thus the proof of Theorem B reduces to the proof of (4.1). Note that $M(\varepsilon) \leq [\varepsilon^{-1}] + 2$, where $[\cdot]$ is the greatest integer function, and so all moments of $M(\varepsilon)$ exist.

It will be convenient to consider the subordinator $T(t)$ starting not only at 0 but also at any $x \geq 0$. We will write P_x and E_x for probabilities and expectations when $T(0) = x$, and, as is usual in the general theory of Markov processes, $E_{T(t)}\{\cdot\}$ stands for the evaluation of the function $E_x\{\cdot\}$ at the point $x = T(t)$. Let $G(t, x, A)$ be the transition probability function for $T(t)$, and $U(x, A) = \int_0^\infty G(t, x, A) dt$ be the potential kernel. Since $U(x, A)$ is just the expected amount of time $T(t)$ spends in A when $T(0) = x$, we have

$$U(x, [0, y]) = E_x(S(y)) = E_0(S(y - x))$$

provided $y > x$. Thus Theorem 3.1 implies

$$(4.2) \quad U(x, dy) = \begin{cases} \beta[\Gamma(1 + \beta)]^{-1}(y - x)^{\beta-1} dy & \text{if } y > x, \\ 0 & \text{if } y \leq x. \end{cases}$$

We begin our calculations with several lemmas. Recall that $T^*(t) = T(t-)$ and \mathscr{B}_t is the σ -algebra generated by $T(\tau)$ for $\tau \leq t$.

LEMMA 1. *Let g be a bounded Baire function with compact support; then*

$$\int_0^\infty E_x[g(T_t^*)] dt = \int_0^\infty E_x[g(T_t)] dt = \frac{\beta}{\Gamma(1 + \beta)} \int_x^\infty (y - x)^{\beta-1} g(y) dy.$$

Proof. Since $T^*(t) = T(t)$ for almost all ω for each fixed t , we have using (4.2)

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty E_x[g(T_t^*)] dt &= \int_0^\infty E_x[g(T_t)] dt \\ &= \int_0^\infty dt \int G(t, x, dy) g(y) = \frac{\beta}{\Gamma(1 + \beta)} \int_x^\infty (y - x)^{\beta-1} g(y) dy. \end{aligned}$$

It will be convenient to introduce the following conventions. Let $0 \leq a < b < \infty$; then \int_a^b and \int_a^∞ are the integrals over the sets $(a, b]$ and (a, ∞) , respectively. Also let

$$h(u) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } u \leq 1, \\ 0 & \text{if } u > 1. \end{cases}$$

LEMMA 2. Let ϕ be a bounded non-negative continuous function; then

$$E_x \int_0^\infty h(T_u^*) \phi(T_u^*) Q(du, \varepsilon) = \lambda E_x \int_0^\infty h(T_u^*) \phi(T_u^*) du,$$

where $\lambda = [\varepsilon^\beta \Gamma(1 - \beta)]^{-1}$.

Proof. Since $T_u^* \leq 1$ if and only if $u \leq S_1$, we see that $\int_0^\infty h(T_u^*) \phi(T_u^*) Q(du, \varepsilon) \leq M(\varepsilon) \sup \phi \leq ([\varepsilon^{-1}] + 2) \sup \phi$, and $\int_0^\infty h(T_u^*) \phi(T_u^*) du \leq S_1 \sup \phi$. Thus both integrals exist for almost all ω and have finite expectations. The result now follows by a straightforward approximation argument making use of the easily verified facts that (i) T_u^* and $Q([u, v), \varepsilon)$, $v > u$, are independent, (ii) $h(T_u^*) \phi(T_u^*)$ is left continuous in u , and (iii) $E_x Q(du, \varepsilon) = E_x p(du, (\varepsilon, \infty)) = \lambda du$.

