

A LIMIT THEOREM FOR CONDITIONED RECURRENT RANDOM WALK ATTRACTED TO A STABLE LAW¹

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1. Introduction. Consider an ensemble of independent particles whose motion describes a random walk on Z^d , the d -dimensional lattice of integers. If A is an arbitrary subset of Z^d and the random walk is assumed recurrent (consequently $d \leq 2$), then as time passes it becomes increasingly unlikely that any given particle has avoided A . Suppose, however, that at each stage attention is restricted to only those particles whose past history is such that A has been avoided. Then it is of interest to investigate the possible distortive effects of this conditioning on the asymptotic behavior of the particle motion. Suppose A is finite and $\tilde{g}_A(0) \neq 0$ (the function $\tilde{g}_A(x)$ of potential-theoretic interest is defined below and the connection between this condition and the motion of the random walk established) and suppose that the underlying distribution F governing the particle transitions is attracted to a stable law G_α ($1 \leq \alpha \leq 2$ is the index of the stable law). The principal result of the paper (Theorem 2.1) states that the conditional distribution of the particles whose past motion has avoided the set A is also attracted to a limit distribution H_α . Except for the case $d = 1$ with G_α a Cauchy distribution and the case $d = 2$ with G_α a normal distribution, the distributions G_α and H_α are in general different. For $d = 1$ and $\alpha = 2$, under certain further restrictions on A , G_α turns out to be a two-sided Rayleigh distribution. It is the case, however, that the same constants normalizing the particle position may be used in the statement of the attraction of the conditioned motion to H_α as in the statement of the attraction of the unconditioned motion to the stable law G_α . In preparation we first review some basic definitions and record some preliminary facts about recurrent lattice random walk.

We let $p: Z^d \times Z^d \rightarrow [0, 1]$ be the transition function of the random walk. Thus,

$$(i) \quad p(x_1, x_2) = p(0, x_2 - x_1) \quad \text{for } x_1, x_2 \in Z^d$$

$$(ii) \quad \sum_{x \in Z^d} p(0, x) = 1,$$

and we inductively define

$$p_n(x_1, x_2) = \sum_{y \in Z^d} p_{n-1}(x_1, y) p(y, x_2) \quad \text{for } n = 2, 3, \dots$$

An underlying probability space (Ω, P, B) is assumed to have been constructed, on which a sequence of independent random variables X_i , $i = 1, 2, \dots$ (the increments of the random walk) are defined, such that $P[X_i = x] = p(0, x)$, $i = 1, 2, \dots$.

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We denote by F the common distribution of the increments. The starting point x_0 is fixed but arbitrary, and we use the notation P^x for the underlying probability measure to indicate that $x_0 = x$. Similarly we let $E^x f = \int_{\Omega} f dP^x$ for any $f: \Omega \rightarrow R$ (the reals) for which the integral on the right is defined. When $x = 0$ we simply write $P[A]$.

We will call $S_n = x_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ the n th partial sum of the random walk. Unless explicitly stated otherwise the following assumptions will be made. All random walks are (i) aperiodic, (ii) recurrent.

Aperiodicity is defined in [8], but for our purposes the following characterization is more convenient. If $\phi(t)$ with $t = (t_1, \dots, t_d)$ is the characteristic function of X_1 , then the associated random walk is *aperiodic* iff $\phi(t) = 1$ implies each coordinate of t is an integral multiple of 2π .

A random walk is said to be *recurrent* if for each x , $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} p_n(0, x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} P[S_n = x] = \infty$, and *transient* if the alternative is true. Again as a matter of convenience in application we require the following equivalent statement (see [8] once again). A random walk is recurrent iff

$$(I) \quad \int_{C^d} \operatorname{Re} \frac{dt}{1 - \phi(t)} = \infty, \quad \text{where } C^d = \{t: |t_i| \leq \pi, i = 1, 2, \dots, d\}.$$

We now make a list of useful definitions and related notation. Let A be an arbitrary subset of Z^d , then

$$(1.1) \quad T_A = \min [n > 0: S_n \in A] \quad \text{if such an } n \text{ exists,} \\ = \infty, \quad \text{otherwise;}$$

and $r_n(x, A) = P^x[T_A > n]$, for $x \in Z^d$, $n \geq 0$, ($T = T_{\{0\}}$ and $r_n = P[T > n]$). We remark that by recurrence T_A is finite with probability one and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r_n(x, A) = 0$.

$$(1.2) \quad Q_A^{(0)}(x, y) = \delta(x, y) \text{ (the Kronecker } \delta) \\ Q_A^{(n)}(x, y) = P^x[S_n = y; T_A \geq n] \\ Q^{(n)}(x, y) = Q_{\{0\}}^{(n)}(x, y); \quad f_n = Q^{(n)}(0, 0).$$

$$(1.3) \quad \tilde{g}_A(x, y) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} Q_A^{(n)}(x, y) = \text{the expected number of visits to } y \text{ starting at } x \\ \text{up to and including the first visit to } A.$$

$$(1.4) \quad \tilde{\Pi}_A(x, y) = P^x[S_{T_A} = y] \quad \text{for } y \in A \\ = 0 \quad \text{for } y \notin A.$$

It is shown in [8] by applying the integral criterion (I) that for $d \geq 3$ all random walks are transient, and so from now on $d = 1$ or 2 . We now record some important results about recurrent random walks for later use.

Let $|y|$ denote the ordinary d -dimensional Euclidean distance from y to the origin. If a random walk is recurrent and $d = 1$ with $\sigma^2 = \sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 p(0, x) = \infty$ or $d = 2$, then for A finite

$$(1.5) \quad \tilde{g}_A(x) = \lim_{|y| \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{g}_A(x, y) \quad \text{exists;}$$

while for $d = 1$ with $\sigma^2 < \infty$

$$(1.6) \quad \tilde{g}_A(x) = \frac{1}{2} \lim_{y \rightarrow +\infty} [\tilde{g}_A(x, y) + \tilde{g}_A(x, -y)] \text{ exists.}$$

For the proof see [8]. In addition it is shown in [4] that for $x \in A$, $\tilde{g}_A(x, y) = \tilde{\Pi}_{-A}(-y, -x)$. Thus for $d = 1$ with $\sigma^2 = \infty$ or $d = 2$ and $x \in A$

$$(1.7) \quad \tilde{g}_A(x) = \lim_{|y| \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{\Pi}_{-A}(-y, -x);$$

while for $d = 1$ with $\sigma^2 < \infty$

$$(1.8) \quad \tilde{g}_A(x) = \frac{1}{2} \lim_{y \rightarrow +\infty} [\tilde{\Pi}_{-A}(-y, -x) + \tilde{\Pi}_{-A}(y, -x)].$$

Our primary aim in this paper then is to investigate the probability measures $P^y[\cdot | T_A > n]$ and the behavior as $n \rightarrow \infty$ of the associated sample paths when A is a finite set under the condition that $\tilde{g}_A(x) > 0$ for appropriate $x \in Z^d$. By checking the definitions one sees that this is in the nature of a condition that the random walk starting at x can *escape* to infinity along a path which avoids the set A . If we let I_A denote the smallest d -dimensional interval containing the finite set A , $E_A = Z^d - I_A$ and for $d = 1$

$$x_+(A) = \max \{x \in A\}, \quad x_-(A) = \min \{x \in A\},$$

$$A_+ = \{x > x_+\}, \quad A_- = \{x < x_-\},$$

the precise statement is the following

PROPOSITION. *Let A be a finite subset of Z^d . If $d = 2$ or $d = 1$ with $\sigma^2 < \infty$, then for $x \in Z^d$*

$$(1.9) \quad \tilde{g}_A(x) > 0 \quad \text{iff} \quad P^x[T_{E_A} < T_A] > 0;$$

if $d = 1$ with $\sigma^2 = \infty$, then

$$(1.10) \quad \tilde{g}_A(x) > 0 \quad \text{iff} \quad \text{both} \quad P^x[T_{A_+} < T_A] > 0 \quad \text{and} \quad P^x[T_{A_-} < T_A] > 0.$$

