## MOMENTS OF RANDOM VECTORS WHICH BELONG TO SOME DOMAIN OF NORMAL ATTRACTION

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Let X be a random vector on  $\mathbb{R}^k$  whose distribution  $\mu$  belongs to the domain of normal attraction of some operator stable law  $\nu$ . For a given  $\nu$  it has been shown elsewhere that for certain ranges of  $\alpha$  depending on  $\nu$ , either  $E|\langle X,\theta \rangle|^{\alpha}$  is finite for every  $\theta \neq 0$  or is infinite for every  $\theta \neq 0$ . In this paper we show that the set of  $\alpha$  for which  $E|\langle X,\theta \rangle|^{\alpha}$  exists depends, in general, on both  $\theta$  and  $\nu$ , and we obtain a complete description of the cases in which  $E|\langle X,\theta \rangle|^{\alpha}$  can be guaranteed either to exist or to diverge, just on the basis of  $\theta$  and  $\nu$ .

1. Introduction. Let  $\mu, \nu$  denote probability distributions on  $\mathbb{R}^k$  and suppose that  $\nu$  is full, i.e., it cannot be supported on any (k-1) dimensional affine subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . If B is a linear operator on  $\mathbb{R}^k$  we denote by  $t^B$  the operator  $\exp(B \log t)$ . We say that  $\mu$  belongs to the domain of normal attraction of  $\nu$  if for a sequence of independent random vectors  $\{X_n\}$  with common distribution  $\mu$  there exists a linear operator B and constants  $b_n \in \mathbb{R}^k$  such that

(1.1) 
$$n^{-B}(X_1 + \cdots + X_n) - b_n \Rightarrow Y,$$

where Y is a random vector with distribution  $\nu$  and  $\Rightarrow$  denotes convergence in distribution. In this case Y (or  $\nu$ ) is operator stable with exponent B. That is to say, equation (1.1) holds with equality replacing weak convergence and  $\mu = \nu$ .

Suppose now that X belongs to the domain of normal attraction of Y. In this paper we are concerned with the existence of absolute moments  $E|\langle X,\theta\rangle|^{\alpha}$ . Let B be an exponent of Y and define  $m=\min\{\operatorname{Re}(\lambda)\}$ ,  $M=\max\{\operatorname{Re}(\lambda)\}$ , where  $\lambda$  ranges over the eigenvalues of B. Sharpe (1969) showed that  $m\geq \frac{1}{2}$ . The following result was obtained independently by Hudson, Veeh and Weiner (1988) and Meerschaert (1986).

THEOREM A. For all nonzero  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^k$ ,  $E|\langle X, \theta \rangle|^{\alpha}$  is finite for all  $0 < \alpha < 1/M$  and, if  $m > \frac{1}{2}$ , then  $E|\langle X, \theta \rangle|^{\alpha} = \infty$  for all  $\alpha > 1/m$ .

This leaves open the existence question for  $\alpha$  between 1/m and 1/M. In this paper we will settle the existence question via an extension of the approach employed in Meerschaert (1986). We will define an index function  $\alpha^*(\theta)$  based on the spectral properties of B such that the following holds:

THEOREM 1. Suppose that X belongs to the domain of normal attraction of Y operator stable with exponent B. Define  $\alpha^*$  as in (2.5). Then for all  $\theta \neq 0$  in

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 $\mathbb{R}^k$  we have:

(a) If  $\alpha^*(\theta) \neq 2$ , then  $E|\langle X, \theta \rangle|^{\alpha}$  is finite for  $0 < \alpha < \alpha^*(\theta)$  and infinite for  $\alpha \geq \alpha^*(\theta)$ .

(b) If 
$$\alpha^*(\theta) = 2$$
, then  $E|\langle X, \theta \rangle|^{\alpha} < \infty$  for  $0 < \alpha \le \alpha^*(\theta)$ .

