

# A NECESSARY AND SUFFICIENT CONDITION FOR THE $\Lambda$ -COALESCENT TO COME DOWN FROM INFINITY.

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## Abstract

*Let  $\Pi_\infty$  be the standard  $\Lambda$ -coalescent of Pitman, which is defined so that  $\Pi_\infty(0)$  is the partition of the positive integers into singletons, and, if  $\Pi_n$  denotes the restriction of  $\Pi_\infty$  to  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ , then whenever  $\Pi_n(t)$  has  $b$  blocks, each  $k$ -tuple of blocks is merging to form a single block at the rate  $\lambda_{b,k}$ , where*

$$\lambda_{b,k} = \int_0^1 x^{k-2}(1-x)^{b-k} \Lambda(dx)$$

*for some finite measure  $\Lambda$ . We give a necessary and sufficient condition for the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent to “come down from infinity”, which means that the partition  $\Pi_\infty(t)$  almost surely consists of only finitely many blocks for all  $t > 0$ . We then show how this result applies to some particular families of  $\Lambda$ -coalescents.*

## 1 Introduction

Let  $\Lambda$  be a finite measure on the Borel subsets of  $[0, 1]$ . Let  $\Pi_\infty$  be the standard  $\Lambda$ -coalescent, which is defined in [4] and also studied in [5]. Then  $\Pi_\infty$  is a Markov process whose state space is the set of partitions of the positive integers. For each positive integer  $n$ , let  $\Pi_n$  denote the restriction of  $\Pi_\infty$  to  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ . When  $\Pi_n(t)$  has  $b$  blocks, each  $k$ -tuple of blocks is merging to form a single block at the rate  $\lambda_{b,k}$ , where

$$\lambda_{b,k} = \int_0^1 x^{k-2}(1-x)^{b-k} \Lambda(dx). \tag{1}$$

Note that this rate does not depend on  $n$  or the sizes of the blocks. For  $b = 2, 3, \dots$ , define

$$\lambda_b = \sum_{k=2}^b \binom{b}{k} \lambda_{b,k},$$

which is the total rate at which mergers are occurring. Also define

$$\gamma_b = \sum_{k=2}^b (k-1) \binom{b}{k} \lambda_{b,k}, \quad (2)$$

which is the rate at which the number of blocks is decreasing because merging  $k$  blocks into one decreases the number of blocks by  $k-1$ . For  $n = 1, 2, \dots, \infty$ , let  $\#\Pi_n(t)$  denote the number of blocks in the partition  $\Pi_n(t)$ . Then let  $T_n = \inf\{t : \#\Pi_n(t) = 1\}$ . As stated in (31) of [4], we have

$$0 = T_1 < T_2 \leq T_3 \leq \dots \uparrow T_\infty \leq \infty. \quad (3)$$

We say the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent *comes down from infinity* if  $P(\#\Pi_\infty(t) < \infty) = 1$  for all  $t > 0$ , and we say it *stays infinite* if  $P(\#\Pi_\infty(t) = \infty) = 1$  for all  $t > 0$ . If  $\Lambda$  has no atom at 1, then Proposition 23 of [4] states that the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent must either come down from infinity, in which case  $T_\infty < \infty$  almost surely, or stay infinite, in which case  $T_\infty = \infty$  almost surely. We assume hereafter, without further mention, that  $\Lambda$  has no atom at 1. Example 20 of [4] provides a simple description of a  $\Lambda$ -coalescent in which  $\Lambda$  has an atom at 1 in terms of the coalescent with the atom at 1 removed.

In section 3.6 of [4], Pitman shows that the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent comes down from infinity if  $\Lambda$  has an atom at zero. It follows from Lemma 25 of [4] that the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent stays infinite if  $\int_0^1 x^{-1} \Lambda(dx) < \infty$ . Results in [1] imply that the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent stays infinite if  $\Lambda$  is the uniform distribution on  $[0, 1]$ . Also, results in section 5 of [5] imply that if  $\Lambda(dx) = (1-\alpha)x^{-\alpha}dx$  for some  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ , then the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent comes down from infinity.

Proposition 23 of [4] gives a necessary and sufficient condition, involving a recursion, for the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent to come down from infinity. The main goal of this paper is to give a simpler necessary and sufficient condition, which is stated in Theorem 1 below. This condition is much easier to check in examples than the condition given in [4].

**Theorem 1** *The  $\Lambda$ -coalescent comes down from infinity if and only if*

$$\sum_{b=2}^{\infty} \gamma_b^{-1} < \infty. \quad (4)$$

We will prove this theorem in section 2.