PROOF. We first show the sufficiency of the conditions in (1.9) and (1.10). Inasmuch as for $x \notin A$

$$P^x[T_{E_{A \cup \{x\}}} < T_{A \cup \{x\}}] > 0 \quad \text{iff} \quad P^x[T_{E_A} < T_A] > 0$$

with a similar result for A_{\pm} and $\tilde{g}_{A \cup \{x\}}(x, y) \leq \tilde{g}_A(x, y)$, there is no loss of generality in assuming $x \in A$.

The main tool in the proof is the following adaptation of a result in [9]. If A_n is a collection of finite subsets of Z^d increasing to Z^d , then for each fixed y and $\varepsilon > 0$ there is an $n(y, \varepsilon)$ such that $n \geq n(y, \varepsilon)$ and $y \in A_n$ imply $\lim_{|x| \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{\Pi}_{A_n}(x, y) < \varepsilon$. We apply this result to the reversed random walk, i.e. the random walk with transition function p_* such that $p_*(0, x) = p(x, 0)$. Let $A_1 = I_A$, but otherwise the A_n may be an arbitrary sequence of finite sets increasing to Z^d . Then

$$(1.11) \quad \lim_{|y| \rightarrow \infty} P_*^y[T_{A_n - I_A} < T_{I_A}] > 0$$

for n sufficiently large. Now if $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbf{A}_+$ or $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbf{A}_-$ in the case $d = 1$, or $x_1, x_2 \in E_A$ in the case $d = 2$, we have

$$(1.12) \quad P_*^{x_1}[T_{\{x_2\}} < T_{I_A}] > 0.$$

For $d = 1$ this is a consequence of the fact that by recurrence there is some path from x_1 to x_2 , and thus, by choosing an appropriate permutation of the transitions comprising this path there must in fact be such a path which does not enter \mathbf{A} . When $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbf{A}_+$, for example, this may be achieved by taking a permutation which puts all of the transitions to the right (positive steps) before all of those to the left (negative steps). The argument for $d = 2$ follows similar lines.

By hypothesis, for $d = 1$ with $\sigma^2 < \infty$ and for $d = 2$ there exists an $x_2 \in E_A$ such that

$$(1.13) \quad P_*^{x_2}[S_{T_A} = x] > 0;$$

while for $d = 1$ with $\sigma^2 = \infty$ there exist $x_2 \in \mathbf{A}_+$ and $x_2' \in \mathbf{A}_-$ such that

$$(1.14) \quad P_*^{x_2}[S_{T_A} = x] > 0 \quad \text{and} \quad P_*^{x_2'}[S_{T_A} = x] > 0.$$

Combining (1.11) through (1.14) we obtain for $d = 1$ with $\sigma^2 = \infty$ and $d = 2$

$$(1.15) \quad \lim_{|y| \rightarrow \infty} P_*^y[S_{T_A} = x] > 0.$$

For $d = 1$ with $\sigma^2 < \infty$ we require the additional fact that

$$(1.16) \quad \lim_{y \rightarrow -\infty} \tilde{\Pi}_{Z_+}(y, x) = P[\xi \geq x]/E[\xi],$$

where Z_+ is the positive integers and ξ is the positive ladder random variable. (See [8] for the definition and a proof of (1.16).) A similar result holds for $y \rightarrow +\infty$ for Z_- , the negative integers, and the negative ladder random variable. Combining this result with (1.12) and (1.13) we obtain for $d = 1$, $\sigma^2 < \infty$

$$(1.17) \quad \frac{1}{2} \lim_{y \rightarrow \infty} (P_*^y[S_{T_A} = x] + P_*^{-y}[S_{T_A} = x]) > 0.$$

It is shown in [4] that $P_*^y[S_{T_A} = x] = P^{-y}[S_{T_{-\mathbf{A}}} = -x]$. In view of (1.4) and (1.8) therefore, (1.15) and (1.17) imply $\tilde{g}_A(x) > 0$.

The necessity of the conditions in (1.9) and (1.10) is a straightforward consequence of the definitions of the quantities involved. This completes the proof of the proposition.

We will confine our attention until Section 4 to the case $d = 1$ in which the distribution F of the increments of the random walk belongs to the domain of attraction of a stable law of index α ($0 < \alpha \leq 2$), i.e., there exist constants $B_n > 0$ and A_n and a distribution G_α on \mathbb{R}^d such that

$$(1.18) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P[S_n/B_n - A_n \leq x] = G_\alpha(x).$$

Here again we require some preliminary discussion. It was shown by P. Lévy and Y. Khintchine (a discussion appears in [2]) that if G_α has characteristic function ϕ_α , then the following representation theorem holds:

$$(1.19) \quad \ln \phi_\alpha(t) = i\gamma t - c |t|^\alpha (1 + i\beta |t|^{-1} t \omega(t, \alpha)),$$

where α, β, γ and c are constants such that $0 < \alpha \leq 2$, $-1 \leq \beta \leq 1$ and $c \geq 0$ with

$$\begin{aligned}\omega(t, \alpha) &= \tan \frac{1}{2}\pi\alpha & \alpha \neq 1 \\ &= 2\pi^{-1} \ln |t| & \alpha = 1.\end{aligned}$$

It can be shown by applying the criterion (I) to the Lévy-Khintchine representation that the assumption of recurrence for a stable law implies $1 \leq \alpha \leq 2$.

The following criterion (again discussed in [2]) is very useful for determining when a distribution F is attracted to a stable law.

THEOREM 1.1. (*Gnedenko and Doeblin*) *In order that the distribution F belong to the domain of attraction of a stable law of index α , $0 < \alpha \leq 2$, it is necessary and sufficient that for $0 < \alpha < 2$*

- (i) $F(-x)/[1-F(x)] \rightarrow c_1/c_2$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$, with $c_1, c_2 \geq 0$,
- (ii) $x^2[1-F(x)+F(-x)] = L(x)$ with $L(x)$ slowly varying,

while for $\alpha = 2$

$$x^2 \int_{|y| \geq x} dF(y) / \int_{|y| \leq x} y^2 dF(y) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

Several comments concerning the theorem are necessary.

(A) A nonnegative function $L(x)$ on $(0, \infty)$ is said to be slowly varying if for every fixed $y > 0$ $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} [L(yx)/L(x)] = 1$. Karamata showed in his classic paper [3] that L is slowly varying if and only if it can be represented in the form

$$(1.20) \quad L(x) = c(x) \exp \left[\int_1^x t^{-1} \zeta(t) dt \right]$$

with $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} c(x) = c$, $0 < c < \infty$ and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \zeta(x) = 0$. It is easily shown from this characterization that given any $\delta > 0$, there is an x_0 such that $x \geq x_0$ implies $L(x) < x^\delta$. We will make use of this fact later on.

