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## SOME LIMIT THEOREMS FOR LOCAL TIME

by

R. K. Gettoor<sup>1</sup> and P. W. Millar<sup>2</sup>

### 1. Introduction

Let  $X = \{X(t), t \geq 0\}$  be a standard Markov process with state space  $E$ . Assume that for each  $x \in E$ ,  $x$  is regular for itself: i.e., if  $T_x = \inf\{t > 0 : X(t) = x\}$ , then  $P^x\{T_x = 0\} = 1$ . Then according to the theory of Blumenthal and Gettoor, there is for each  $x$ , a continuous, unique (up to constant multiples), increasing additive functional  $\{L_t^x, t \geq 0\}$ , called the local time at  $x$ , which increases 'only' when the process  $X$  is in the state  $x$  (see [1], [2] for precise descriptions.) As such,  $L_t^x$  is supposed to give some indication of how much time before  $t$  the process  $X$  spends in the vicinity of  $x$ . In special cases,  $L_t^x$  admits representation as a limit of quantities that measure in some more direct way the amount of time spent near  $x$ . For example, if  $B_n$  is a sequence of neighborhoods of  $x$  with  $\cap B_n = x$ , then it often turns out that

$$L_t^x = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [\mu(B_n)]^{-1} \int_0^t I_{B_n}[X(s)] ds$$

(see Griego, [6]) so that  $L_t^x$  is a limit of 'occupation times' averaged over smaller and smaller neighborhoods of  $x$ . (Here  $I_B$  is the indicator of  $B$ ,  $\mu$  is Lebesgue measure.) For certain diffusion processes, it is known that  $L_t^0 = \lim_{\varepsilon \downarrow 0} \varepsilon d_\varepsilon(t)$ , where  $d_\varepsilon(t)$  is the number of times the real valued process crosses down from  $\varepsilon > 0$  to 0 before time  $t$  (this result, conjectured by Lévy [8], was proved by Ito and McKean [7]). Finally, Blumenthal and Gettoor ([1], see also [5]) showed that under fairly general circumstances, if  $X$  has a reference measure  $\xi$ , then an appropriate choice of the local time  $L_t^x$  could serve as a density for occupation time, in the sense that for every Borel set  $B$ ,  $\int_0^t I_B[X(s)] ds = \int_B L_t^x \xi(dx)$  a.s. In this paper, a new description of  $L_t^0$ , valid for a wide class of real valued Markov processes, is found which describes  $L_t^0$  more or less in terms of 'the number of times' the process 'jumps across zero.'

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While the basic theorem of this paper can be formulated for quite general Markov processes (see section 2), the character of this result is most easily illustrated by a few special cases. Let  $X = \{X(t), t \geq 0\}$  be a real valued process with stationary independent increments and Lévy measure  $\nu$ . Let  $J_n(t)$  be the number of jumps  $j(X, s) = X(s) - X(s-)$  before time  $t$  for which  $X(s-) < 0 < X(s)$  and  $2^{-n-1} < j(X, s) < 2^{-n}$ . So  $J_n(t)$  is the 'number of (upward) jumps across 0 having size in  $(2^{-n-1}, 2^{-n})$ '. Assume that  $\nu(\mathbb{R}) = \infty$ , that 0 is regular for  $\{0\}$ , and that  $L_t^x$  is jointly continuous in  $(x, t)$ . Then (theorem 3.2) there is a version  $l_t^0$  of the local time at 0 (see section 2 for the precise description) such that for each  $T$ ,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |J_n(t)/F_n - l_t^0| = 0 \quad \text{a.s.}$$

provided  $\Sigma[1/F_n] < \infty$ , where  $F_n = \int_{2^{-n-1}}^{2^{-n}} x \nu(dx)$ . This result is very close in spirit to the result of Ito and McKean mentioned above. An illustration is the case where  $X$  is a stable process with index  $\alpha$ ,  $1 < \alpha < 2$ , in which case  $J_n(t)/2^{n(\alpha-1)}$  converges a.s. to  $cl_t^0$  uniformly, where  $c$  is a known constant. The basic result of section 2 also yields theorems of the following type. Let  $X$  be again a stable process with index  $\alpha$ ,  $1 < \alpha < 2$ , and set  $Q_\varepsilon(t) = \sum_{s \leq t} |X(s) - X(s-)|$ , where the prime indicates that the sum is over all  $s \leq t$  for which  $X(s-) < 0 < X(s)$  and  $|X(s) - X(s-)| < \varepsilon$ . Thus  $Q_\varepsilon(t)$  is the sum up to time  $t$  of all the upward jumps across 0 which have magnitude at most  $\varepsilon$ . Then for stable  $X$  with  $1 < \alpha < 2$  (see theorem 3.1),