The condition (4) can be expressed in other ways. For example, let

$$\eta_b = \sum_{k=2}^b k \binom{b}{k} \lambda_{b,k}. \quad (5)$$

Clearly  $1 \leq k/(k-1) \leq 2$  for all  $k \geq 2$ , so  $\gamma_b \leq \eta_b \leq 2\gamma_b$  for all  $b \geq 2$ . Therefore, we obtain the following corollary.

**Corollary 2** *The  $\Lambda$ -coalescent comes down from infinity if and only if*

$$\sum_{b=2}^{\infty} \eta_b^{-1} < \infty. \quad (6)$$

The formulation of the condition given in Theorem 1 seems more natural conceptually, because of the interpretation of  $\gamma_b$  as the rate at which the number of blocks is decreasing, and is easier to use for the proof. However, the formulation in Corollary 2 is more convenient for the calculations in section 3, where we give examples of measures  $\Lambda$  for which the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent comes down from infinity and other examples of measures  $\Lambda$  for which the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent stays infinite.

## 2 Proof of the necessary and sufficient condition

In this section, we prove Theorem 1, which follows immediately from Lemmas 6 and 9 below. We begin by collecting facts about the  $\gamma_b$  and the  $\eta_b$ .

**Lemma 3** *We have*

$$\gamma_b = \int_0^1 (bx - 1 + (1-x)^b)x^{-2} \Lambda(dx) \quad (7)$$

and

$$\eta_b = b \int_0^1 (1 - (1-x)^{b-1})x^{-1} \Lambda(dx) = b \sum_{k=0}^{b-2} \int_0^1 (1-x)^k \Lambda(dx). \quad (8)$$

Also, the sequence  $(\gamma_b)_{b=2}^\infty$  is increasing.

**Proof.** From the identities

$$\sum_{k=0}^b \binom{b}{k} x^k (1-x)^{b-k} = 1$$

and

$$\sum_{k=0}^b k \binom{b}{k} x^k (1-x)^{b-k} = bx,$$

it follows that

$$\sum_{k=2}^b (k-1) \binom{b}{k} x^{k-2} (1-x)^{b-k} = (bx - 1 + (1-x)^b)x^{-2} \quad (9)$$

and

$$\sum_{k=2}^b k \binom{b}{k} x^{k-2} (1-x)^{b-k} = b(1 - (1-x)^{b-1})x^{-1} = b \sum_{k=0}^{b-2} (1-x)^k. \quad (10)$$

Then (7) and (8) follow by integrating (9) and (10) with respect to  $\Lambda(dx)$ . Therefore,

$$\gamma_{b+1} - \gamma_b = \int_0^1 (x + (1-x)^{b+1} - (1-x)^b)x^{-2} \Lambda(dx) = \int_0^1 (1 - (1-x)^b)x^{-1} \Lambda(dx) \geq 0,$$

which implies that  $(\gamma_b)_{b=2}^\infty$  is increasing.  $\square$

The next step is to show that if the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent comes down from infinity, then it does so in finite expected time. We will need the lemma below, which we take from page 78 of [3].

**Lemma 4 (Kochen-Stone Lemma).** *Let  $(A_n)_{n=1}^\infty$  be events such that  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty P(A_n) = \infty$ . Let  $A$  be the event that infinitely many of the  $A_n$  occur. Then,*

$$P(A) \geq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{[\sum_{m=1}^n P(A_m)]^2}{\sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{m=1}^n P(A_k \cap A_m)}.$$

**Proposition 5** *The  $\Lambda$ -coalescent comes down from infinity if and only if  $E[T_\infty] < \infty$ .*

**Proof.** If  $E[T_\infty] < \infty$ , then clearly  $T_\infty < \infty$  almost surely, which means the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent comes down from infinity. We now prove the converse. For  $m \geq 2$ , let  $A_m$  be the event that  $m$  is not in same block as 1 at time  $T_{m-1}$ , which, up to a null set, is the same as the event  $\{T_m > T_{m-1}\}$ . On the event  $A_m$ , the partition  $\Pi_m(T_{m-1})$  has two blocks, one of which is  $\{1, \dots, m-1\}$  and the other of which is  $\{m\}$ . The expected time, after  $T_{m-1}$ , that it takes for these two blocks to merge is  $\lambda_{2,2}^{-1}$ . Therefore, using (3) and the Monotone Convergence Theorem to get the first equality, we have

$$E[T_\infty] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E[T_n] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{m=2}^n E[T_m - T_{m-1}] = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{m=2}^n \lambda_{2,2}^{-1} P(A_m) = \lambda_{2,2}^{-1} \sum_{m=2}^\infty P(A_m). \quad (11)$$