(B) Under conditions (i) and (ii) $F(x)$ in fact belongs to the domain of attraction of the stable law of index α with $\beta = (c_1 - c_2)/(c_1 + c_2)$ for $\alpha \neq 1$ and $\beta = (c_2 - c_1)/(c_1 + c_2)$ for $\alpha = 1$. The constants c and γ of the limit stable law are not uniquely determined. Once it is known that there is some choice of constants A_n and B_n for which (1.18) holds, then it is not difficult to see that for any $a > 0$ and b there is a choice of the A_n and B_n for which (1.18) holds with $G_a(x)$ replaced by $G_a(ax+b)$. We can however make the following statement. Let $\chi(x) = 1 - F(x) + F(-x)$ and define the inverse function $\chi^{-1}(x) = \inf[y: \chi(y) \leq x]$. Then it is embodied in the Kolmogorov-Gnedenko proof of Theorem (1.1) that for $0 < \alpha < 2$ the choice

$$(1.21) \quad B_n = \chi^{-1}(n^{-1}(c_1 + c_2))$$

is possible, in which case for $\alpha = 1$, $c = \frac{1}{2}[(c_1 + c_2)\pi]$; while for $0 < \alpha \leq 2$, $\alpha \neq 1$, $c = (c_1 + c_2)\Gamma(1-\alpha) \cos \frac{1}{2}\pi\alpha$.

Our analysis will require more detailed information about the sequences A_n and

B_n . We have already indicated a choice for the B_n in the case $0 < \alpha < 2$. For $\alpha = 2$ we have from [2] (Section 26 Theorem 4 and its proof)

$$(1.22) \quad B_n^2 = n \left[\int_{|x| < C_n} x^2 dF(x) - \left(\int_{|x| < C_n} x dF(x) \right)^2 \right],$$

with C_n a sequence of constants the only properties of which concern us are:

(i) $C_n \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ and (ii) $C_n = o(B_n)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. For $0 < \alpha < 2$ it follows from Lemma 2-A of [11] that under the hypotheses of Theorem 1.1

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} [\chi^{-1}(x)/\chi^{-1}(xy)] = y^{1/\alpha} \quad \text{for fixed } y > 0.$$

Hence $B_n = n^{1/\alpha} \hat{L}(n)$ where $\hat{L}(x)$ is slowly varying.

The treatment of the case $\alpha = 2$ requires a different approach. The argument we give now holds in fact for any law attracted to a symmetric stable law when the A_n may be taken to be zero (which we will see below to be the case for $1 < \alpha \leq 2$ if $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x dF(x) = 0$ and for $0 < \alpha < 1$ in general).

Let $F^{(n)} = F * F * \cdots * F$ (n times) be the n th fold convolution of F and let G_α be the limit stable law. Since all stable laws have continuous densities (Section 36 of [2])

$$F^{(n)}(B_n x) \rightarrow G_\alpha(x) \quad \text{uniformly in } x \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Let $k_0 \in N$ be fixed and let X_1, X_2, \dots be independent, identically distributed with distribution F . Then as $n \rightarrow \infty$

$$P \left[\frac{X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n}{B_n} + \cdots + \frac{X_{(k_0-1)n+1} + \cdots + X_{k_0 n}}{B_n} \leq \frac{B_{k_0 n}}{B_n} x \right] \rightarrow G_\alpha(x)$$

on the one hand, and on the other differs for large n from $G_\alpha^{(k_0)}(x B_{k_0 n}/B_n)$ by very little (inasmuch as for probability distributions $F_{n,1}$ and $F_{n,2}$, $F_{n,1} \rightarrow F_1$ and $F_{n,2} \rightarrow F_2$ imply $F_{n,1} * F_{n,2} \rightarrow F_1 * F_2$ (see, e.g., Lemma 1 of Section 17 in [6])). But by the stability and symmetry of G_α , this latter expression is the same as $G_\alpha(x k_0^{-1/\alpha} B_{k_0 n}/B_n)$, and therefore $B_{k_0 n}/B_n \rightarrow k_0^{1/\alpha}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Thus B_n has the form $B_n = n^{1/\alpha} \hat{L}(n)$ with $\hat{L}(n)$ slowly varying for $\alpha = 2$ as well. We note that if we extend the definition of B_n to R_+ by setting $B(x) = B_{[x]}$, then $B(x)$ remains of the form $x^{1/\alpha} \hat{L}(x)$ with $\hat{L}(x)$ slowly varying.

For the sequence A_n we use another basic result of Kolmogorov and Gnedenko, Theorem 4 of Section 25 in [2], stating that the most general choice of A_n is

$$(1.23) \quad A_n = n \int_{|x| < t} x dF(B_n x) - \gamma_n(t),$$

where $t > 0$ is fixed and $\gamma_n(t)$ is any convergent sequence. From this characterization it is shown in the Appendix of [1] that

$$(1.24) \quad \begin{aligned} A_n &= n B_n^{-1} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x dF(x), & 1 < \alpha < 2, \\ &= 0, & \alpha < 1, \\ &= n \operatorname{Im} [1 - \phi(B_n^{-1})], & \alpha = 1 \end{aligned}$$

are possible choices. First we remark that if F lies in the domain of attraction of a stable law of index α , then it is known (Theorem (3) of Section 35 in [2]) that it

possesses all δ th order moments for $0 \leq \delta < \alpha$. In particular then, for $1 < \alpha \leq 2$ the mean μ exists and our assumption of recurrence implies $\mu = 0$. Consequently, we may take $A_n \equiv 0$. However, when $\alpha = 1$ a first moment may or may not exist and it is necessary to introduce the notion of *normal* attraction.

DEFINITION. A distribution F is said to belong to the domain of *normal* attraction of a stable law G_α of index α , $0 < \alpha \leq 2$ if it belongs to its domain of (general) attraction with $B_n = n^{1/\alpha}$ a possible choice for the norming constants.

An equivalent way to formulate the criterion for normal attraction is to require for $\alpha < 2$ that the slowly varying function in the relation $x^\alpha \chi(x) = L(x)$ have a non-zero finite limit as $x \rightarrow \infty$, and to require a finite variance for $\alpha = 2$ (see Theorems 4 and 5 of Section 35 in [2]).

We now state the following result (proved in [1]).

THEOREM 1.2. *Let F belong to the domain of normal attraction of a stable law of index 1. Then*

$$(i) \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \operatorname{Im} [t^{-1}(1 - \phi(t))] = \mu \quad \text{if and only if}$$

$$(ii) \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-x}^x \zeta dF(\zeta) = \mu.$$

In particular, it follows from (1.24) that the centering constants A_n may be taken to be zero if and only if (ii) holds for μ finite.

Finally we record the following result. The proof is essentially a generalization of the argument relating the asymptotic tail behavior of the distribution of a symmetric stable law to the behavior of its characteristic function near the origin. A detailed proof appears in [1].