If  $\alpha^*(\theta) = 2$  and  $\alpha > 2$ , then  $E|\langle X, \theta \rangle|^{\alpha}$  will be finite for some X attracted to Y and infinite for others. In connection with Theorem A, we have that 1/m and 1/M are, respectively, the maximum and minimum values of  $\alpha^*$ . Since every eigenvalue of an operator stable exponent has a real part equal to or exceeding  $\frac{1}{2}$ , we will always have  $0 < \alpha^*(\theta) \le 2$ .

**2. Operator stable laws and exponents.** Operator stable laws were characterized by Sharpe (1969). In view of (1.1), an operator stable law  $\nu$  must be infinitely divisible with Lévy representation  $(a, Q, \phi)$ . If we let  $\nu^t$  denote the t-fold convolution product of  $\nu$  with itself and if B is an exponent of  $\nu$ , then for all t > 0,

$$(2.1) v^t = t^B \nu * \delta(b_t),$$

where  $t^B v\{dx\} = v\{t^{-B} dx\}$  and  $\delta(a)$  is the unit mass at  $a \in \mathbb{R}^k$ . It follows that  $tQ(x) = Q(t^{B*}x)$  and  $t\phi = t^B\phi$ .

The collection of linear operators  $\{t^B: t>0\}$  is simply a reparametrization of a one-parameter subgroup of  $GL(\mathbb{R}^k)$ . The behavior of orbits  $\{t^Bx: t>0\}$  can be obtained easily by reference to standard results from the theory of linear differential equations in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . The following characterization of  $t^B$  has been so adapted from Hirsch and Smale (1974).

There is a basis  $b_1 \cdots b_k$  for  $\mathbb{R}^k$  with respect to which the matrix representing B has a block diagonal form, each block corresponding to either a single real eigenvalue a or a single complex conjugate pair  $a \pm ib$ . For a real eigenvalue the corresponding block has a's along the diagonal, 1's along the subdiagonal and zero entries elsewhere. For complex eigenvalues the same is true if we consider B as a linear operator on a complex vector space and associate complex numbers with  $2 \times 2$  matrices in the usual way.

Now it is simple to compute  $t^B$ . Because of the block diagonal form of B we obtain a direct sum decomposition of  $\mathbb{R}^k$  into B-invariant subspaces  $V_1 \cdots V_p$ . Let V denote one of these subspaces. Without loss of generality we have  $V = \operatorname{Span}\{b_1 \cdots b_n\}$ . Using the coordinates associated with the basis  $b_1 \cdots b_k$ , for x and y in V associated with a real eigenvalue a we have  $y = t^B x$  where

(2.2) 
$$y_i = t^a \sum_{q=0}^{i-1} (\log t)^q x_{i-q}/q!, \quad i = 1, ..., n.$$

For complex eigenvalues we associate V with a complex vector space  $z_j = x_j + iy_j$ ,  $w_j = u_j + iv_j$ . In this case dim V must be even, so without loss of general-

ity we can suppose that  $V = \operatorname{Span}\{b_1 \cdots b_{2n}\}$ . If  $w = t^B z$  we again have

(2.3) 
$$w_j = t^{a+ib} \sum_{q=0}^{j-1} (\log t)^q z_{j-q}/q!, \qquad j=1,\ldots,n,$$

or in real coordinates,

$$u_{i} = t^{a} \sum_{q=0}^{i-1} (\log t)^{q} \left[ x_{i-q} \cos(b \log t) - y_{i-q} \sin(b \log t) \right] / q!,$$

$$(2.4)$$

$$v_{i} = t^{a} \sum_{q=0}^{i-1} (\log t)^{q} \left[ y_{i-q} \cos(b \log t) + x_{i-q} \sin(b \log t) \right] / q!.$$