Suppose  $E[T_\infty] = \infty$ . Then by (11),  $\sum_{m=2}^\infty P(A_m) = \infty$ . Let  $\{B_{1,k}, B_{2,k}, \dots\}$  be the blocks of  $\Pi_\infty(T_k)$  in order of their smallest elements. Let  $l_{i,k}$  be the smallest element of  $B_{i,k}$ . Note that  $B_{i,k}$  and  $l_{i,k}$  are undefined if  $\Pi_\infty(T_k)$  has fewer than  $i$  blocks. Also note that if  $m > k$ , then unless  $m = l_{i,k}$  for some  $i \geq 2$ , the event  $A_m$  can not occur. If  $m = l_{i,k}$ , then the event  $A_m$  only occurs if, at time  $T_{m-1}$ , the block  $B_{i,k}$  is separate from the cluster containing the blocks  $B_{1,k}, \dots, B_{i-1,k}$ . Let  $\mathcal{F}_{T_k} = \{A \in \mathcal{F}_\infty : A \cap \{T_k \leq t\} \in \mathcal{F}_t\}$ , where  $(\mathcal{F}_t)_{t \geq 0}$  is the smallest complete, right-continuous filtration with respect to which  $(\Pi_\infty(t))_{t \geq 0}$  is adapted and  $\mathcal{F}_\infty = \sigma(\bigcup_{t \geq 0} \mathcal{F}_t)$ . Conditionally on  $\mathcal{F}_{T_k}$ , if  $m = l_{i,k}$  then the probability that  $B_{i,k}$  is separate from  $B_{1,k}, \dots, B_{i-1,k}$  at time  $T_{m-1}$  is the same as the unconditional probability that  $\{i\}$  is separate from the block containing  $\{1, 2, \dots, i-1\}$  at time  $T_{i-1}$ , which is  $P(A_i)$ . Note that here we are using the strong Markov property of  $(\Pi_\infty(t))_{t \geq 0}$ , which is asserted in Theorem 1 of [4]. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{m=k+1}^n P(A_k \cap A_m) &= E \left[ \sum_{m=k+1}^n P(A_k \cap A_m | \mathcal{F}_{T_k}) \right] = E \left[ \sum_{m=k+1}^n 1_{A_k} P(A_m | \mathcal{F}_{T_k}) \right] \\ &= E \left[ 1_{A_k} \sum_{i=2}^{\#\Pi_n(T_k)} P(A_{l_{i,k}} | \mathcal{F}_{T_k}) \right] \leq E \left[ 1_{A_k} \sum_{i=2}^n P(A_i) \right] = P(A_k) \sum_{i=2}^n P(A_i). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, for all  $n$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{k=2}^n \sum_{m=2}^n P(A_k \cap A_m) &= 2 \sum_{k=2}^n \sum_{m=k+1}^n P(A_k \cap A_m) + \sum_{m=2}^n P(A_m) \\ &\leq 2 \sum_{k=2}^n \left( P(A_k) \sum_{i=2}^n P(A_i) \right) + \sum_{m=2}^n P(A_m) \\ &= 2 \left( \sum_{m=2}^n P(A_m) \right)^2 + \sum_{m=2}^n P(A_m). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $\sum_{m=2}^{\infty} P(A_m) = \infty$ , we have  $(\sum_{m=2}^n P(A_m)) / (\sum_{m=2}^n P(A_m))^2 \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . Thus,

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{[\sum_{m=2}^n P(A_m)]^2}{\sum_{k=2}^n \sum_{m=2}^n P(A_k \cap A_m)} \geq \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{[\sum_{m=2}^n P(A_m)]^2}{2[\sum_{m=2}^n P(A_m)]^2 + \sum_{m=2}^n P(A_m)} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

By the Kochen-Stone Lemma, with probability at least  $1/2$  infinitely many of the  $A_n$  occur. If infinitely many of the  $A_n$  occur, then  $\#\Pi_{\infty}(T_2) = \infty$ . We have  $T_2 > 0$  by (3). Therefore,  $P(\#\Pi_{\infty}(t) = \infty) > 0$  for some  $t > 0$ , which means  $P(\#\Pi_{\infty}(t) = \infty) = 1$  for all  $t > 0$ . Hence, the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent stays infinite.  $\square$

Thus, to determine whether the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent comes down from infinity, it suffices to determine whether  $E[T_{\infty}] < \infty$ . Since  $(E[T_n])_{n=1}^{\infty} \uparrow E[T_{\infty}]$  by (3) and the Monotone Convergence Theorem, the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent comes down from infinity if and only if  $(E[T_n])_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded.