THEOREM 1.3. *Let F be the probability distribution of a random variable X . Assume F satisfies the hypotheses of Theorem 1.1. Then in the notation of that theorem:*

(i) *For $1 < \alpha < 2$ and $E[X] = 0$*

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^\pm} \frac{1 - \phi(t)}{\chi(1/|t|)} = \frac{c}{c_1 + c_2} (1 \pm i\beta \tan \tfrac{1}{2}\pi\alpha).$$

(ii) *For $0 < \alpha < 1$*

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^\pm} \frac{1 - \phi(t)}{\chi(1/|t|)} = \frac{c}{c_1 + c_2} (1 \pm i\beta \tan \tfrac{1}{2}\pi\alpha).$$

(iii) *For $\alpha = 2$ and $E[X] = 0$*

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \phi(t)}{t^2 \int_{-1/|t|}^{1/|t|} x^2 dF(x)} = \frac{1}{2}.$$

(iv) *For $\alpha = 1$.*

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \operatorname{Re} \left[\frac{1 - \phi(t)}{\chi(1/|t|)} \right] = \tfrac{1}{2}\pi;$$

and if for $\alpha = 1$ the additional hypothesis is made that F is normally attracted to its limit stable law, then

$$\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \pm \operatorname{Im} \left[\frac{1 - \phi(t)}{\ln |t| \chi(1/|t|)} \right] = \pm \beta.$$

2. Basic limit theorem. The discussion in this section will be limited to the special class of one-dimensional recurrent random walks whose increments have their common distribution belonging to the domain of attraction of a stable law of index α , $1 \leq \alpha \leq 2$.

THEOREM 2.1. Let $S_n = x_0 + \sum_{k=1}^n X_k$ be the n th partial sum of an integer-valued, recurrent, aperiodic walk. If F is the distribution of X_1 , we assume

(i) F belongs to the domain of attraction of a stable law of index α , $1 < \alpha \leq 2$. Thus there is a sequence $B_n > 0$ such that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P[S_n/B_n \leq x] = G_\alpha(x) \quad x \in R,$$

where G_α is a probability distribution with a characteristic function ϕ_α of the form

$$\ln \phi_\alpha(t) = -c |t|^\alpha (1 + it |t|^{-1} \beta \tan \frac{1}{2} \pi \alpha) \equiv -b |t|^\alpha$$

with $c > 0$ and $-1 \leq \beta \leq 1$.

Alternatively, we assume

(ii) F belongs to the domain of normal attraction of a stable law of index $\alpha = 1$ and, in addition, $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \int_{-x}^x \zeta dF(\zeta) = \mu < \infty$.

Thus there is a sequence $B_n > 0$ such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P[S_n/B_n \leq x] = G_1(x)$, $x \in R$, where G_1 has characteristic function ϕ_1 such that $\ln \phi_1(t) = -c |t|$ with $c > 0$.

Then in both cases (i) and (ii) if $T = T_{\{0\}}$, we have that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P[S_n/B_n \leq x | T > n] = H_\alpha(x),$$

where H_α is a probability distribution with a bounded continuous density h_α with characteristic function Ψ_α given by

$$(2.2) \quad \Psi_\alpha(t) = 1 - b |t|^\alpha \int_0^1 x^{(1/\alpha)-1} \phi_\alpha[t(1-x)^{1/\alpha}] dx.$$

The two special cases $\alpha = 2$ (normal) and $\alpha = 1$ (Cauchy) permit an explicit evaluation of the limit law:

$$h_2(x) = \frac{1}{2} \sigma^{-2} x^2 \exp \left[-\frac{1}{2} \sigma^{-2} x^2 \right] \quad (\text{a two-sided Rayleigh density}),$$

where $\sigma^2 = 2c$ is the variance of the limit normal law with characteristic function ϕ_2 :

$$h_1(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{c}{c^2 + x^2}.$$

Before proceeding to the proof we make several remarks and prove a lemma.

First, in the statement of the theorem we have made use of our earlier remark that for $\alpha > 1$ the sequence A_n of centering constants may be taken to be identically

zero. For $\alpha = 1$ we note that by Theorem 1.2 Condition 2.1 guarantees that $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \text{Im} [t^{-1}(1 - \phi(t))] = \mu$. It then follows from Condition (I) for recurrence and statement (iv) of Theorem 1.3 that the underlying random walk must be recurrent and that $\beta = 0$ in the limit stable law (and therefore $\gamma = -\mu$). Consequently, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P[S_n/B_n - \mu \leq x] = G_1(x + \mu)$. Therefore taking G_1 as the limit law we may assume $A_n = 0$ for $\alpha = 1$ as well.

The second fact we need is that without any loss of generality we may assume B_n to be of the form $B_n = n^{1/\alpha} \tilde{L}(n)$, $0 < \alpha \leq 2$, where \tilde{L} is a slowly varying function. In the particular case $\alpha = 1$, we further require $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{L}(n)$ is finite and non-zero (i.e., the attraction must be normal). Finally, we remark that in the Cauchy case the theorem states the interesting result that conditioning on the event $[T > n]$ plays no role in the limit.

We now prove the following lemma.

LEMMA 2.1. *Under the hypotheses of Theorem 2.1 for $1 < \alpha \leq 2$*

$$(2.3) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{n r_n}{B_n} = \frac{\sin \pi/\alpha}{\pi g_\alpha(0)},$$

where g_α is the density of G_α ; for $\alpha = 1$ $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r_n \ln n = \frac{1}{2}\pi^2 l$ where $l = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \tilde{L}(n)$ is finite and non-zero.

PROOF. Let $R(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r_n x^n$ and $U(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u_n x^n$. Then $R(x) = [(1-x)U(x)]^{-1}$. By the local limit theorem for lattice variables attracted to a stable law² (recalling our assumption of aperiodicity) we have that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} B_n p_n(0, 0) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} B_n u_n = g_\alpha(0).$$

By a standard Abelian theorem it easily follows that

$$U(x) \sim \frac{g_\alpha(0)\Gamma(1-1/\alpha)(1-x)^{(1/\alpha)-1}}{\tilde{L}(1/(1-x))} \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow 1-.$$

Hence

$$(2.4) \quad R(x) \sim \frac{\tilde{L}(1/(1-x))}{g_\alpha(0)\Gamma(1-1/\alpha)} (1-x)^{-(1/\alpha)} \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow 1-.$$

Finally, since r_n is a nonincreasing sequence, we may apply Karamata's Tauberian theorem for $\alpha \neq 1$ to (2.4) to obtain

$$\begin{aligned} r_n &\sim \frac{\tilde{L}(n)}{n^{1-1/\alpha} g_\alpha(0)\Gamma(1-1/\alpha)\Gamma(1/\alpha)} \\ &= \frac{\tilde{L}(n)}{n^{1-1/\alpha} \pi g_\alpha(0)} \frac{\sin \pi/\alpha}{\pi} \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty. \end{aligned}$$

Since $B_n = n^{1/\alpha} \tilde{L}(n)$ we have demonstrated (2.3) for $1 < \alpha \leq 2$.

² As stated in Section 49 and Section 50 of [2] the theorem is valid except when $\alpha = 2$, $\sigma^2 = \infty$. However, the latter case is proved by C. Stone in [10].

The case $\alpha = 1$ is contained in the proof of Theorem 18 in [5]. This completes the proof.