We will also be interested in  $t^{B*}$  where  $B^*$  is the transpose of B, i.e.,  $\langle x, By \rangle = \langle B^*x, y \rangle$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^k$ . If we form the dual basis  $f_1 \cdots f_k$   $(\langle b_i, f_j \rangle = 1 \text{ if } i = j \text{ and } 0 \text{ otherwise})$ , then the matrix of  $B^*$  with respect to the dual basis is just the transpose (interchange rows and columns) of the matrix for B with respect to  $b_1 \cdots b_k$ . If  $b_r \cdots b_s$  span  $V_j$ , then  $W_j = \operatorname{Span}\{f_r \cdots f_s\}$  is the dual space for  $V_j$ .  $W_j$  is  $B^*$  invariant and  $\mathbb{R}^k = W_1 \oplus \cdots \oplus W_p$ . The restriction of  $B^*$  to  $W_j$  has the same eigenvalue (or complex conjugate pair) as the restriction of B to  $V_i$ . Using the dual coordinates (the ones associated with  $f_1 \cdots f_k$ ) we obtain the same formulas (2.2) through (2.4) for  $t^{B^*}$  except that we sum from zero to n-i, where  $n=\dim V$ (real eigenvalue) or  $2n = \dim V$  (complex conjugate pair).

Let  $a_i$  denote the real part of the eigenvalue associated with  $V_j, W_j$ . For  $x \neq 0$  write  $x = x_1 + \cdots + x_p$  the unique direct sum decomposition with respect to  $\{V_j\}$  and  $x = x_1^* + \cdots + x_p^*$  the same with respect to  $\{W_j\}$ . Define

(2.5) 
$$\alpha(x) = \min\{1/a_j : x_j \neq 0\},$$
$$\alpha^*(x) = \min\{1/a_j : x_j^* \neq 0\}.$$

Let  $U_1$  denote the direct sum of all  $V_j$  with  $a_j = \frac{1}{2}$  and  $U_2$  the direct sum of the remaining  $V_i$ . Sharpe (1969) showed that the Lévy measure  $\phi$  of  $\nu$  is concentrated on  $U_2$  and cannot be supported on any proper subspace of  $U_2$ . Notice that  $x \neq 0$  is in  $U_1$  if and only if  $\alpha(x) = 2$ .

Now form the dual spaces  $U_j^*$  to  $U_j$  as above. Sharpe also showed that the quadratic form Q in the Lévy representation for  $\nu$  may be considered as an extension to  $\mathbb{R}^k$  of a positive definite quadratic form on  $U_1^*$ . Notice that  $x \neq 0$ is in  $U_1^*$  if and only if  $\alpha^*(x) = 2$ .

Now a consideration of the Lévy representation shows that the operator stable law  $\nu$  may be written as a convolution product of a full normal law on  $U_1$  and a full operator stable law on  $U_2$  having no normal component. Now let  $\pi_i$  denote the natural projection map onto  $U_i$ . If we write the direct sum representation  $x = x_1 + x_2$  with respect to  $U_1, U_2$ , then  $\pi_i(x) = x_i$ . Since  $\pi_1$  commutes with  $n^{-B}$  for all n we have that  $\pi_1 X$  belongs to the

domain of normal attraction of  $\pi_1 Y$ , which is nondegenerate normal on  $U_1$ .

Now for any  $\theta \in U_1^*$  we have  $\langle X, \theta \rangle = \langle \pi_1 X, \theta \rangle$ . Thus the question of existence of moments  $E|\langle X, \theta \rangle|^{\alpha}$  for  $\theta \in U_1^*$  can be reduced to the case of a normal limit.

**3. Regular variation.** A real-valued function R(t) defined for  $t \ge A$  is regularly varying if it is positive, Borel measurable and if for all  $\lambda > 0$ ,

(3.1) 
$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{R(\lambda t)}{R(t)} = \lambda^{\alpha}$$

for some real constant  $\alpha$  called the index of R. Our references on regular variation are Feller (1971) and Seneta (1976).

In order to express the path behavior of  $t^B$ , it will be convenient to use the Euclidean norm  $\|x\| = (x_1^2 + \cdots + x_k^2)^{1/2}$  where these are the coordinates associated with the basis  $b_1 \cdots b_k$  chosen in Section 2. Define  $R(t) = \|t^B x\|$ ,  $x \neq 0$ . It is not hard to check, using (2.2) through (2.4), that R(t) varies regularly with index  $1/\alpha(x)$ . By a result in Seneta (1976), page 21, there exists an asymptotic inverse function t, a regularly varying function with index  $\alpha(x)$  such that  $R(t(r)) \sim t(R(r)) \sim r$  as  $r \to \infty$ . In fact we can take  $t(r) = \inf\{t \colon R(t) \geq r\}$ .