**Lemma 6** *If  $\sum_{b=2}^{\infty} \gamma_b^{-1} < \infty$ , then the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent comes down from infinity.*

**Proof.** Fix  $n < \infty$ , and recursively define times  $R_0, R_1, \dots, R_{n-1}$  by:

$$\begin{aligned} R_0 &= 0 \\ R_i &= \inf\{t : \#\Pi_n(t) < \#\Pi_n(R_{i-1})\} && \text{if } i \geq 1 \text{ and } \#\Pi_n(R_{i-1}) > 1. \\ R_i &= R_{i-1} && \text{if } i \geq 1 \text{ and } \#\Pi_n(R_{i-1}) = 1. \end{aligned}$$

Note that  $R_{n-1} = T_n$ . For  $i = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$ , let  $N_i = \#\Pi_n(R_i)$ . For  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1$ , define  $L_i = R_i - R_{i-1}$  and  $J_i = N_{i-1} - N_i$ . We have  $E[L_i | N_{i-1}] = \lambda_{N_{i-1}}^{-1}$  on the set  $\{N_{i-1} > 1\}$ . Also,  $E[J_i | N_{i-1}] = \gamma_{N_{i-1}} \lambda_{N_{i-1}}^{-1}$  on  $\{N_{i-1} > 1\}$  because

$$P(J_i = k - 1 | N_{i-1} = b) = \binom{b}{k} \frac{\lambda_{b,k}}{\lambda_b}$$

for all  $b > 1$ . Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} E[T_n] &= E[R_{n-1}] = E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} L_i\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} E[E[L_i | N_{i-1}]] = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} E[\lambda_{N_{i-1}}^{-1} 1_{\{N_{i-1} > 1\}}] \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} E[\gamma_{N_{i-1}}^{-1} E[J_i | N_{i-1}] 1_{\{N_{i-1} > 1\}}] = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} E[E[\gamma_{N_{i-1}}^{-1} J_i 1_{\{N_{i-1} > 1\}} | N_{i-1}]]. \end{aligned}$$

Since  $J_i = 0$  on  $\{N_{i-1} = 1\}$ , we have

$$E[T_n] = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} E[E[\gamma_{N_{i-1}}^{-1} J_i | N_{i-1}]] = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} E[\gamma_{N_{i-1}}^{-1} J_i] = E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \gamma_{N_{i-1}}^{-1} J_i\right] = E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=0}^{J_i-1} \gamma_{N_{i-1}}^{-1}\right]. \quad (12)$$

Since  $(\gamma_b)_{b=2}^{\infty}$  is increasing by Lemma 3, we have

$$E[T_n] \leq E\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \sum_{j=0}^{J_i-1} \gamma_{N_{i-1}-j}^{-1}\right] = E\left[\sum_{b=2}^n \gamma_b^{-1}\right] < \sum_{b=2}^{\infty} \gamma_b^{-1}.$$

Thus, if  $\sum_{b=2}^{\infty} \gamma_b^{-1} < \infty$ , then  $(E[T_n])_{n=1}^{\infty}$  is bounded, which proves the lemma.  $\square$

We now work towards the converse of Lemma 6, which we first prove in the special case that  $\Lambda$  has no mass in  $(1/2, 1]$ .

**Lemma 7** *Suppose  $\Lambda$  is concentrated on  $[0, 1/2]$ , and suppose  $\sum_{b=2}^{\infty} \gamma_b^{-1} = \infty$ . Then, the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent stays infinite.*

**Proof.** Fix positive integers  $b$  and  $l$  such that  $b > 2^l$ . Consider a  $\Lambda$ -coalescent with  $b$  blocks. Let  $R_{b,1}$  be the total rate of all collisions that would take the coalescent down to  $2^l$  or fewer blocks. Let  $R_{b,2}$  be the total rate of all collisions that would take the coalescent down to between  $2^{l-1} + 1$  and  $2^l$  blocks. We have

$$R_{b,1} = \sum_{k=b-2^{l+1}}^b \binom{b}{k} \lambda_{b,k} = \sum_{i=0}^{2^l-1} \binom{b}{b-i} \lambda_{b,b-i} = \sum_{i=0}^{2^l-1} \binom{b}{i} \int_0^{1/2} x^{b-i-2} (1-x)^i \Lambda(dx). \quad (13)$$

Likewise,

$$R_{b,2} = \sum_{k=b-2^{l+1}}^{b-2^{l-1}} \binom{b}{k} \lambda_{b,k} = \sum_{i=2^{l-1}}^{2^l-1} \binom{b}{i} \int_0^{1/2} x^{b-i-2} (1-x)^i \Lambda(dx). \quad (14)$$

If  $0 \leq j \leq 2^{l-1} - 1$ , then

$$\binom{b}{j} \leq \binom{b}{2^l - 1 - j}. \quad (15)$$

Also, we have

$$x^{b-j-2} (1-x)^j \leq x^{b-(2^l-1-j)-2} (1-x)^{2^l-1-j} \quad (16)$$

for all  $x \in [0, 1/2]$ , because the ratio of the right-hand side to the left-hand side in (16) is  $((1-x)/x)^{2^l-2j-1} \geq 1$ . Equations (13)-(16) imply that  $R_{b,1} - R_{b,2} \leq R_{b,2}$ , and so  $R_{b,2}/R_{b,1} \geq 1/2$ .