PROOF OF THEOREM 2.1. For $x \neq 0$, a simple decomposition of the event $[T \leq n]$ gives

$$(2.5) \quad P[S_n/B_n \in dx \mid T > n] = r_n^{-1} P[S_n/B_n \in dx] - r_n^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} f_k P[S_{n-k}/B_n \in dx].$$

After a summation by parts this expression reduces to

$$(2.6) \quad \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} r_n^{-1} r_k (P[S_{n-k}/B_n \in dx] - P[S_{n-k-1}/B_n \in dx]).$$

If we let $\Psi_{\alpha,n}$ be the characteristic function of this probability measure, we obtain

$$\Psi_{\alpha,n}(t) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} r_n^{-1} r_k [\phi^{n-k}(t/B_n) - \phi^{n-k-1}(t/B_n)] - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} r_n^{-1} r_k (P[S_{n-k} = 0] - P[S_{n-k-1} = 0]);$$

and since $\sum_{k=0}^n r_k u_{n-k} = 1$,

$$(2.7) \quad \Psi_{\alpha,n}(t) = 1 - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} r_n^{-1} r_k [1 - \phi(t/B_n)] \phi^{n-k-1}(t/B_n).$$

Now we recall that $B_n = B(n) = n^{1/\alpha} \tilde{L}(n)$ with \tilde{L} a slowly varying function. Therefore

$$\frac{B(n-(k+1))}{B(n)} = \frac{B(n(1-(k+1)/n))}{B(n)} \sim \left(1 - \frac{k+1}{n}\right)^{1/\alpha} \text{ for large } n \text{ and } 0 \leq k \leq n(1-\varepsilon).$$

By our hypotheses $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi^n(t/B_n) = \phi_\alpha(t)$, with the convergence uniform for t on finite intervals. Thus

$$(2.8) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (\phi^{n-(k+1)}(t/B_n) - \phi_\alpha[t(1-n^{-1}(k+1))^{1/\alpha}]) = 0,$$

with the convergence uniform in $0 \leq k \leq (1-\varepsilon)n$.

It is an easy consequence of Theorem 1.3 that

$$(2.9) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n[1 - \phi(t/B_n)] = c(1 + i \operatorname{sgn}(t)\beta(\tan \frac{1}{2}\pi\alpha)|t|^\alpha) \text{ for } 1 < \alpha \leq 2;$$

and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} n[1 - \phi(t/B_n)] = c|t|$ for $\alpha = 1$.

By Lemma (2.1) we have that uniformly for $\varepsilon n \leq k \leq n$, $r_k/r_n \sim (n/k)^{1-(1/\alpha)}$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for $1 < \alpha \leq 2$, and $r_k/r_n \rightarrow 1$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ for $\alpha = 1$.

Therefore, we see that $1 - \sum_{k=\varepsilon n}^{(1-\varepsilon)n} r_n^{-1} r_k [1 - \phi(t/B_n)] \phi^{n-(k+1)}(t/B_n)$ is approximated by (their difference tends to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$)

$$1 - \sum_{k=\varepsilon n}^{(1-\varepsilon)n} (n/k)^{1-(1/\alpha)} b |t|^\alpha n^{-1} \phi_\alpha[t(1-n^{-1}(k+1))^{1/\alpha}],$$

where $b = c(1 + i \operatorname{sgn}(t)\beta \tan \frac{1}{2}\pi\alpha)$ for $1 < \alpha \leq 2$ and $b = c$ for $\alpha = 1$. This last expression in turn is an approximating sum to the Riemann integral

$$1 - b |t|^\alpha \int_\varepsilon^{1-\varepsilon} x^{(1/\alpha)-1} \phi_\alpha[t(1-x)^{1/\alpha}] dx \text{ for } 1 \leq \alpha \leq 2.$$

Now $\int_0^1 x^{(1/\alpha)-1} \phi_\alpha[t(1-x)^{1/\alpha}] dx$ is an absolutely convergent integral. Hence, in order to show that for every $t \in R$

$$(2.10) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Psi_{\alpha,n}(t) = 1 - b |t|^\alpha \int_0^1 x^{(1/\alpha)-1} \phi_\alpha[t(1-x)^{1/\alpha}] dx,$$

it is enough to show

$$(2.11) \quad \limsup_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left| \sum_{k=0}^{\varepsilon n} + \sum_{k=(1-\varepsilon)n}^n r_n^{-1} r_k [1 - \phi(t/B_n)] \phi^{n-k-1}(t/B_n) \right| = 0.$$

We estimate the expression in (2.11) using Theorem 1.3 and Lemma 2.1: First

$$(2.12) \quad 1 - \phi(t/B_n) \leq K_1 n^{-1} |t|^\alpha$$

for some constant K_1 . For $1 < \alpha \leq 2$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [r_n n^{1-(1/\alpha)} / \tilde{L}(n)]$ is finite and non-zero.

For $\alpha = 1$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r_n \ln n$ is finite and non-zero.

Thus we obtain

$$(2.13) \quad \sum_{k=0}^M \frac{r_k |t|^\alpha}{r_n n} \leq |t|^\alpha \sum_{k=0}^M \frac{1}{n^{1/\alpha} \tilde{L}(n)} = \frac{|t|^\alpha (M+1)}{n^{1/\alpha} \tilde{L}(n)} \rightarrow 0, \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty$$

for each fixed positive integer M . Also

$$(2.14) \quad |t|^\alpha \sum_{k=M}^{\varepsilon n} \frac{r_k}{r_n n} = |t|^\alpha \sum_{k=M}^{\varepsilon n} \left(\frac{n}{k} \right)^{1-(1/\alpha)} \frac{1}{n} \frac{\tilde{L}(k)}{\tilde{L}(n)}.$$

The expression on the right in (2.14) is asymptotically of the same order as

$$\frac{1}{n^{1/\alpha} \tilde{L}(n)} \int_M^{\varepsilon n} \frac{\tilde{L}(x)}{x^{1-(1/\alpha)}} dx.$$

We now appeal to an argument given in the Appendix of [1] which shows that we make take \tilde{L} to be differentiable. We may therefore apply L'Hospital's rule in estimating this ratio. It follows that

$$(2.15) \quad \lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \limsup_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n^{1/\alpha} \tilde{L}(n)} \int_M^{\varepsilon n} \frac{\tilde{L}(x)}{x^{1-(1/\alpha)}} dx = \varepsilon \alpha.$$

Finally,

$$(2.16) \quad \sum_{k=(1-\varepsilon)n}^n \frac{r_k}{r_n n} \leq \varepsilon K_2,$$

where

$$K_2 = \sup_n \sup_{(1-\varepsilon)n \leq k \leq n} \frac{r_k}{r_n} \leq \frac{1}{(1-\varepsilon)^{1-(1/\alpha)}} \sup_n \sup_{(1-\varepsilon)n \leq k \leq n} \frac{\tilde{L}(k)}{\tilde{L}(n)} < \infty,$$

since \tilde{L} varies slowly. Combining the estimates (2.12)–(2.16), we get (2.11). Thus for $1 < \alpha \leq 2$ we have proved $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Psi_{\alpha,n}(t) = \Psi_\alpha(t)$.

That Ψ_α is in fact the characteristic function of a probability distribution is a result of $|1 - \Psi_\alpha(t)| \leq |b| |t|^\alpha \int_0^1 x^{(1/\alpha)-1} dx$, which implies Ψ_α is continuous at the origin. Actually a stronger result holds. By an easy dominated convergence argument

$$(2.17) \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1 - \Psi_\alpha(t)}{|t|^\alpha} = b \int_0^1 x^{(1/\alpha)-1} dx.$$

The estimates for $\alpha = 1$ are very much the same and we omit the details.

The only two cases in which we attempt an explicit evaluation of H_α are for $\alpha = 1, 2$. A routine computation shows $\Psi_1(t) = \exp(-ct)$. The case $\alpha = 2$ can be handled as follows. The characteristic function $\bar{\Psi}_2$ corresponding to the density h_2 with $h_2(x) = \frac{1}{2}\sigma^{-2}|x|\exp(-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^{-2}x^2)$ is $\bar{\Psi}_2(t) = 1 - t \int_0^\infty \exp[-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^{-2}x^2] \sin xt \, dx$.