LEMMA 3. For each $\varepsilon > 0$ let $Y^\varepsilon = \{Y_u^\varepsilon; u \geq 0\}$ be a stochastic process defined on the sample space of $\{T(t); t \geq 0\}$ with right continuous sample functions. Let $H_x(u, \omega)$ be a fixed version of $E_x\{Y_u^\varepsilon | \mathcal{B}_u\}$ defined for $u \geq 0$ and all ω which is assumed to satisfy $H_x(u, \omega) = g(T_u) + O(\gamma(\varepsilon))$ where g is a bounded continuous function and the O -term is uniform in u, ω , and x . Finally assume that $0 \leq Y_u^\varepsilon(\omega) \leq M_\varepsilon < \infty$ for all u, ω . Under these conditions

$$E_x \int_0^\infty h(T_u^*) Y_u^\varepsilon Q(du, \varepsilon) = E_x \int_0^\infty h(T_u^*) g(T_u) Q(du, \varepsilon) + O(\varepsilon^{-\beta} \gamma(\varepsilon))$$

where the O -term is uniform in x .

Proof. Let $0 < b < \infty$ and let $_{Nt_j} = jb/N$, $j = 0, 1, \dots, N$, for each integer $N > 0$. Let $Z(u) = h(T_u^*)$, then since $Z(u)$ is left continuous and $Y(u) = Y_u^\varepsilon$ is right continuous we have for each fixed $\varepsilon > 0$ that

$$\begin{aligned} J(b) &= E_x \int_0^b Z(u) Y_u^\varepsilon Q(du, \varepsilon) \\ &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} E_x \{Z(_{Nt_j}) Y(_{Nt_{j+1}}) Q(\Delta_{Nt_j}, \varepsilon)\} \end{aligned}$$

where $\Delta_{Nt_j} = (_{Nt_j}, _{Nt_{j+1}}]$. But $Z(_{Nt_j})$ and $Q(\Delta_{Nt_j}, \varepsilon)$ are $\mathcal{B}(_{Nt_{j+1}})$ measurable and so using our fixed version of $E_x\{Y_u^\varepsilon | \mathcal{B}_u\}$ we have

$$\begin{aligned} J(b) &= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} E_x \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} Z(_{Nt_j}) [g(T(_{Nt_{j+1}})) + O(\gamma(\varepsilon))] Q(\Delta_{Nt_j}, \varepsilon) \\ &= E_x \int_0^b h(T_u^*) g(T_u) Q(du, \varepsilon) + O(\gamma(\varepsilon)) E_x \int_0^b h(T_u^*) Q(du, \varepsilon). \end{aligned}$$

Using Lemmas 1 and 2 we see that

$$E_x \int_0^\infty h(T_u^*) Q(du, \varepsilon) = \lambda E_x \int_0^\infty h(T_u^*) du = \lambda [\Gamma(1 + \beta)]^{-1} (1 - x)^\beta h(x) = O(\varepsilon^{-\beta})$$

uniformly in x . Thus letting $b \rightarrow \infty$ in the above expression for $J(b)$ we obtain Lemma 3.

We are now ready to begin the proof of (4.1). Since $t \leq S_1$ if and only if $T^*(t) \leq 1$ we may write (Q assigns no mass to 0, so \int_0^∞ equals \int_0^∞)

$$(4.3) \quad M(\varepsilon) = \int_0^\infty h(T^*(u))Q(du, \varepsilon).$$

Using Lemma 2 with $\phi \equiv 1$ and then Lemma 1 we obtain

$$(4.4) \quad E_y(M(\varepsilon)) = E_y\{p([0, S_1], (\varepsilon, \infty))\} = \frac{\lambda}{\Gamma(1+\beta)}(1-y)^\beta h(y).$$

Setting $y = 0$ and recalling that $\lambda = [\varepsilon^\beta \Gamma(1-\beta)]^{-1}$ we have established (4.1) when $k = 1$.

In order to fix the ideas let us consider the case $k = 2$ before proceeding to the general case. Now

$$(4.5) \quad \begin{aligned} E_0(M(\varepsilon)^2) &= 2E_0 \int_0^\infty h(T_t^*)Q(dt, \varepsilon) \int_t^\infty h(T_u^*)Q(du, \varepsilon) \\ &+ E_0 \iint_{0 \leq t=u} h(T_t^*)h(T_u^*)Q(dt, \varepsilon)Q(du, \varepsilon). \end{aligned}$$

But for each ω , Q is a purely discrete measure assigning mass one to each point of a countable set (depending on ω) and $h^2 = h$. Therefore the second term in (4.5) reduces to $E_0(M(\varepsilon)) = O(\varepsilon^{-\beta})$ by (4.4). Let us consider the first term.