Let  $\Pi_n$  be a standard  $\Lambda$ -coalescent restricted to  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ . For  $l$  such that  $2^l \leq n$ , let  $D_l$  be the event that  $2^{l-1} + 1 \leq \#\Pi_n(t) \leq 2^l$  for some  $t$ . By conditioning on the value of  $N_{K-1}$ , where  $K = \inf\{i : N_i \leq 2^l\}$ , we see from the above calculation that  $P(D_l) \geq 1/2$ .

Suppose  $n = 2^m$ . For  $j = 2, 3, \dots, n$ , let  $L_n(j) = \min\{s \geq j : \#\Pi_n(t) = s \text{ for some } t\}$ . If  $N_{i-1} \geq j > N_i$ , or equivalently if  $N_i + J_i \geq j > N_i$ , then  $L_n(j) = N_{i-1}$ . Therefore, using (12) for the first equality, we have

$$E[T_n] = \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} E[\gamma_{N_{i-1}}^{-1} J_i] = \sum_{j=2}^n E[\gamma_{L_n(j)}^{-1}] = \sum_{l=1}^m \sum_{j=2^{l-1}+1}^{2^l} E[\gamma_{L_n(j)}^{-1}].$$

Since  $(\gamma_b)_{b=2}^{\infty}$  is increasing by Lemma 3 and  $L_n(j) \leq 2^{l+1}$  on  $D_{l+1}$  when  $j \leq 2^l$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} E[T_n] &\geq \sum_{l=1}^{m-1} \sum_{j=2^{l-1}+1}^{2^l} E[\gamma_{L_n(j)}^{-1}] \geq \sum_{l=1}^{m-1} \sum_{j=2^{l-1}+1}^{2^l} P(D_{l+1}) \gamma_{2^{l+1}}^{-1} \\ &\geq \frac{1}{2} \sum_{l=1}^{m-1} 2^{l-1} \gamma_{2^{l+1}}^{-1} = \frac{1}{8} \sum_{l=1}^{m-1} 2^{l+1} \gamma_{2^{l+1}}^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, using the monotonicity of the sequence  $(T_n)_{n=1}^{\infty}$  for the first equality, we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E[T_n] = \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} E[T_{2^m}] \geq \lim_{m \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{8} \sum_{l=1}^{m-1} 2^{l+1} \gamma_{2^{l+1}}^{-1} \geq \frac{1}{8} \sum_{l=4}^{\infty} \gamma_l^{-1} = \infty.$$

Hence, the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent stays infinite.  $\square$

**Lemma 8** Fix  $a > 0$ . Let  $\Lambda_1$  be the restriction of  $\Lambda$  to  $[0, a]$ . Suppose the  $\Lambda_1$ -coalescent stays infinite. Then, the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent stays infinite.

**Proof.** Let  $\Lambda_2$  be the restriction of  $\Lambda$  to  $(a, 1]$ . Then  $\Lambda = \Lambda_1 + \Lambda_2$ . We consider a Poisson process construction of the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent, as given in the discussion preceding Corollary 3 of [4]. This construction is valid as long as  $\Lambda$  has no atom at zero. Here,  $\Lambda_2$  clearly has no atom at zero, and  $\Lambda_1$  has no atom at zero because, as stated in the discussion following Proposition 23 of [4], the  $\Lambda_1$ -coalescent comes down from infinity if  $\Lambda_1$  has an atom at zero. Let  $N_1$  and  $N_2$  be independent Poisson point processes on  $(0, \infty) \times \{0, 1\}^\infty$  such that  $N_i$  has intensity  $dt L_i(d\xi)$  for  $i = 1, 2$ , where

$$L_i(A) = \int_0^1 x^{-2} P_x(A) \Lambda_i(dx)$$

for all product measurable  $A \subset \{0, 1\}^\infty$  and  $P_x$  is the law of a sequence  $\xi = (\xi_i)_{i=1}^\infty$  of independent Bernoulli random variables, each of which takes on the value 1 with probability  $x$ . Let  $N$  be the Poisson point process consisting of all of the points of  $N_1$  and  $N_2$ , so that  $N$  has intensity  $dt L(d\xi)$ , where

$$L(A) = L_1(A) + L_2(A) = \int_0^1 x^{-2} P_x(A) \Lambda(dx)$$

for all product measurable  $A$ .