Now

$$\Psi_2(t) = 1 - \frac{1}{2}t^2\sigma^2 \int_0^1 x^{-\frac{1}{2}} \exp[-\frac{1}{2}t^2\sigma^2(1-x)] \, dx.$$

To see that $\bar{\Psi}_2 = \Psi_2$ we define

$$\varphi_2(t) = t^{-1}[1 - \Psi_2(t)] \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{\varphi}_2(t) = t^{-1}[1 - \bar{\Psi}_2(t)].$$

It is then a simple matter to check that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(i)} \quad & \bar{\varphi}_2(0) = \varphi_2(0) = 0 \\ \text{(ii)} \quad & d\bar{\varphi}_2/dt = [1 - t\bar{\varphi}_2]\sigma^2; \quad d\varphi_2/dt = [1 - t\varphi_2]\sigma^2. \end{aligned}$$

To complete the proof of the theorem it remains only to demonstrate that for $1 < \alpha < 2$, Ψ_α corresponds to a probability law with a bounded continuous density. For this we will show

$$(2.18) \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\Psi_\alpha(t)| \, dt < \infty.$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} |\Psi_\alpha(t)| &= |1 - b|t|^\alpha \int_0^1 x^{(1/\alpha)-1} \exp[-b|t|^\alpha(1-x)] \, dx| \\ &\leq |b|t|^\alpha \int_0^{1-\delta} x^{(1/\alpha)-1} \exp[-b|t|^\alpha(1-x)] \, dx \\ &\quad + |1 - b|t|^\alpha \int_{1-\delta}^1 x^{(1/\alpha)-1} \exp[-b|t|^\alpha(1-x)] \, dx| \\ &\leq |bt|^\alpha \int_0^{1-\delta} x^{(1/\alpha)-1} \exp[-c|t|^\alpha(1-x)] \, dx \\ &\quad + |1 - b|t|^\alpha \int_{1-\delta}^1 \exp[-b|t|^\alpha(1-x)] \, dx| \\ &\quad + |bt|^\alpha \left| \int_{1-\delta}^1 (x^{(1/\alpha)-1} - 1) \exp[-b|t|^\alpha(1-x)] \, dx \right|. \end{aligned}$$

The first two of these terms are dominated by $A|bt|^\alpha \exp[-c|t|^\alpha\delta]$ and $\exp[-c|t|^\alpha\delta]$ respectively, for some constant A . Both of these functions are integrable. The third term is dominated by

$$|bt|^\alpha \left| \int_{1-\delta}^1 (x^{(1/\alpha)-1} - 1) \exp[-c|t|^\alpha(1-x)] \, dx \right|.$$

However,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty t^\alpha \int_{1-\delta}^1 (x^{(1/\alpha)-1} - 1) \exp[-ct^\alpha(1-x)] \, dx \, dt \\ = \int_{1-\delta}^1 \frac{x^{(1/\alpha)-1} - 1}{(1-x)^{1+(1/\alpha)}} \, dx \int_0^\infty t^\alpha \exp[-ct^\alpha] \, dt \\ \leq K \int_{1-\delta}^1 \frac{dx}{(1-x)^{1/\alpha}} < \infty, \quad \text{for some constant } K. \end{aligned}$$

This completes the proof of Theorem 2.1.

3. Generalization to finite sets. In this section we prove an analogue of Theorem 2.1 when the event $[T > n]$ is replaced by $[T_A > n]$, where $A = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_M\}$ is a finite set of integers with $\tilde{g}_A(0) \neq 0$. A rather interesting phenomenon occurs in that the limit distribution $H_{\alpha, A}$ depends on A only when F has a finite variance. The full statement of the theorem is as follows.

THEOREM 3.1. *Under the same hypotheses as Theorem 2.1, if $A = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_M\}$ is a finite set of integers such that $\tilde{g}_A(0) \neq 0$, then*

$$(3.1) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P[S_n/B_n \leq x \mid T_A > n] = H_{\alpha, A}(x) \quad \text{for every } x \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$H_{\alpha, A}$ is a probability distribution with characteristic function $\Psi_{\alpha, A}$ with the following properties:

(i) If $1 \leq \alpha < 2$ or $\alpha = 2$ and F has infinite variance then $\Psi_{\alpha, A} = \Psi_\alpha$, i.e. the limit distribution is independent of the set A .

(ii) If $\alpha = 2$ and the variance of F is finite

$$\Psi_{2, A}(t) = \Psi_2(t) - i(\tfrac{1}{2}\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}} E[S_{T_A}] [\tilde{g}_A(0)]^{-1} \sigma^{-1} t \exp(-\tfrac{1}{2} t^2 \sigma^2)$$

and

$$h_{2, A}(x) = \tfrac{1}{2} \sigma^{-2} \exp(\tfrac{1}{2} \sigma^{-2} x^2) [x - (\sigma^2 \tilde{g}_A(0))^{-1} x E[S_{T_A}]].$$

PROOF.

$$\begin{aligned} & P[S_n/B_n \in dx \mid T_A > n] \\ &= \{P[T_A > n]\}^{-1} \\ & \quad \cdot (P[S_n/B_n \in dx] - \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^M P[T_A = k; S_{T_A} = x_i] P^{x_i}[S_{n-k}/B_n \in dx]) \\ &= \{P[T_A > n]\}^{-1} (P[S_n/B_n \in dx] - \sum_{k=1}^n P[T_A = k] P[S_{n-k}/B_n \in dx]) \\ & \quad + \{P[T_A > n]\}^{-1} \\ & \quad \cdot \{\sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^M P[T_A = k; S_{T_A} = x_i] (P[S_{n-k}/B_n \in dx] - P^{x_i}[S_{n-k}/B_n \in dx])\} \\ &= \mu_n^{(1)}(dx) + \mu_n^{(2)}(dx). \end{aligned}$$

A summation by parts gives

$$\begin{aligned} \mu_n^{(1)}(dx) &= P[S_0 \in dx] - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \{P[T_A > k]/P[T_A > n]\} \\ & \quad (P[S_{n-(k+1)}/B_n \in dx] - P[S_{n-k}/B_n \in dx]). \end{aligned}$$

Consequently, if we let $\Psi_n^{(1)} = \Psi_{\alpha, A, n}^{(1)}$ and $\Psi_n^{(2)} = \Psi_{\alpha, A, n}^{(2)}$ be the contributions to the characteristic function of the probability measure $P[S_n/B_n \in dx \mid T_A > n]$ corresponding to $\mu_n^{(1)}$ and $\mu_n^{(2)}$ respectively, then

$$\Psi_n^{(1)}(t) = 1 - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \{P[T_A > k]/P[T_A > n]\} [1 - \phi(t/B_n)] \phi^{n-(k+1)}(t/B_n).$$

By Theorem 4a in [4], when $\tilde{g}_A(0) \neq 0$, $\{P[T_A > k]/P[T_A > n]\}$ has the same asymptotic behavior for large k and n as r_k/r_n ; hence

$$(3.2) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Psi_n^{(1)}(t) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Psi_{\alpha, n}(t) = \Psi_\alpha(t),$$

by Theorem 1.1.