Define $Y_t^\varepsilon = \int_t^\infty h(T_u^*)Q(du, \varepsilon)$; then Y_t^ε is right continuous since the integral is over the open interval (t, ∞) , and is bounded by $M(\varepsilon) \leq [\varepsilon^{-1}] + 2$. Since $T(t)$ is a Markov process we note that

$$E_x\{Y_t^\varepsilon | \mathcal{B}_t\} = E_{T(t)} \int_0^\infty h(T_u^*)Q(du, \varepsilon)$$

for almost all $\omega(P_x)$. Thus using Lemmas 2 and 1 we can take as our fixed version of $E_x\{Y_t^\varepsilon | \mathcal{B}_t\}$ the expression $\lambda q_1(T_t)$ where it is understood that $T(0) = x$, and $q_1(x) = [\Gamma(1+\beta)]^{-1}(1-x)^\beta h(x)$. Therefore the hypotheses of Lemma 3 are satisfied with $\gamma(\varepsilon) = 0$. Applying Lemma 3 with $x = 0$ the first term in (4.5) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} 2\lambda E_0 \int_0^\infty h(T_t^*)q_1(T_t)Q(dt, \varepsilon) \\ = 2\lambda E_0 \int_0^\infty h(T_t^*)q_1(T_t^*)Q(dt, \varepsilon) - 2\lambda E_0 \int_0^\infty h(T_t^*)[q_1(T_t^*) - q_1(T_t)]Q(dt, \varepsilon). \end{aligned}$$

Call the first term above J_1 and the second J_2 . Using Lemmas 2 and 1, and then the definition of q_1 , we find

$$\begin{aligned} J_1 &= 2\lambda^2\beta[\Gamma(1+\beta)]^{-1}\int_0^1 y^{\beta-1}q_1(y)dy \\ &= 2\lambda^2[\Gamma(1+2\beta)]^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Concerning J_2 , we note that q_1 is bounded by $c = [\Gamma(1+\beta)]^{-1}$ and satisfies $0 \leq q_1(x) - q_1(x+y) \leq cy^\beta$ for all $x \geq 0$ and $y \geq 0$. Moreover there can be at most one jump of $T(t)$ of magnitude greater than one in the interval $0 \leq t \leq S_1$ and so

$$|J_2| \leq 4c\lambda + 2\lambda cE_0 \int_0^{S_1} (T_t - T_t^*)^\beta p(dt, (\varepsilon, 1]).$$

But this last integral is just $E_0 \int_\varepsilon^1 x^\beta p([0, S_1], dx)$, and (4.4) implies that

$$(4.6) \quad E_0\{p([0, S_1], dx)\} = \beta[\Gamma(1+\beta)\Gamma(1-\beta)]^{-1}x^{-\beta-1}dx.$$

Thus using a simple approximation procedure we have that

$$|J_2| \leq c_1\lambda + c_2\lambda \int_\varepsilon^1 x^\beta x^{-1-\beta} dx = O(\varepsilon^{-\beta} |\log \varepsilon|).$$

Combining these estimates we finally obtain $E_0(M(\varepsilon)^2) = 2\lambda^2[\Gamma(1+2\beta)]^{-1} + O(\varepsilon^{-\beta} |\log \varepsilon|)$, and this implies (4.1) in the case $k = 2$.