$$\begin{aligned} \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} P\left\{ \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |Q_\varepsilon(t)/\varepsilon^{2-\alpha} - cl_t^0| > \delta \right\} &= 0 \\ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |Q_{2^{-n}}(t)/2^{n(\alpha-2)} - cl_t^0| &= 0 \quad \text{a.s.} \end{aligned}$$

for all  $\delta > 0$ , and  $T > 0$ .

Section 2 contains the statement and proof of the basic result, while section 3 presents a number of applications to processes with independent increments. The terminology referring to the theory of Markov processes will be that of [2].

## 2. Main result

Let  $X = \{X(t), t \geq 0\}$  be a standard, real valued Markov process. Let  $T_x = \inf\{t > 0 : X(t) = x\}$ , and assume from now on that each  $x$  is regular for itself. Define for  $\alpha > 0$

$$(2.1) \quad \psi^\alpha(x, y) = E^x[\exp\{-\alpha T_y\}]$$

According to the theory of Blumenthal and Gettoor [2], there is for each

$x$  a continuous additive functional  $\{L_t^x, t \geq 0\}$ , the local time at  $x$ , satisfying

$$(2.2) \quad E^x \int_0^\infty e^{-t} dL_t^y = \psi^1(x, y),$$

so that in particular  $E^x \int_0^\infty e^{-t} dL_t^x = 1$ . Assume from now on that  $\psi^1(x, y)$  is jointly Borel measurable, and that there is a reference measure  $\zeta$  for the process  $X$ . If  $U^\alpha$  is the usual operator  $U^\alpha f(x) = E^x \int_0^\infty e^{-\alpha t} f[X(t)] dt$ , then under the preceding assumptions Gettoor and Kesten [5] have proved the following result which will be stated as a lemma for the convenience of the reader.

LEMMA 2.1 *There is a strictly positive finite Borel function  $g$  on  $R$  such that  $l_t^x(\omega)$  defined by  $l_t^x(\omega) = g(x)L_t^x(\omega)$  satisfies a.s.*

$$(2.3) \quad \int_0^t I_B[X(s)] ds = \int_B l_t^x(\omega) \zeta(dx)$$

for all  $t \geq 0$  and Borel sets  $B$  simultaneously. Define for each  $\alpha > 0$ ,  $u^\alpha(x, y) = g(y) E^x \int_0^\infty e^{-\alpha t} dL_t^y$ . Then

$$(2.4) \quad U^\alpha f(x) = \int u^\alpha(x, y) f(y) \zeta(dy) \text{ for all Borel } f \geq 0$$

$$(2.5) \quad u^1(y, y) = g(y)$$

$$(2.6) \quad u^\alpha(x, y) = E^x \int_0^\infty e^{-\alpha t} dL_t^y$$

$$(2.7) \quad \psi^1(x, y) = u^1(x, y)/u^1(y, y).$$

Since a reference measure is assumed throughout this section, there exists, according to the theory of S. Watanabe [13], a Lévy system  $(N, A)$  for the process  $X$ . Here  $N(x, dy)$  is a non-negative kernel such that for each  $x \in R$ ,  $N(x, \cdot)$  is a measure on the Borel sets of  $R$  and for each Borel set  $B$ ,  $N(\cdot, B)$  is a Borel function.  $A = \{A(t), t \geq 0\}$  is a finite, continuous additive functional having the following property: for every non-negative Borel function  $f$  on  $R \times R$  vanishing on the diagonal

$$(2.8) \quad E^x \sum_{s \leq t} f[X(s-), X(s)] = E^x \int_0^t Nf[X(s)] dA(s)$$

where  $Nf(x) = \int N(x, dy) f(x, y)$ . For simplicity, assume from now on that  $A(t) = t$ . This may always be achieved by a time change if necessary (see, for example [11]); in the case of processes with independent increments one may always take  $A(t) = t$ , as can be verified directly.