Also we may rewrite $\mu_n^{(2)}(dx)$ as

$$\{P[T_A > n]\}^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^M P[T_A = k; S_{T_A} = x_i] \cdot (P[S_{n-k}/B_n \in dx] - P[(S_{n-k} + x_i)/B_n \in dx]).$$

Thus we conclude that

$$\Psi_n^{(2)}(t) = \{P[T_A > n]\}^{-1} \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^M P[T_A = k; S_{T_A} = x_i] \cdot [\phi^{n-k}(t/B_n) - \phi^{n-k}(t/B_n) \exp(itx_i/B_n)].$$

Once again performing a summation by parts we find that

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi_n^{(2)}(t) &= \sum_{i=1}^M \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \{P[T_A > k; S_{T_A} = x_i]/P[T_A > n]\} \phi^{n-(k+1)}(t/B_n) \\ &\quad \cdot [1 - \phi(t/B_n)][1 - \exp(itx_i/B_n)] \\ (3.3) \quad &+ \sum_{i=1}^M \{P[T_A > n]\}^{-1} P[S_{T_A} = x_i][1 - \exp(itx_i/B_n)] \phi^{n-1}(t/B_n) \\ &\quad - \sum_{i=1}^M \{P[T_A > n; S_{T_A} = x_i]/P[T_A > n]\} [1 - \exp(itx_i/B_n)]. \end{aligned}$$

Since $B_n \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, the third term on the right in (3.3), which is bounded by $\sum_{i=1}^M |1 - \exp(itx_i/B_n)|$, tends to zero as $n \rightarrow \infty$. The first term is dominated in absolute value by

$$|\sum_{i=1}^M [1 - \exp(itx_i/B_n)] \sum_{k=1}^{n-1} \{P[T_A > k]/P[T_A > n]\} [1 - \phi(t/B_n)] \phi^{n-(k+1)}(t/B_n)|.$$

Since the expression in the inner summation was already shown to have a finite limit as $n \rightarrow \infty$, the first term on the right in (3.3) tends to zero as well.

To estimate the second term we consider two separate cases:

Case (i). $1 \leq \alpha < 2$.

First we have

$$|1 - \exp(itx_i/B_n)| = O(tx_i/B_n) \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Also, for $1 < \alpha < 2$,

$$P[T_A > n] \sim \tilde{g}_A(0)r_n \sim \tilde{g}_A(0)\tilde{L}(n)/n^{1-(1/\alpha)} \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty;$$

while for $\alpha = 1$,

$$P[T_A > n] \sim \frac{1}{2}\pi^2 l\tilde{g}_A(0)/\ln n \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Consequently,

$$(3.4) \quad |1 - \exp(itx_i/B_n)|/P[T_A > n] \leq Kn^{1-(2/\alpha)}/[\tilde{L}(n)]^2 \rightarrow 0$$

for some constant K when $1 < \alpha < 2$;

$$(3.5) \quad |1 - \exp(itx_i/B_n)|/P[T_A > n] \leq Kn^{-1} \ln n \rightarrow 0$$

when $\alpha = 1$.

For $\alpha = 2$, when the variance of F is infinite by our choice of the sequence B_n (see (1.22)) $B_n^2 = n \int_{-C_n}^{C_n} x^2 dF(x)$, and since $C_n \rightarrow \infty$ we obtain $n/B_n^2 \rightarrow 0$. Thus once again we have that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} |1 - \exp(itx_i/B_n)|/P[T_A > n] = 0$.

Combining this with (3.4) and (3.5) it follows that the second term in (3.3) tends to zero.

Case (ii). $\alpha = 2$ and F has finite variance.

Then we have

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi^{n-1}(t/B_n) = \exp[-\tfrac{1}{2}t^2\sigma^2], \quad 1 - \exp(itx_i/B_n) \sim -itx_i/B_n = -n^{-\frac{1}{2}}itx_i,$$

and

$$\{P[T_A > n]\}^{-1} \sim [\tilde{g}_A(0)r_n]^{-1} \sim [\tilde{g}_A(0)\sigma]^{-1}(\tfrac{1}{2}\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}}n^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Combining these facts with (3.2) gives $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [\Psi_{2,A,n}^{(1)}(t) + \Psi_{2,A,n}^{(2)}(t)] = \Psi_{2,A}(t)$. This completes the proof of Theorem 3.1.

4. The 2-dimensional finite variance case. To this point we have restricted our attention to random walks with state space Z . We now consider the 2-dimensional case.

Lévy's formula [7] for the characteristic function of a d -dimensional stable law G_α , $0 < \alpha \leq 2$ is

$$(4.1) \quad \int e^{it \cdot x} dG_\alpha(x) = \exp\{iA \cdot t - \lambda |t|^\alpha [c_1(t) + ic_2(t)]\},$$

where A is a constant vector, λ a positive constant and

$$\begin{aligned} c_1(t) &= \int |t|^{-1} |\theta \cdot t|^\alpha dH(\theta), \\ c_2(t) &= -\int \operatorname{sgn}(\theta \cdot t) \tan(\tfrac{1}{2}\pi\alpha) |t|^{-1} \theta \cdot t |t|^\alpha dH(\theta) \quad \text{for } \alpha \neq 1, \\ &= 2\pi^{-1} \int (|t|^{-1} \theta \cdot t) \ln(\theta \cdot t) dH(\theta) \quad \text{for } \alpha = 1, \end{aligned}$$

with H a probability measure on the unit sphere in R^d .

For a *genuinely d -dimensional* (as defined in [8]) recurrent random walk with increments $X_k = (Y_k^{(1)}, \dots, Y_k^{(d)})$ having their common distribution in the domain of attraction of a stable law, it can be shown by applying the criterion in (I) of the Introduction that either $d = 1$ or $d = 2$, $\alpha = 2$. The case $d = 1$ has already been considered so there remains only the case where the distribution F of X_1 belongs to the domain of attraction of a bivariate normal distribution. We require in addition that $E|X_1|^2 < \infty$. By (7.7) of [8], if ϕ is the characteristic function of F , we then have

$$(4.2) \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} [Q(t)]^{-1} [1 - \phi(t)] = \tfrac{1}{2},$$

where $Q(t) = Q(t_1, t_2) = E[(X \cdot t)^2]$. We define $\sigma_1^2 = \operatorname{Var} Y_1^{(1)}$, $\sigma_2^2 = \operatorname{Var} Y_1^{(2)}$ and $\rho = [\sigma_1 \sigma_2]^{-1} E[Y_1^{(1)} Y_1^{(2)}]$ and state the following analogue of Lemma 2.1.

LEMMA 4.1. *For an aperiodic, recurrent, genuinely 2-dimensional random walk with $E|X_1|^2 < \infty$ we have*

$$(4.3) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} r_n \ln n = 2\pi \sigma_1 \sigma_2 (1 - \rho^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

PROOF. As stated in the proof of Lemma 1.1 we have

$$U(x) = (2\pi)^{-2} \int_{C_2} ([1 - x\phi(t)]^{-1} dt.$$

By aperiodicity we have for any fixed $\delta > 0$

$$\begin{aligned} & \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{U(x)}{\ln(1/1-x)} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^2 \ln(1/1-x)} \int_{C_2} \frac{dt}{\frac{1}{2}Q(t) + (1-x)} \\ &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^2 \ln(1/1-x)} \int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\delta(1-x)^{-1/2}} \frac{r}{(\frac{1}{2}r^2)Q(\cos \theta, \sin \theta) + 1} dr d\theta \\ (4.4) \quad &= \lim_{x \rightarrow 1^-} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^2 \ln(1/1-x)} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{\ln([Q(\cos \theta, \sin \theta)/2(1-x)] \delta^2 + 1)}{Q(\cos \theta, \sin \theta)} d\theta \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^2} \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{d\theta}{Q(\cos \theta, \sin \theta)} = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma_1\sigma_2(1-\rho^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}}. \end{aligned}$$

Since $U(x) = (1-x)R(x)$, applying Karamata's Tauberian theorem we obtain (4.3).