In order to attack the general case it will be necessary to introduce some notation. As above let $q_1(x) = E_x \int_0^\infty h(T_t^*) dt = [\Gamma(1+\beta)]^{-1}(1-x)^\beta h(x)$, and define

$$(4.7) \quad q_n(x) = E_x \int_0^\infty h(T_t^*) q_{n-1}(T_t^*) dt$$

for $n \geq 2$. Let us show by induction that

$$(4.8) \quad q_n(x) = [\Gamma(1+n\beta)]^{-1}(1-x)^{n\beta} h(x).$$

This is true when $n = 1$, assuming it for $n - 1$ and using Lemma 1 we find

$$\begin{aligned} q_n(x) &= \frac{\beta}{\Gamma(1+\beta)} \int_x^\infty (y-x)^{\beta-1} q_{n-1}(y) dy \\ &= [\Gamma(1+n\beta)]^{-1}(1-x)^{n\beta} h(x), \end{aligned}$$

and so (4.8) is established.

Secondly letting $q_0(x) \equiv 1$ we define

$$(4.9) \quad L_n(t, \omega) = \lambda^{n-1} E_{T(t)} \int_0^\infty h(T_u^*) q_{n-1}(T_u) Q(du, \varepsilon)$$

for $n \geq 1$. Of course, L_n depends on ε . Next we show that

$$(4.10) \quad L_n(t) = \lambda^n q_n(T_t) + O(\varepsilon^{-(n-1)\beta} |\log \varepsilon|)$$

for $n \geq 1$, where the O -term is uniform in t and ω . If $n = 1$, applying Lemma 2 and the definition of q_1 , we have

$$L_1(t, \omega) = E_{T(t)} \int_0^\infty h(T_u^*) Q(du, \varepsilon) = \lambda q_1(T_t),$$

which certainly implies (4.10) when $n = 1$. For $n \geq 2$ we can write

$$\begin{aligned} L_n(t) &= \lambda^{n-1} E_{T(t)} \int_0^\infty h(T_u^*) q_{n-1}(T_u^*) Q(du, \varepsilon) \\ &\quad - \lambda^{n-1} E_{T(t)} \int_0^\infty h(T_u) [q_{n-1}(T_u^*) - q_{n-1}(T_u)] Q(du, \varepsilon) \\ &= J_1 - J_2. \end{aligned}$$

From Lemma 2 and (4.7) we see that $J_1 = \lambda^n q_n(T_t)$. Concerning J_2 , we note q_{n-1} is bounded, say by M , and that $0 \leq q_{n-1}(x) - q_{n-1}(x+y) \leq cy^\beta$ if $n \geq 2$, since $0 < \beta < 1$. Thus exactly as in the case $k = 2$ we obtain

$$J_2 \leq 2\lambda^{n-1} M + \lambda^{n-1} E_{T(t)} \int_\varepsilon^1 x^\beta p([0, S_1], dx).$$

But from (4.4) with $y = T(t)$ we see that

$$E_{T(t)} p([0, S_1], dx) = c_1 (1 - T_t)^\beta h(T_t) x^{-1-\beta} dx,$$

and so $J_2 = O(\varepsilon^{-(n-1)\beta} |\log \varepsilon|)$ uniformly in t and ω since $(1 - T_t)^\beta h(T_t) \leq 1$. Combining these results we obtain (4.10).

Finally we will show by induction that

$$(4.11) \quad L_n(t) = E_{T(t)} \int_0^\infty h(T_{t_1}^*) Q(dt_1, \varepsilon) \int_{t_1}^\infty \cdots \int_{t_{n-1}}^\infty h(T_{t_n}^*) Q(dt_n, \varepsilon) + O(\varepsilon^{-(n-1)\beta} |\log \varepsilon|)$$

provided $n \geq 1$, where again the O -term is uniform in t and ω . Denote the first term on the right-hand side on (4.11) by $J_n(t)$. If $n = 1$, (4.11) is immediate from the definition of L_1 . Assume (4.11) for $n - 1$. Define

$$Y^\varepsilon(t_1) = \int_{t_1}^\infty h(T_{t_2}^*) Q(dt_2, \varepsilon) \int_{t_2}^\infty \cdots \int_{t_{n-1}}^\infty h(T_{t_n}^*) Q(dt_n, \varepsilon).$$