For the remainder of this section assume

$$(2.9) \quad \gamma(x) = [1 - \psi^1(x, 0)\psi^1(0, x)]^{+(\frac{1}{2})} \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow 0$$

$$(2.10) \quad u^1(x, x) \rightarrow u^1(0, 0) \text{ as } x \rightarrow 0.$$

The following theorem is the main result of this section.

**THEOREM 2.1.** *Let  $X = \{X(t), t \geq 0\}$  be a standard, real valued Markov process. Assume that there is a reference measure  $\xi$ , that each point of the state space is regular for itself, that  $\psi^1(x, y)$  is jointly Borel measurable, and that the additive functional  $A$  of the Lévy system  $(N, A)$  satisfies  $A(t) = t$ . For all sufficiently small  $\varepsilon$  or only for  $\varepsilon \downarrow 0$  through a sequence, let  $f_\varepsilon(x, y)$  be a non-negative Borel function vanishing on the diagonal such that there exists a compact interval  $I(\varepsilon) = [a(\varepsilon), b(\varepsilon)]$  containing 0 and such that  $Nf_\varepsilon(x) = 0$  outside  $I(\varepsilon)$ . Assume  $a(\varepsilon) \rightarrow 0$  and  $b(\varepsilon) \rightarrow 0$  as  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ , and that*

$$F(\varepsilon) = \int Nf_\varepsilon(x)\xi(dx) = \int_{I(\varepsilon)} Nf_\varepsilon(x)\xi(dx)$$

satisfies  $0 < F(\varepsilon) < \infty$ . Assume (2.9) and (2.10). Finally, define

$$G(\varepsilon) = \int Nf_\varepsilon^2(x)\xi(dx) \quad \text{and}$$

$$Q_\varepsilon(t) = \sum_{s \leq t} f_\varepsilon[X(s-), X(s)].$$

Then the following conclusions hold.

1. If  $\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} G(\varepsilon)/[F(\varepsilon)]^2 = 0$ , then

$$(2.11) \quad \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} P^0 \left\{ \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |Q_\varepsilon(t)/F(\varepsilon) - I_t^0| > \delta \right\} = 0$$

for each  $T$  and each  $\delta > 0$ .

2. If  $\{I_t^x\}$  is jointly continuous in  $(t, x)$  near 0 and if  $\{\varepsilon_n, n \geq 1\}$  is a sequence decreasing to 0 such that  $\sum_{n \geq 1} G(\varepsilon_n)/[F(\varepsilon_n)]^2 < \infty$ , then

$$(2.12) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |Q_{\varepsilon_n}(t)/F(\varepsilon_n) - I_t^0| = 0 \quad \text{a.s.}$$

for each  $T$ .

**REMARK.** If  $u^1(x, x)$  is continuous as a function of  $x$ , then it follows from lemma 2.1 that  $I_t^x$  will be jointly continuous in  $(t, x)$  if and only if  $L_t^x$  is jointly continuous. Conditions guaranteeing joint continuity of  $L_t^x$  have been given recently by Gettoor and Kesten [5].

Before proceeding with the proof, note that, under the assumptions of theorem 2.1, Lemma 2.1 permits the following conclusion.

**LEMMA 2.2.** *Let  $h(x)$  be a non-negative, finite Borel function. Then  $A(t) = \int_0^t h[X(s)]ds$  and  $B(t) = \int I_t^x h(x)\xi(dx)$  are equivalent stochastic processes.*

PROOF. It suffices to assume  $h$  bounded. Let  $u_A^\alpha$  and  $u_B^\alpha$  be the  $\alpha$  potentials of  $A$  and  $B$  respectively. Then from (2.4),

$$\begin{aligned} u_A^1(x) &\stackrel{\text{def}}{=} E^x \int_0^\infty e^{-t} dA(t) \\ &= E^x \int_0^\infty e^{-t} h[X(s)] ds \\ &= U^1 h(x) = \int u^1(x, y) h(y) \xi(dy), \end{aligned}$$

and from (2.6)

$$\begin{aligned} u_B^1(x) &= E^x \int_0^\infty e^{-t} dB(t) \\ &= \int u^1(x, y) h(y) \xi(dy). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $A$  and  $B$  are continuous additive functionals having the same bounded 1-potentials, the conclusion follows (see [2], p. 157).