With regard to  $t^{B^*} = \exp(B^* \log t)$  we will use the norm associated with the dual basis. For  $x \neq 0$ , we have once again that  $R^*(t) = ||t^{B^*}x||$  varies regularly with index  $1/\alpha^*(x)$ . The asymptotic inverse function  $t^*$  varies regularly with index  $\alpha^*(x) > 0$  and so  $t^*(r) \to \infty$  as  $r \to \infty$ .

Suppose now that  $\mu$ ,  $\nu$  are as in the Introduction, i.e.,  $\mu$  is in the domain of normal attraction of  $\nu$  operator stable. In order to study the tail behavior of  $\mu$  we will define  $f(x) = \mu(H_x)$ , where

$$(3.2) H_x = \{ y \in \mathbb{R}^k : |\langle x, y \rangle| > 1 \}.$$

We will also define  $g(x) = \phi(H_x)$ , where  $\phi$  is the Lévy measure of  $\nu$ . Notice that  $f(\theta/r) = \Pr\{|\langle X, \theta \rangle| > r\}$ .

Using the standard convergence criteria for triangular arrays of random vectors we obtain from (1.1) that  $n\mu\{n^B\,dx\}\to\phi\{dx\}$  in the sense of Lévy measures. It follows easily that  $t\mu\{t^B\,dx\}\to\phi\{dx\}$  and so for all  $x\neq 0$  for which  $\phi(\partial H_x)=0$  we have

(3.3) 
$$\lim_{t\to\infty} tf(t^{-B}x) = g(x).$$

A result due to Sharpe (1969) states that  $\phi$  is a mixture of Lévy measures M concentrated on a single orbit of  $t^B$ , with  $M\{t^Bx_0:t>r\}=1/r$ . From this it is not hard to show that (3.3) holds for all nonzero  $x\in\mathbb{R}^k$  and the convergence is uniform on relatively compact subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^k-\{0\}$ . [This same construction was used in Meerschaert (1986) in a more general context.]

Now, as above, let  $t^*$  denote the asymptotic inverse of  $R^*(t) = ||t^{B^*}x||$ . If we define  $\theta_r = t^*(r)^{B^*}(x/r)$ , then  $\{\theta_r\}$  is sequentially compact and, since  $||\theta_r|| = R^*(t^*(r))/r$ , every limit point is a unit vector in  $\mathbb{R}^k$ . If  $\alpha^*(x) < 2$ , then every limit point lies in the set  $U_2^*$ . On the other hand, if  $\alpha^*(x) = 2$  (i.e., if  $x \in U_1^*$ ), then  $\theta_r \in U_1^*$  and so  $g(\theta_r) = 0$  for all r > 0.

Consider the expression

(3.4) 
$$t^*(r) f(x/r) = t^*(r) f(t^*(r)^{-B^*}\theta_r).$$

For any fixed  $\varepsilon>0$ , in view of the uniform convergence in (3.3) we have that  $|t^*(r)f(x/r)-g(\theta_r)|<\varepsilon$  for all large r. If  $\alpha^*(x)=2$  this means that  $t^*(r)f(x/r)\to 0$ . Otherwise if  $\alpha^*(x)<2$ , then the fact that  $\phi$  is full on  $U_2$  means that g is bounded away from zero and infinity on compact sets in  $U_2^*-\{0\}$  and we have that

$$\{t^*(r) f(x/r) : r \ge r_0\}$$

is bounded away from zero and infinity. Thus we have tied the tail behavior of  $\mu$  to the growth rate of a regularly varying function.