We now define, for each  $n$ , a coalescent Markov chain  $\Pi_n$ . We define  $\Pi_n(0)$  to be the partition of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  consisting of  $n$  singletons. We allow  $\Pi_n$  possibly to jump at the times  $t$  of points  $(t, \xi)$  of  $N$  such that  $\sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i \geq 2$ . For such  $t$ , if  $\Pi_n(t-)$  consists of the blocks  $B_1, \dots, B_b$ , then  $\Pi_n(t)$  is defined by merging all of the blocks  $B_i$  such that  $\xi_i = 1$ . By Corollary 3 of [4], these processes  $\Pi_n$  determine a unique coalescent process  $\Pi_\infty$  whose restriction to  $\{1, \dots, n\}$  is  $\Pi_n$  for all  $n$ , and  $\Pi_\infty$  is a standard  $\Lambda$ -coalescent. For  $i = 1, 2$ , define  $\Pi_n^{(i)}$  analogously, only allowing jumps at times  $t$  of points  $(t, \xi)$  of  $N_i$ . These processes give rise to a  $\Lambda_1$ -coalescent  $\Pi_\infty^{(1)}$  and a  $\Lambda_2$ -coalescent  $\Pi_\infty^{(2)}$ .

Note that

$$\int_0^1 x^{-2} \Lambda_2(dx) = \int_a^1 x^{-2} \Lambda_2(dx) \leq a^{-2} \Lambda_2([0, 1]) < \infty,$$

which, as stated in section 2.1 of [4], means that the  $\Lambda_2$ -coalescent holds in its initial state for an exponential time of rate at most  $a^{-2} \Lambda_2([0, 1])$ . Therefore, given  $t > 0$ , there is some probability  $p > 0$  that there are no points  $(s, \xi)$  in  $N_2$  with  $s \leq t$ . Therefore, with probability at least  $p$ , we have  $\Pi_\infty(t) = \Pi_\infty^{(1)}(t)$ . However, since the  $\Lambda_1$ -coalescent stays infinite, we have  $\#\Pi_\infty^{(1)}(t) = \infty$  almost surely. Thus,  $\#\Pi_\infty(t) = \infty$  with probability at least  $p$ , which by Proposition 23 of [4] implies that the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent stays infinite.  $\square$

**Lemma 9** If  $\sum_{b=2}^\infty \gamma_b^{-1} = \infty$ , then the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent stays infinite.

**Proof.** Let  $\Lambda_1$  be the restriction of  $\Lambda$  to  $[0, 1/2]$ , and let  $\Lambda_2$  be the restriction of  $\Lambda$  to  $(1/2, 1]$ . Then,  $\Lambda = \Lambda_1 + \Lambda_2$ . For  $i = 1, 2$ , let  $\gamma_b^{(i)}$  be the quantity for the  $\Lambda_i$ -coalescent analogous to that defined by (2) for the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent. From (1) and (2), we see that  $\gamma_b^{(1)} \leq \gamma_b$  for all  $b$ , so  $\sum_{b=2}^\infty (\gamma_b^{(1)})^{-1} = \infty$ . By Lemma 7, the  $\Lambda_1$ -coalescent stays infinite. It now follows from Lemma 8 that the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent stays infinite.  $\square$

### 3 Consequences for some families of $\Lambda$ -coalescents

In this section, we use Corollary 2 to determine whether the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent comes down from infinity for particular families of measures  $\Lambda$ . We begin with the following lemma. Note that if  $\Lambda_1$  and  $\Lambda_2$  are probability measures, then the hypothesis is equivalent to the condition that a random variable with distribution  $\Lambda_1$  is stochastically smaller than a random variable with distribution  $\Lambda_2$ .

**Lemma 10** *Suppose  $\Lambda_1([0, x]) \geq \Lambda_2([0, x])$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ . If the  $\Lambda_1$ -coalescent stays infinite, then the  $\Lambda_2$ -coalescent stays infinite. If the  $\Lambda_2$ -coalescent comes down from infinity, then the  $\Lambda_1$ -coalescent comes down from infinity.*

**Proof.** For  $i = 1, 2$ , define  $\eta_b^{(i)}$  for the  $\Lambda_i$ -coalescent as in (5). For  $x \in [0, 1]$ , let

$$g(x) = b \sum_{k=0}^{b-2} (1-x)^k.$$

Then  $g'(x) < 0$  for all  $x \in (0, 1)$ . Following a similar derivation on page 43 of [2], we apply Fubini's Theorem and Lemma 3 to get