Clearly $Y^\varepsilon(t_1)$ is right continuous since the integral is over (t_1, ∞) , and $0 \leq Y^\varepsilon(t_1) \leq ([\varepsilon^{-1}] + 2)^{n-1}$. Also since $T(t)$ is a Markov process it is easy to see that for each y a version of $E_y(Y^\varepsilon(t_1) | \mathcal{B}_{t_1})$ is given by (T starts from y)

$$\begin{aligned} E_{T(t_1)} \int_0^\infty h(T_{t_2}^*) Q(dt_2, \varepsilon) \int_{t_2}^\infty \cdots \int_{t_{n-1}}^\infty h(T_{t_n}^*) Q(dt_n, \varepsilon) \\ = L_{n-1}(t_1) + O(\varepsilon^{-(n-2)\beta} |\log \varepsilon|) \\ = \lambda^{n-1} q_{n-1}(T_{t_1}) + O(\varepsilon^{-(n-2)\beta} |\log \varepsilon|) \end{aligned}$$

where we have used the induction hypothesis and (4.10). Applying Lemma 3 whose hypotheses are satisfied we find that

$$\begin{aligned} J_n(t) &= E_{T(t)} \int_0^\infty h(T_{t_1}^*) Y^\varepsilon(t_1) Q(dt_1, \varepsilon) \\ &= \lambda^{n-1} E_{T(t)} \int_0^\infty h(T_{t_1}^*) q_{n-1}(T_{t_1}) Q(dt_1, \varepsilon) + O(\varepsilon^{-(n-1)\beta} |\log \varepsilon|), \end{aligned}$$

which is (4.11) in view of the definition (4.9) of $L_n(t)$.

We are now ready to prove (4.1) for general values of $k \geq 2$. Assume (4.1) for $0, 1, \dots, k-1$; then

$$\begin{aligned} (4.12) \quad E_0(M(\varepsilon)^k) &= E_0 \left(\int_0^\infty h(T_u^*) Q(du, \varepsilon) \right)^k \\ &= k! E_0 \int_0^\infty h(T_{t_1}^*) Q(dt_1, \varepsilon) \int_{t_1}^\infty \cdots \int_{t_{k-1}}^\infty h(T_{t_k}^*) Q(dt_k, \varepsilon) \\ &\quad + \text{error term.} \end{aligned}$$

Now the error term consists of a finite sum of integrals over lower dimensional hyperplanes obtained by identifying a subset of the variables t_1, \dots, t_k . Exactly as in the case $k=2$ each such integral reduces to $E_0(M(\varepsilon)^{k-n+1})$ if n of variables are identified, $n=2, \dots, k$. Thus by the induction hypothesis the error term is $O(\varepsilon^{-(k-1)\beta})$. But arguing exactly as in the proof of (4.11) and making use of (4.11) and (4.10) the first term, J , on the right-hand side of (4.12) is just

$$J = k! \lambda^{k-1} E_0 \int_0^\infty h(T_u^*) q_{k-1}(T_u) Q(du, \varepsilon) + k! O(\varepsilon^{-(k-2)\beta} |\log \varepsilon|) E_0 \int_0^\infty h(T_u^*) Q(du, \varepsilon).$$

Writing $q_{k-1}(T_u) = q_{k-1}(T_u^*) - [q_{k-1}(T_u^*) - q_{k-1}(T_u)]$ and using an argument that is by now familiar we find

$$J = k! \lambda^k E_0 \int_0^\infty h(T_u^*) q_{k-1}(T_u^*) du + O(\varepsilon^{-(k-1)\beta} |\log \varepsilon|).$$

Finally combining this with (4.7) and (4.8) we have

$$E_0(M(\varepsilon)^k) = k! \lambda^k [\Gamma(1 + \beta k)]^{-1} + O(\varepsilon^{-(k-1)\beta} |\log \varepsilon|)$$

and this implies (4.1). Thus Theorem B is, at long last, established.

Note added in proof. The results of this paper and those of [2] are valid for general stable processes of index α , $1 < \alpha \leq 2$. The proofs in the general case are exactly the same as in the symmetric case once Lemma 3.1 of [2] is established for general stable processes X of index α . However, a careful examination of the proof of this lemma in the symmetric case (which goes back to Kac) reveals that exactly the same argument works in the general case. See also a forthcoming paper of C. J. Stone in the Illinois Journal of Mathematics.

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