Suppose that  $\alpha^*(x) < 2$ . Since  $t^*$  varies regularly with index  $\alpha^*(x)$ , we have for all  $\delta > 0$  that

(3.6) 
$$r^{\alpha^*(x)-\delta} < t^*(r) < r^{\alpha^*(x)+\delta}$$

for r sufficiently large. It follows that for all  $\varepsilon > 0$  there exists  $r_0 > 0$  such that for all  $r \ge r_0$ ,

$$(3.7) r^{-\alpha^*(x)-\varepsilon} < f(x/r) < r^{-\alpha^*(x)+\varepsilon}.$$

We can go further. Letting  $a=1/\alpha^*(x)$  we have that  $R^*(t)>ct^a(\log t)^j$  for some c>0 and some  $j\in\{0,1,2,\ldots,k-1\}$ . Since  $R^*(t)>(c-\varepsilon)t^a$  for t large we must have  $t^*(r)\leq Kr^{1/a}$  for r large. Thus we have for some m>0 that for some  $r_0>0$ , for all  $r\geq r_0$ ,

$$(3.8) f(x/r) \ge mr^{-\alpha^*(x)}.$$

We also note that for any  $\lambda_0 > 1$  sufficiently large we can choose  $r_0 > 0$  so that for all  $r \ge r_0$  we have

$$(3.9) \frac{f(x/\lambda_0 r)}{f(x/r)} \le \frac{1}{2}.$$

Specifically we can choose any  $\lambda_0$  for which  $\lambda_0^{-\alpha^*(x)} < \frac{1}{2}(a/b)$ , where a and b are, respectively, the lower and upper bounds of the quantity in (3.5).

**4. The proof of Theorem 1.** Suppose that X belongs to the domain of normal attraction of Y, an operator stable law with exponent B. The consideration of moments  $E|\langle X,\theta\rangle|^{\alpha}$  divides naturally into the two cases  $\alpha^*(\theta)=2$   $(\theta\in U_1^*)$  and  $\alpha^*(\theta)\in(0,2)$ . We will consider each case separately.

Suppose  $\theta \in U_1^*$ . We showed in Section 2 that  $\langle X, \theta \rangle$  is the marginal of a random vector in the domain of normal attraction of a full normal law. Now a result of Klosowksa (1980) states that  $\langle X, \theta \rangle$  belongs to the domain of normal attraction of the standard normal law on  $\mathbb{R}^1$ . It is well known that any such law has a finite variance, i.e.,  $E[\langle X, \theta \rangle]^2 < \infty$ . Then of course  $E[\langle X, \theta \rangle]^\alpha < \infty$  for all  $0 < \alpha \le 2$ . To see that the existence of  $E[\langle X, \theta \rangle]^\alpha$  for  $\alpha > 2$  depends on X, consider a one-dimensional random variable  $X \ge 0$  with  $\Pr\{X > r\} = r^{-\beta}$ . Then  $EX^\alpha$  is finite if and only if  $\alpha < \beta$ .

Suppose now that  $\alpha^*(\theta) < 2$ . We adapt the notation of Feller for the truncated moments of  $\langle X, \theta \rangle$ . Let

$$U_{\alpha}(r,\theta) = \int_{0}^{r} t^{\alpha} F_{\theta}\{dt\},$$

$$V_{\beta}(r,\theta) = \int_{r}^{\infty} t^{\beta} F_{\theta}\{dt\},$$

where  $F_{\theta}(t) = \Pr\{|\langle X, \theta \rangle| \le t\}$ . Note that  $V_0(r, \theta) = f(\theta/r) = 1 - F_{\theta}(r)$ . An integration by parts in (4.1) yields

(4.2) 
$$U_{\alpha}(r) = -r^{\alpha}V_{0}(r) + \int_{0}^{r} \alpha t^{\alpha-1}V_{0}(t) dt,$$

where for ease of notation we have suppressed  $\theta$ . [This is a special case of equation (9.17) in Feller 8.] For each  $\alpha \in (0, \alpha^*)$  we wish to show that each term on the right-hand side of (4.2) is bounded. But this follows immediately from the second inequality in (3.7).