The proof of theorem 2.1 has the following structure. In the terminology of Meyer [10], the process  $Q_\varepsilon(t)$  is increasing but not natural. By Meyer's decomposition theorem for supermartingales, there is a unique natural increasing process  $V_\varepsilon(t)$  such that  $Q_\varepsilon(t) - V_\varepsilon(t)$  is a martingale. The limit results on  $Q_\varepsilon(t)$  are then deduced by analysing  $V_\varepsilon(t)$  and the martingale separately.

PROOF OF THEOREM 2.1. First, observe that from 2.2

$$1 \geq E^y \int_0^T e^{-t} dL_t^x \geq e^{-T} E^y L_T^x,$$

so that

$$(2.13) \quad E^y L_T^x \leq e^T \quad \text{for every } T,$$

and from lemma 2.1

$$(2.14) \quad E^y l_T^x \leq u^1(x, x) E^y L_T^x \leq u^1(x, x) e^T.$$

Let  $V_\varepsilon(t) = \int_0^t Nf_\varepsilon[X(s)] ds$ . From lemma 2.2,  $V_\varepsilon(t) = \int l_t^x Nf_\varepsilon(x) \xi(dx)$ , and from (2.14),  $E^y V_\varepsilon(t) = \int E^y(l_t^x) Nf_\varepsilon(x) \xi(dx) \leq e^t \int u^1(x, x) Nf_\varepsilon(x) \xi(dx)$ . By assumption (2.10),  $u^1(x, x) \rightarrow u^1(0, 0)$  as  $x \rightarrow 0$ , so  $u^1(x, x)$  is bounded for  $x$  near 0. Thus for  $\varepsilon$  small, and all  $y$ ,

$$E^y V_\varepsilon(t) \leq M e^t \int Nf_\varepsilon(x) \xi(dx) < \infty$$

for some constant  $M$ . Observe that  $Q_\varepsilon(t)$  is an additive functional and  $V_\varepsilon$  is a continuous additive functional. It then follows from (2.8) that

$$(2.15) \quad M_\varepsilon(t) = Q_\varepsilon(t) - V_\varepsilon(t)$$

is an additive functional with mean zero, and so must be a martingale relative to each  $P^y$ .

Define  $\mu^\varepsilon(dx) = Nf_\varepsilon(x)\xi(dx)/F(\varepsilon)$ . By the assumptions of theorem 2.1,  $\mu^\varepsilon$  is a probability measure carried by  $I(\varepsilon)$ , and  $\mu^\varepsilon$  converges weakly to unit mass at 0. Moreover,

$$V_\varepsilon(t)/F(\varepsilon) = \int I_t^x \mu^\varepsilon(dx),$$

and

$$\sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |V_\varepsilon(t)/F(\varepsilon) - I_t^0| \leq \int \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |I_t^x - I_t^0| \mu^\varepsilon(dx).$$

If, as in case (2),  $I_t^x$  is jointly continuous in  $(t, x)$ , then for almost all  $\omega$ ,  $\sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |I_t^x - I_t^0| \rightarrow 0$  as  $x \rightarrow 0$  by uniform continuity, implying that  $\sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |V_\varepsilon(t)/F(\varepsilon) - I_t^0| \rightarrow 0$  a.s. in this case. To treat case 1, recall that according to a result of Meyer ([9], see also [2], V.3)

$$P^0 \left\{ \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |L_t^x - L_t^0| > 2\delta \right\} \leq 2e^T e^{-\delta/\gamma(x)},$$

where  $\gamma(x)$  was defined in (2.9). By virtue of the formula

$$E|Y| = \int_0^\infty P\{|Y| > s\} ds, \quad E^0 \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |L_t^x - L_t^0| \leq 4e^T \gamma(x).$$

Since (see lemma 2.1)

$$\begin{aligned} I_t^x - I_t^0 &= u^1(x, x)L_t^x - u^1(0, 0)L_t^0 \\ &= u^1(x, x)[L_t^x - L_t^0] - L_t^0[u^1(x, x) - u^1(0, 0)], \end{aligned}$$

it follows from (2.13) and the calculation above that

$$(2.16) \quad E^0 \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |I_t^x - I_t^0| \leq u^1(x, x)4e^T \gamma(x) + e^T [u^1(x, x) - u^1(0, 0)].$$