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 g'(y) \Lambda_i([0, y]) dy &= \int_0^1 g'(y) \left( \int_0^1 1_{[0, y]}(x) \Lambda_i(dx) \right) dy \\ &= \int_0^1 \left( \int_0^1 g'(y) 1_{[0, y]}(x) dy \right) \Lambda_i(dx) = \int_0^1 \left( \int_x^1 g'(y) dy \right) \Lambda_i(dx) \\ &= \int_0^1 (g(1) - g(x)) \Lambda_i(dx) = b \Lambda_i([0, 1]) - \eta_b^{(i)}. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore,

$$\eta_b^{(i)} = b \Lambda_i([0, 1]) + \int_0^1 |g'(y)| \Lambda_i([0, y]) dy.$$

It follows from the assumptions on  $\Lambda_1$  and  $\Lambda_2$  that  $\eta_b^{(1)} \geq \eta_b^{(2)}$  for all  $b \geq 2$ . An application of Corollary 2 completes the proof.  $\square$

Corollary 2 can be interpreted to mean that the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent stays infinite whenever the  $\eta_b$  don't grow too rapidly as  $b \rightarrow \infty$ . Lemma 25 of [4] shows that the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent stays infinite when  $\int_0^1 x^{-1} \Lambda(dx) < \infty$ . This condition is equivalent to the condition that the  $\eta_b$  don't grow faster than  $O(b)$ , because by Lemma 3,

$$\lim_{b \rightarrow \infty} b^{-1} \eta_b = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \int_0^1 (1-x)^k \Lambda(dx) = \int_0^1 x^{-1} \Lambda(dx).$$

In Proposition 11 below, we exhibit another collection of measures  $\Lambda$  for which the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent stays infinite. Some of the measures do not satisfy the condition  $\int_0^1 x^{-1} \Lambda(dx) < \infty$ .

**Proposition 11** *Suppose there exist  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $M < \infty$  such that  $\Lambda([0, \delta]) \leq M\delta$  for all  $\delta \in [0, \epsilon]$ . Then the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent stays infinite.*



**Proof.** Let  $\Lambda_1$  be the restriction of  $\Lambda$  to  $[0, \epsilon]$ . By Lemma 8, it suffices to prove that the  $\Lambda_1$ -coalescent stays infinite. Let  $U$  be the uniform distribution on  $[0, 1]$ . As mentioned in section 3.6 of [4], it is a consequence of results in [1] that the  $U$ -coalescent stays infinite. Multiplying  $U$  by the constant  $M$  multiplies all of the  $\gamma_b$  by  $M$ . Therefore, the  $MU$ -coalescent also stays infinite. Since

$$\Lambda_1([0, x]) \leq Mx = (MU)([0, x])$$

for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ , it follows from Lemma 10 that the  $\Lambda_1$ -coalescent stays infinite.  $\square$

**Remark.** Define  $\eta_b^u$  for the  $MU$ -coalescent as in (5). We can also show that the  $MU$ -coalescent stays infinite by using Lemma 3 to calculate

$$\eta_b^u = Mb \sum_{k=0}^{b-2} \int_0^1 (1-x)^k dx = Mb \sum_{k=0}^{b-2} \frac{1}{k+1} \leq Cb \log b$$

for some  $C < \infty$  not depending on  $b$ . Thus,

$$\sum_{b=2}^{\infty} (\eta_b^u)^{-1} \geq \frac{1}{C} \sum_{b=2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{b \log b} \geq \frac{1}{C} \int_2^{\infty} \frac{1}{x \log x} dx = \infty,$$

where the integral diverges because  $\log(\log x)$  is an antiderivative of  $1/x \log x$ .

There also exist measures  $\Lambda$  with densities that approach infinity as  $x \rightarrow 0$  for which the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent stays infinite, as the following example shows.

**Example 12** Suppose, for some  $\epsilon < 1/e$ ,  $\Lambda$  has a Radon-Nikodym derivative  $f$  with respect to Lebesgue measure given by  $f(x) = \log(\log(1/x))$  when  $x \in (0, \epsilon)$  and  $f(x) = 0$  otherwise. Then there exists a constant  $C_1 < \infty$  such that for all  $k > 1/\epsilon$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 (1-x)^k \Lambda(dx) &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \int_{k^{-(n+1)}}^{k^{-n}} (1-x)^k \log(\log(1/x)) dx + \int_{k^{-1}}^{\epsilon} (1-x)^k \log(\log(1/x)) dx \\ &\leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} k^{-n} \log(\log k^{n+1}) + \log(\log k) \int_0^1 (1-x)^k dx \\ &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} k^{-n} \log(\log k) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} k^{-n} \log(n+1) + (k+1)^{-1} \log(\log k) \\ &\leq C_1 k^{-1} (1 + \log(\log k)). \end{aligned}$$