If  $\alpha \geq \alpha^*$ , we wish to show that

(4.3) 
$$E|\langle X,\theta\rangle|^{\alpha} = U_{\alpha}(r_0) + \int_{r_0}^{\infty} t^{\alpha} F_{\theta}\{dt\}$$

is infinite, i.e., the integral diverges. Select  $r_0 > 0$  large enough to ensure that both (3.8) and (3.9) hold. Subdivide the domain of integration into disjoint subintervals  $J_n = [r_0\lambda_0^n, r_0\lambda_0^{n+1})$  and denote by  $I_n$  the integral over  $J_n$ . Since  $t^{\alpha}$  is monotone we obtain

$$\begin{split} I_n &\geq \left(\lambda_0^n r_0\right)^{\alpha} \left[V_0(\lambda_0^n r_0) - V_0(\lambda_0^{n+1} r_0)\right] \\ &\geq \frac{1}{2} V_0(\lambda_0^n r_0) \left(\lambda_0^n r_0\right)^{\alpha} \geq \frac{1}{2} m \left(\lambda_0^n r_0\right)^{-\alpha^*} \left(\lambda_0^n r_0\right)^{\alpha}. \end{split}$$

Obviously  $\sum I_n = \infty$  and the theorem is established.

**5. Remarks.** Although the index function  $\alpha^*$  is defined in (2.5) in terms of the (not necessarily unique) exponent B of  $\nu$ , it is clear from the statement of Theorem 1 that  $\alpha^*$  is the same for every such exponent.

It may be though that the function  $V_0(r,\theta)=f(\theta/r)$  is actually a regularly varying function of r>0 for all  $\theta$ . In fact this is true, for example, if B has k distinct eigenvalues. [In this case B is diagonalizable. See Meerschaert (1987).] The following example will show that, in general,  $V_0$  cannot be expected to vary regularly.

We identify  $\mathbb{R}^2$  with the complex plane  $\mathbb{C}$ . With this identification each linear operator on  $\mathbb{C}$  (i.e., multiplication by a complex constant) corresponds to a linear operator on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  whose matrix representation with respect to the standard basis is skew symmetric. Take B=1+i so that  $t^B=t^{1+i}=tR(\ln t)$  where  $R(\theta)$  is a rotation in the plane through a counterclockwise angle  $\theta$ . Let  $\phi_{ij}$  be a Lévy measure concentrated on  $\{t^Be_1:t>0\}$  with  $\phi\{t^Be_1:t>r\}=r^{-1}$ . Then the infinitely divisible distribution  $\nu$  with Lévy representation  $(0,0,\phi)$  is operator stable with exponent B. By the arguments in Section 3, in order to show that  $V_0$  does not vary regularly, it will suffice to show that  $g(\theta)$  is not

constant on  $\|\theta\| = 1$ . We compute that

(5.1) 
$$g(\theta) = \int_0^\infty t^{-2} I\{|t\cos(\log t - \theta)| > 1\} dt.$$

For  $\theta=e_1$ , the indicator is positive on  $(1,t_1)$ , where  $t_1$  is the smallest root of  $t\cos(\log t)=1,\ t>1$ . Therefore, since  $t_1\approx 3.64,\ g(e_1)>0.7$ . But for  $\theta=e_2$  the indicator is zero on  $(0,t_2)$ , where  $t_2$  is the smallest root of  $t\sin(\log t)=1,\ t>1$ . Since  $t_2\approx 1.8,\ g(e_2)<0.6$ , which concludes the example.

In the construction of  $R^*(t)$  in Section 3 above we use a special Euclidean norm which depends on the choice of exponent B. We could have used any Euclidean norm, including the standard norm on  $\mathbb{R}^k$ , since any other set of basis vectors yields coordinates which can be expressed as linear combinations of our coordinates. Another norm which played a central role in Hudson, Jurek and Veeh (1986) is defined by

(5.2) 
$$|||x||| = \int_0^1 \int_{S(\nu)} ||gt^B x|| t^{-1} H(dg) dt,$$

where H denotes Haar measure on the symmetry group  $S(\nu)$  of the operator-stable law  $\nu$ . It is possible to use this norm as well. The advantage is that R,  $R^*$  are monotone and continuous, so that we can take inverses instead of using asymptotic inverses. The disadvantage is that it becomes more difficult to establish the necessary growth conditions on  $R^*$ .

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