Hence

$$\begin{aligned} E^0 \left\{ \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |V_\varepsilon(t)/F(\varepsilon) - I_t^0| \right\} &\leq \int E^0 \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |I_t^x - I_t^0| \mu^\varepsilon(dx) \\ &\leq 4e^T \int u^1(x, x)\gamma(x)\mu^\varepsilon(dx) + e^T \int [u^1(x, x) - u^1(0, 0)]\mu_\varepsilon(dx). \end{aligned}$$

By assumptions (2.9), (2.10) the integrands above are continuous at 0 and are equal to 0 there. Since  $\mu_\varepsilon(dx)$  converges weakly to unit mass at 0, this completes the treatment of  $V_\varepsilon(t)$  in both case 1 and case 2.

Turning next to the martingale  $M_\varepsilon(t)$ , observe that a fundamental fact on Lévy systems (S. Watanabe [13], p. 63, eq. 3.11) implies that

$$(2.17) \quad E^x M_\varepsilon^2(T) = E^x \int_0^T N f_\varepsilon^2[X(s)] ds.$$

Since  $M_\varepsilon$  is a martingale, this together with the well-known martingale inequality of Doob ([4], p. 317) yields

$$\begin{aligned} E^0 \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} [M_\varepsilon(t)]^2 &\leq 4E^0[M_\varepsilon(T)]^2 \\ &= 4E^0 \int_0^T N f_\varepsilon^2[X(s)] ds \\ &= 4E^0 \int l_T^x N f_\varepsilon^2(x) \zeta(dx) \quad (\text{by lemma 2.2}) \\ &\leq M e^T \int N f_\varepsilon^2(x) \zeta(dx) \quad (\text{if } \varepsilon \text{ is sufficiently small}) \\ &= M e^T G(\varepsilon). \end{aligned}$$

Since by hypothesis  $\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} {}_0G(\varepsilon)/[F(\varepsilon)]^2 = 0$  in case 1, it follows that  $\sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} M_\varepsilon(t)/[F(\varepsilon)]^2 \rightarrow 0$  in probability. In case 2, since

$$E^0 \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} [M_\varepsilon(t)/F(\varepsilon)]^2 < \text{const. } G(\varepsilon)/[F(\varepsilon)]^2$$

and  $\Sigma G(\varepsilon_n)/[F(\varepsilon_n)]^2 < \infty$ , a Borel Cantelli argument shows

$$\sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} M_{\varepsilon_n}(t)/F(\varepsilon_n) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{a.s.}$$

This completes the proof of theorem 2.1.

### 3. Processes with stationary independent increments

Theorem 2.1 yields a number of interesting results when  $X = \{X(t), t \geq 0\}$  is a process with independent increments. This section contains several of these applications.

Throughout this section, let  $X = \{X(t), t \geq 0\}$  be a real valued process with stationary independent increments having right continuous paths with left limits. Of course,  $E^0 e^{iuX(t)} = \exp\{-t\phi(u)\}$  where

$$\phi(u) = iau + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)Su^2 + \int_R \{1 - e^{iux} + iux/[1+x^2]\} \nu(dx).$$

The measure  $\nu$  is called the Lévy measure, and  $\phi$  is called the exponent of  $X$ . Assume throughout that 0 is regular for itself; in the present circumstances this implies that each  $x$  is regular for  $\{x\}$ . Precise conditions under which 0 is regular for  $\{0\}$  may be found in [3]. Assume also from now on that  $\nu(R) = \infty$ . (If  $\nu(R) < \infty$ , then it is obvious that it is impossible to represent local time (when it exists) as a limit of quantities depending only on the jumps about 0).