THEOREM 4.1. *Under the hypotheses of Lemma 4.1 if \mathbf{A} is a finite set in Z^2 such that $\tilde{g}_{\mathbf{A}}(0) > 0$, then*

$$(4.5) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P[S_n/n^{\frac{1}{2}} \leq x \mid T_{\mathbf{A}} > n] = G(x),$$

where G is the bivariate normal distribution with parameters σ_1, σ_2 and ρ .³

Thus we find that conditioning on the event $[T_{\mathbf{A}} > n]$ plays no role in the limit (c.f. (ii) of Theorem 2.1).

PROOF. Proceeding as in the proof of Theorem 2.1 we let ψ_n be the characteristic function of the probability measure P_n , where $P_n(dx) = P[S_n/n^{\frac{1}{2}} \in dx \mid T_{\mathbf{A}} > n]$. Then by (4.2), the Central Limit Theorem, (2.6), and Lemma 4.1 we have

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(t) &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \psi_n(t) \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left\{ 1 - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} r_n^{-1} r_k [1 - \phi(n^{-\frac{1}{2}}t)] \phi^{n-(k+1)}(n^{-\frac{1}{2}}t) \right\} \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{2}Q(t) \int_0^1 \exp(-\frac{1}{2}Q(t)(1-x)) dx \\ &= \exp(-\frac{1}{2}Q(t)), \end{aligned}$$

and (4.5) follows immediately for $\mathbf{A} = \{0\}$. The generalization to finite \mathbf{A} with $\tilde{g}_{\mathbf{A}}(0) \neq 0$ proceeds as in the proof of Theorem 3.1.

³ We say $(x_1, y_1) \leq (x_2, y_2)$ if $x_1 \leq x_2$ and $y_1 \leq y_2$.

5. Counterexample. We saw in the proposition in the introduction that the condition $\tilde{g}_A(x) > 0$ is equivalent to the requirement that the random walk is able to *escape to infinity* along some path which starts at x and avoids the set A . In the case $d = 1, \sigma^2 < \infty$ this was to be interpreted to mean that the random walk could reach both arbitrarily large positive and arbitrarily large negative values without entering A . It is clear that Theorem 1.1 would fail to hold if an A were so chosen that the condition $T_A > n$ on S_n would force the partial sums of the random walk to be bounded both above and below. However, it is not a priori clear what the appropriate restatement of the theorem should be if the condition $T_A > n$ confines the random walk to a half line. We now give an example showing that Theorem 1.1 as stated may indeed fail in this situation. However, for this particular example an analogous result will hold.

Let F be a distribution function corresponding to a left-continuous (i.e., $p(0, x) = 0$ for $x \leq -2$), recurrent random walk in the domain of normal attraction of a stable law of index α with $1 < \alpha < 2$. In particular, then

$$(5.1) \quad x^\alpha [1 - F(x)] \rightarrow c \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

(For simplicity we take $c = 1$.) Take the set A to be the point $\{-1\}$. Then by Theorem 1.3

$$(5.2) \quad \lim_{t \rightarrow 0 \pm} (1 - \phi(t)) / |t|^\alpha = \Gamma(1 - \alpha) \cos(\tfrac{1}{2}\pi\alpha) (h \pm i \tan(\tfrac{1}{2}\pi\alpha)),$$

Defining $R_1(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} r_n(1, \{0\})x^n$ and $U_1(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} p_n(1, 0)x^n$, it is easily seen that

$$R_1(x) = [(1-x)U(x)]^{-1} [U(x) - U_1(x)].$$

Now the potential kernel $a(x)$ defined by $a(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} [p_n(0, 0) - p_n(x, 0)]$ has the Fourier analytic representation $a(x) = (2\pi)^{-1} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} [1 - x\phi(t)]^{-1} (1 - e^{it}) dt$.

Consequently,

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow 1} (U(x) - U_1(x)) = a(1) = (2\pi)^{-1} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} [1 - \phi(t)]^{-1} (1 - e^{it}) dt.$$

However, for left continuous random walk with $\sigma^2 = \infty$ it is known that $a(x)$ vanishes on the right half line $x > 0$ (see Section 30 of [8]).

Therefore we may write

$$U(x) - U_1(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{(1-x)\phi(t)(1-e^{it})}{(1-\phi(t))(1-x\phi(t))} dt.$$

It follows that for $\delta > 0$ as $x \rightarrow 1$

$$\frac{U(x) - U_1(x)}{1-x} \sim \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\pi \leq |t| \leq \delta} \frac{\phi(t)(1-e^{it})}{(1-\phi(t))^2} dt + \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\delta}^{\delta} \frac{\phi(t)(1-e^{it})}{(1-\phi(t))(1-x\phi(t))} dt.$$

Now it is a straightforward argument using (5.2) to show that for arbitrary $\varepsilon > 0$ and fixed δ small enough,

$$(1-\varepsilon)K \leq \frac{(1-x)^{2-(2/\alpha)}}{2\pi} \int_{-\delta}^{\delta} \frac{\phi(t)(1-e^{it})}{(1-\phi(t))(1-x\phi(t))} dt \leq (1+\varepsilon)K$$

for x sufficiently close to 1, where

$$K = \frac{1}{\pi[\Gamma(1-\alpha)]^{2/\alpha}} \int_0^\infty \frac{du}{u^{\alpha-1}u^{\alpha+1}} = \frac{\csc(2\pi/\alpha)}{\alpha[\Gamma(1-\alpha)]^{2/\alpha}}.$$

Consequently, as $x \rightarrow 1$

$$R_1(x) \sim -\frac{\csc(2\pi/\alpha)(1-x)^{(1/\alpha)-1}}{\alpha g_\alpha(0)\Gamma(1-1/\alpha)[\Gamma(1-\alpha)]^{2/\alpha}},$$

and by Karamata's Theorem

$$r_n(0, \{-1\}) \sim \frac{n^{-1/\alpha}}{2\pi\alpha g_\alpha(0) \cos \pi/\alpha [\Gamma(1-\alpha)]^{2/\alpha}} \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

One now observes that in contrast to the situation in Lemma 2.1, where r_n tended to zero asymptotically like $n^{(1/\alpha)-1}$, we now find that $r_n(0, \{-1\})$ tends to zero like $n^{-(1/\alpha)}$.⁴ It is clear from its proof that Theorem 3.1 may now be restated for our example with

$$\Psi_\alpha(t) = 1 - b|t|^\alpha \int_0^1 x^{-(1/\alpha)} \phi_\alpha[t(1-x)^{1/\alpha}] dx.$$

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⁴ We remark that $1-1/\alpha = 1/\alpha$ for $\alpha = 2$, as one might suspect, since for any left continuous, recurrent random walk with $\sigma^2 < \infty$, it is necessarily true that $g_A(x) > 0$ for $A = \{-1\}$.