Let  $N$  be the smallest integer such that  $N \geq 1 + 1/\epsilon$ . Then there exist constants  $C_2$  and  $C_3$  not depending on  $b$  such that for  $b \geq N + 2$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} b^{-1} \eta_b &\leq C_2 + C_1 \sum_{k=N}^{b-2} k^{-1} (1 + \log(\log k)) \leq C_2 + C_1 \int_{\epsilon}^b x^{-1} (1 + \log(\log x)) dx \\ &= C_2 + C_1 (\log b) (\log(\log b)) \leq C_3 (\log b) (\log(\log b)). \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\sum_{b=2}^{\infty} \eta_b^{-1} \geq \sum_{b=N+2}^{\infty} \eta_b^{-1} \geq \frac{1}{C_3} \int_{N+2}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x (\log x) (\log(\log x))} dx = \infty,$$

where the divergence of the integral can be seen after substituting  $u = \log(x)$ . By Corollary 2, the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent stays infinite.

We now exhibit a family of measures  $\Lambda$  for which the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent comes down from infinity. The family is slightly larger than that studied in section 5 of [5].

**Proposition 13** *Suppose there exist  $\epsilon > 0$ ,  $M > 0$ , and  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$  such that  $\Lambda([0, \delta]) \geq M\delta^\alpha$  for all  $\delta \in [0, \epsilon]$ . Then the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent comes down from infinity.*

**Proof.** By Lemma 10, it suffices to prove the result when  $\Lambda([0, \delta]) = M\delta^\alpha$  for all  $\delta \in [0, \epsilon]$  and  $\Lambda((\epsilon, 1]) = 0$ . We may therefore assume that the Radon-Nikodym derivative of  $\Lambda$  with respect to Lebesgue measure is given by  $M\alpha x^{\alpha-1}$  on  $[0, \epsilon]$  and 0 on  $(\epsilon, 1]$ . We then have

$$\int_0^1 (1-x)^k \Lambda(dx) = M\alpha \int_0^1 x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^k dx = M\alpha B(\alpha, k+1) = \frac{M\alpha \Gamma(\alpha) \Gamma(k+1)}{\Gamma(k+1+\alpha)},$$

where  $B$  denotes the beta function. By Stirling's formula,  $\Gamma(k+1)/\Gamma(k+1+\alpha) \sim k^{-\alpha}$ , where  $\sim$  denotes asymptotic equivalence as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ . Therefore, there exists a constant  $C_1 > 0$  such that  $\int_0^1 (1-x)^k \Lambda(dx) \geq C_1 k^{-\alpha}$  for all  $k \geq 1$ . Then, for some  $C_2 > 0$ , we have

$$\eta_b = b \sum_{k=0}^{b-2} \int_0^1 (1-x)^k \Lambda(dx) \geq b\Lambda([0, 1]) + C_1 b \sum_{k=1}^{b-2} k^{-\alpha} \geq C_2 b^{2-\alpha}$$

for all  $b \geq 2$ . Thus,  $\sum_{b=1}^{\infty} \eta_b^{-1} < \infty$ , so the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent comes down from infinity.  $\square$

The following example shows that the result above is not sharp.

**Example 14** Suppose the Radon-Nikodym derivative of  $\Lambda$  with respect to Lebesgue measure on  $[0, 1]$  is given by  $f(x) = \log(1/x)$ . For  $k \geq 1$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 (1-x)^k \log(1/x) dx &\geq \int_0^{k^{-1}} (1-x)^k \log(1/x) dx \\ &\geq \left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right)^k \int_0^{k^{-1}} \log(1/x) dx \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{1}{k}\right)^k k^{-1} (1 - \log(1/k)) \geq \frac{C_1 \log k}{k} \end{aligned}$$

for some constant  $C_1 > 0$ . It follows that for all  $b \geq 2$ ,

$$\eta_b \geq b + C_1 b \sum_{k=1}^{b-2} \frac{\log k}{k} \geq C_2 b (\log b)^2$$

for some  $C_2 > 0$ . We can see by substituting  $u = \log x$  that

$$\int_2^{\infty} \frac{1}{x(\log x)^2} dx < \infty.$$

Therefore,  $\sum_{b=2}^{\infty} \eta_b^{-1} < \infty$ , and the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent comes down from infinity.

**Example 15** Suppose  $\Lambda$  has the beta density  $f(x) = B(\alpha, \beta)^{-1} x^{\alpha-1} (1-x)^{\beta-1}$  with respect to Lebesgue measure on  $[0, 1]$ , where  $\alpha > 0$  and  $\beta > 0$ . If  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ , then  $\Lambda$  satisfies the hypotheses of Proposition 13. If  $\alpha \geq 1$ , then  $\Lambda$  satisfies the hypotheses of Proposition 11. Thus, the  $\Lambda$ -coalescent comes down from infinity if and only if  $\alpha < 1$ .

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