Under the last two assumptions, it is known ([3], [12]) that for each  $\alpha > 0$  there exists a real, bounded, continuous function  $u^\alpha(x)$  such that  $U^\alpha f(x) = \int f(y)u^\alpha(y-x)dy$  for all bounded Borel  $f$ , and satisfying  $u^\alpha(x) = u^\alpha(0)\psi^\alpha(0, x)$ . It follows from this that Lebesgue measure is a reference measure and, in the notation of section 2,  $u^\alpha(x, y) = u^\alpha(y-x)$ ; see [5] for more detail on this point. Since there is a reference measure, a Lévy system  $(N, A)$  exists which, in fact is given by  $N(x, dy) = v(dy-x)$ ,  $A(t) = t$ . Actually, for the case of processes with independent increments one may show directly that this is a Lévy system for  $X$  even when there is no reference measure. It is clear that  $\psi^1(x, y) = \psi^1(0, y-x)$  is jointly Borel measurable in  $(x, y)$  in the present case ( $\psi^1(0, z)$  is continuous in  $z$ ). Since  $\psi^1(x, y) = u^1(y-x)/u^1(0)$ , it follows again from the continuity of  $u^1(\cdot)$  that  $\lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \psi^1(x, 0) = \lim_{x \rightarrow 0} \psi^1(0, x) = u^1(0)/u^1(0) = 1$ , so (2.9) holds. Finally, since  $u^1(x, x) = u^1(0)$ , (2.10) holds trivially and so all assumptions of section 2 are satisfied by a real valued process with stationary independent increments having 0 regular for  $\{0\}$  and  $v(R) = \infty$ .

For theorem 3.1, let  $F(\varepsilon) = F(g, \varepsilon) = \int_0^\varepsilon \int_x^\varepsilon g(y)v(dy)dx$ , where  $g$  is a non-negative Borel function on  $(0, \infty)$ , bounded on finite intervals. If  $0 < \delta < \varepsilon$ , an integration by parts yields

$$\int_{\delta}^{\varepsilon} xg(x)v(dx) = \delta \int_{\delta}^{\varepsilon} g(x)v(dx) + \int_{\delta}^{\varepsilon} \int_x^{\varepsilon} g(y)v(dy)dx = \delta K(\delta) + \int_{\delta}^{\varepsilon} K(x)dx$$

where  $K(x) = \int_x^\varepsilon g(y)v(dy)$  is a function that increases as  $x$  decreases. If  $\delta \downarrow 0$  and  $\int_0^\varepsilon xg(x)v(dx) < \infty$ , then it follows, since all terms above are positive, that  $\int_0^\varepsilon K(x)dx < \infty$  and  $\lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \delta K(\delta)$  exists. Since

$$\infty > \int_0^\delta K(x)dx \geq K(\delta)\delta,$$

it follows that  $\lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \delta K(\delta) = 0$ . Hence, if  $\int_0^\varepsilon xg(x)v(dx) < \infty$ , then  $\infty > \int_0^\varepsilon \int_x^\varepsilon g(y)v(dy)dx = \int_0^\varepsilon xg(x)v(dx)$ . Conversely it is not hard to see that if  $F(\varepsilon) < \infty$ , then  $\infty > \int_0^\varepsilon xg(x)v(dx) = F(\varepsilon)$ .

**THEOREM 3.1** *Assume  $0 < F(\varepsilon) = \int_0^\varepsilon xg(x)v(dx) < \infty$ , and define  $G(\varepsilon) = \int_0^\varepsilon x[g(x)]^2v(dx)$ . Let  $Q_\varepsilon(t) = \sum_{s \leq t}' g(|j(X, s)|)$  where the prime means that the sum is over only those jumps  $j(X, s) = X(s) - X(s-)$  for which  $X(s-) < 0 < X(s)$  and  $|j(X, s)| < \varepsilon$ . Then:*

(a) *If  $\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} G(\varepsilon)/[F(\varepsilon)]^2 = 0$ , then*

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} P\{ \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |Q_\varepsilon(t)/F(\varepsilon) - l_t^0| > \delta \} = 0$$

*for every  $T > 0$  and  $\delta > 0$ .*

(b) *If  $l_t^x$  is jointly continuous in  $(t, x)$  and if  $\{\varepsilon_n, n \geq 1\}$  is a positive sequence converging to zero such that  $\Sigma G(\varepsilon_n)/[F(\varepsilon_n)]^2 < \infty$ , then*

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |Q_{\varepsilon_n}(t)/F(\varepsilon_n) - l_t^0| = 0 \quad \text{a.s.}$$

Conditions guaranteeing joint continuity of  $l_t^x$  can be found in [5]. A large number of functions  $g$  satisfy the hypothesis that  $F(\varepsilon) < \infty$ ; in particular  $g(x) = |x|$  always works, since  $\int_{|x| < 1} |x|^2 \nu(dx) < \infty$  for any Lévy measure  $\nu$ . As a special case, suppose  $X$  is a stable process with index  $\alpha$ ,  $1 < \alpha < 2$ . Then the exponent is of the form

$$(3.1) \quad \phi(u) = c_1 \int_0^\infty [e^{iux} - 1 + iux/(1+x^2)] x^{-\alpha-1} dx \\ + c_2 \int_{-\infty}^0 [e^{iux} - 1 + iux/(1+x^2)] |x|^{-\alpha-1} dx.$$

where  $c_1 \geq 0$ ,  $c_2 \geq 0$ ,  $c_1 + c_2 > 0$ . Suppose  $c_1 > 0$  for convenience. If  $g(x) = |x|$ , then  $F(\varepsilon) = c\varepsilon^{2-\alpha}$ , where  $c = c_1(2-\alpha)^{-1}$ , and

$$G(\varepsilon)/[F(\varepsilon)]^2 = \text{const. } \varepsilon^{\alpha-1}.$$

Then, as mentioned in the introduction,  $\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} Q_\varepsilon(t)/\varepsilon^{2-\alpha} = cl_t^0$  in probability, uniformly on compact intervals and

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} Q_{2^{-n}}(t)/2^{-n(2-\alpha)} = cl_t^0 \quad \text{a.s.,}$$

uniformly on compact intervals. (That  $l_t^x$  is jointly continuous in the stable case is well-known - see [2] and the references there.) As another example, the asymmetric Cauchy processes are interesting to consider. Here the exponent  $\phi$  is of the form (3.1) with  $\alpha = 1$  and  $c_1 \neq c_2$ . Assume  $c_1 > 0$  (if not, then one can establish the result below for  $-X$  instead.) It was proved by Kesten and Gettoor that no jointly continuous version of the local time exists for the asymmetric Cauchy processes ([5], example  $b$ , section 4). Choose  $g$  of theorem 3.1 to be

$$g(u) = [(-\log|u|) \vee 0]^a.$$

Then for sufficiently small  $\varepsilon$ ,

$$F(\varepsilon) = c_1 \int_0^\varepsilon (-\log x)^a x^{-1} dx = [-c_1/(a+1)](-\log \varepsilon)^{a+1} < \infty$$

if  $a < -1$

and

$$G(\varepsilon) = c_1 \int_0^\varepsilon (-\log x)^{2a} x^{-1} dx = -[c_1/(2a+1)](-\log \varepsilon)^{2a+1}.$$

Thus  $G(\varepsilon)/[F(\varepsilon)]^2 = [(a+1)^2/(2a+1)](1/-\log \varepsilon) \rightarrow 0$  as  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ , so a limit theorem continues to hold even in this singular case.

**PROOF OF THEOREM 3.1.** Let  $f_\varepsilon(x, y) = g(|x-y|)I\{x < 0 < y; 0 < y-x < \varepsilon\}$ , where  $I\{A\}$  is the indicator of the set  $A$ . Then  $Q_\varepsilon(t) = \sum_{s \leq t} f_\varepsilon[X(s-), X(s)]$ . In the notation of theorem 2.1,

$$Nf_\varepsilon(x) = \int_{-x}^{\varepsilon} g(u)v(du) \text{ if } x \in [-\varepsilon, 0] \text{ and } Nf_\varepsilon(x) = 0, x \notin [-\varepsilon, 0].$$

Also,

$$\begin{aligned} \int Nf_\varepsilon(x)dx &= \int_{-\varepsilon}^0 dx \int_{-x}^{\varepsilon} g(u)v(du) = \int_0^{\varepsilon} dx \int_x^{\varepsilon} g(u)v(du) \\ &= \int_0^{\varepsilon} xg(x)v(dx) = F(\varepsilon). \end{aligned}$$

Similarly

$$\int Nf_\varepsilon^2(x)dx = \int_0^{\varepsilon} x[g(x)]^2v(dx) = G(\varepsilon).$$

The result now follows from theorem 2.1.

Next, consider the following choice of  $f_\varepsilon : f_\varepsilon(x, y) = I\{x < 0 < y; \lambda(\varepsilon)\varepsilon < y-x < \varepsilon\}$ , where  $0 < \lambda(\varepsilon) < 1$ . Then

$$J_\varepsilon(t) = \sum_{s \leq t} f_\varepsilon[X(s-), X(s)]$$

is equal to the number of jumps  $j(X, s) = X(s) - X(s-)$  across 0 up to time  $t$  for which  $\varepsilon\lambda(\varepsilon) < j(X, s) < \varepsilon$ . Here

$$\begin{aligned} Nf_\varepsilon(x) &= \int v(dy) f_\varepsilon(x, y+x) \\ &= \begin{cases} v[(-x, \varepsilon)], & -\varepsilon < x < -\varepsilon\lambda(\varepsilon) \\ v[(\varepsilon\lambda(\varepsilon), \varepsilon)], & -\varepsilon\lambda(\varepsilon) < x < 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} \int Nf_\varepsilon(x)dx &= \int_{-\varepsilon}^0 Nf_\varepsilon(x)dx \\ &= \int_{\varepsilon\lambda(\varepsilon)}^{\varepsilon} v[(x, \varepsilon)]dx + \varepsilon\lambda(\varepsilon)v[(\varepsilon\lambda(\varepsilon), \varepsilon)] \\ &= \int_{\varepsilon\lambda(\varepsilon)}^{\varepsilon} xv(dx) = F(\varepsilon), \end{aligned}$$

since  $f_\varepsilon = f_\varepsilon^2$ ,  $\int Nf_\varepsilon^2 = \int Nf_\varepsilon = F(\varepsilon)$  in this case. An application of theorem 2.1 to the preceding calculations then yields the following result.

**THEOREM 3.2.** Let  $\lambda$  be a function such that  $0 < \lambda(\varepsilon) < 1$  for all  $\varepsilon$  and define  $F(\varepsilon) = F(\lambda, \varepsilon) = \int_{\varepsilon\lambda(\varepsilon)}^{\varepsilon} xv(dx)$ . Let  $J_\varepsilon(t)$  be the number of jumps up to time  $t$  for which  $X(s-) < 0 < X(s)$  and  $\varepsilon\lambda(\varepsilon) < X(s) - X(s-) < \varepsilon$ .

(a) If  $\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} F(\varepsilon) = \infty$ , then

$$\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} P\left\{ \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |J_\varepsilon(t)/F(\varepsilon) - l_t^0| > \delta \right\} = 0.$$

(b) If  $l_t^x$  is jointly continuous in  $(x, t)$  and if  $\varepsilon_n$  is a positive sequence converging to zero such that  $\sum_{n \geq 1} [1/F(\varepsilon_n)] < \infty$  then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |J_{\varepsilon_n}(t)/F(\varepsilon_n) - l_t^0| = 0 \quad \text{a.s.}$$

Let  $X$  be a stable process with index  $\alpha$ ,  $1 < \alpha < 2$ , and exponent (3.1) with  $c_1 > 0$ , and let  $J_n(t)$  be the number of upward jumps across 0 up to time  $t$  having size  $(2^{-n-1}, 2^{-n})$ . According to theorem 3.2b,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |J_n(t)/2^{n(\alpha-1)} - c_1 l_t^0| = 0 \quad \text{a.s.}$$

where  $c = c_1(2^{\alpha-1} - 1)/(\alpha - 1)$ , as mentioned in the introduction. (Take  $\varepsilon_n = 2^{-n}$  and  $\lambda(2^{-n}) = (\frac{1}{2})$  for all  $n$ .) If  $X$  is an asymmetric Cauchy process,  $F(\varepsilon) = c_1 \int_{\varepsilon \lambda(\varepsilon)}^{\varepsilon} x^{-1} dx = -c_1 \log \lambda(\varepsilon)$ . If  $\lambda(\varepsilon) \rightarrow 0$  as  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$ , then  $\lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0} F(\varepsilon) = +\infty$ . Hence from theorem 3.2a,

$$\sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |J_\varepsilon(t)/[-\log \lambda(\varepsilon)] - c_1 l_t^0| \rightarrow 0$$

in probability. Again a limit theorem continues to hold in the singular Cauchy case.

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