

SUBEXPONENTIAL DISTRIBUTION FUNCTIONS

E. J. G. PITMAN

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Abstract

A distribution function F on $[0, \infty)$ belongs to the subexponential class \mathcal{S} if and only if $1 - F^{(2)}(x) \sim 2(1 - F(x))$, as $x \rightarrow \infty$. For an important class of distribution functions, a simple, necessary and sufficient condition for membership of \mathcal{S} is given. A comparison theorem for membership of \mathcal{S} and also some closure properties of \mathcal{S} are obtained.

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1. Introduction

Throughout this paper all distribution functions will be distribution functions F on $[0, \infty)$ such that $F(0) = 0$, $F(x) < 1$ for all $x > 0$, $F(\infty) = 1$. F is said to belong to the subexponential class \mathcal{S} if

$$\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1 - F^{(2)}(x)}{1 - F(x)} = 2,$$

where $F^{(2)}$ is the convolution of F with itself. Subexponential distribution functions are of interest in the theory of branching processes, and in queueing theory; see Athreya and Ney (1972), Chover, Ney and Wainger (1974), Pakes (1975) and Teugels (1975).

We define the function F^c by $F^c(x) = 1 - F(x)$. It will sometimes be convenient to denote the convolution of the distribution functions F_X , F_Y by F_{X+Y} , and the convolution of F_X with itself by F_{X+X} . We have then

$$F_{X+Y}(x) = \int_0^\infty F_X(x-y) dF_Y(y) = \int_0^\infty F_Y(x-y) dF_X(y),$$

and therefore

$$F_{X+Y}^c(x) = \int_0^\infty F_X^c(x-y) dF_Y(y) = \int_0^\infty F_Y^c(x-y) dF_X(y).$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{F_{X+X}^c(x)}{F_X^c(x)} &= \int_0^\infty \frac{F_X^c(x-y)}{F_X^c(x)} dF_X(y) = \int_0^x + \int_x^\infty \frac{1}{F_X^c(x)} dF_X(y) \\ &= \int_0^x \frac{F_X^c(x-y)}{F_X^c(x)} dF_X(y) + 1, \end{aligned}$$

and so

$$(1) \quad F \in \mathcal{S} \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^x \frac{F^c(x-y)}{F^c(x)} dF(y) = 1.$$

It is well known (Athreya and Ney (1972), p. 148) that if $F \in \mathcal{S}$,

$$(2) \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{F^c(x+y)}{F^c(x)} = 1 \quad \text{for all } y.$$

The class of distribution functions for which (2) is true is denoted by \mathcal{L} , and so $\mathcal{L} \supset \mathcal{S}$. If $F \in \mathcal{L}$, $F^c(\log x)$ is a slowly varying function of x at ∞ , because for $k > 0$, $F^c(\log kx)/F^c(\log x) \rightarrow 1$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$. Hence for $\alpha > 0$, $x^\alpha F^c(\log x) \rightarrow \infty$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$. Replacing x by e^x , we obtain $e^{-\alpha x}/F^c(x) \rightarrow 0$. It is this property that suggested the name subexponential; but as all members of \mathcal{L} possess it, it would be logical to call all distribution functions in \mathcal{L} subexponential. However, the name has been restricted to the subclass \mathcal{S} . Note that if we define the tail function G by

$$\begin{aligned} G(x) &= F(x), \quad x < 0, \\ &= 1 - F(x), \quad x \geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

we may write (1) as

$$F \in \mathcal{S} \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^\infty \frac{G(x-y)}{G(x)} dF(y) = 1.$$

Since

$$\int_0^\infty \left| \frac{G(x-y)}{G(x)} - 1 \right| dF(y) = \int_0^x \frac{G(x-y)}{G(x)} dF(y) - \int_0^x dF(y) + \int_x^\infty dF(y),$$

it is evident that $F \in \mathcal{S}$ if and only if $G(x-y)/G(x) \rightarrow 1$ in mean F , as $x \rightarrow \infty$. The requirement for membership of \mathcal{L} is the weaker $G(x-y)/G(x) \rightarrow 1$ everywhere as $x \rightarrow \infty$. Note that

$$\frac{G_{X+X}(x)}{G_X(x)} - 1 = \int_0^x \frac{G_X(x-y)}{G_X(x)} dF_X(y) \geq \int_0^x dF_X(y) = F_X(x),$$

which $\rightarrow 1$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$. Hence

$$\liminf_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{G_{X+Y}(x)}{G_X(x)} \geq 2.$$

(This result can also be found in Chistyakov (1964) and in Pakes (1975), equation 8.)

2.

THEOREM I. *If $F_X \in \mathcal{L}$, and $G_Y(x)/G_X(x) \rightarrow c$, as $x \rightarrow \infty$, then*

$$(3) \quad \left\{ \frac{G_{X+Y}(x)}{G_X(x)} - 1 \right\} / \left\{ \frac{G_{X+X}(x)}{G_X(x)} - 1 \right\} \rightarrow c, \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow \infty,$$

and, if $c > 0$,

$$(4) \quad \frac{G_{Y+Y}(x)}{G_Y(x)} - 2 = (c + \eta_1) \left\{ \frac{G_{X+X}(x)}{G_X(x)} - 2 \right\} + \eta_2,$$

where $\eta_1, \eta_2 \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$.

COROLLARY 1. *If $F_X \in \mathcal{S}$, $G_Y(x) \sim cG_X(x)$, $x \rightarrow \infty$, $c > 0$, then $F_Y \in \mathcal{S}$.*

COROLLARY 2. *If $F_X \in \mathcal{S}$, $G_Y(x) = o\{G_X(x)\}$, $x \rightarrow \infty$, then $G_{X+Y}(x) \sim G_X(x)$, $x \rightarrow \infty$, and $F_{X+Y} \in \mathcal{S}$.*

PROOF.

$$\frac{G_{X+Y}(x)}{G_X(x)} - 1 = \int_0^x \frac{G_Y(x-y)}{G_X(x)} dF_X(y) = \int_0^{x-A} + \int_{x-A}^x.$$

The last integral is

$$\leq \int_{x-A}^x \frac{dF_X(y)}{G_X(x)} = \frac{G_X(x-A) - G_X(x)}{G_X(x)}, \quad \text{which } \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

Thus

$$\frac{G_{X+Y}(x)}{G_X(x)} - 1 - \int_0^{x-A} \frac{G_Y(x-y)}{G_X(x)} dF_X(y) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

If $\varepsilon > 0$, and $0 < y < x - A$, then when A is sufficiently great,

$$c - \varepsilon \leq \frac{G_Y(x-y)}{G_X(x-y)} \leq c + \varepsilon,$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (c - \varepsilon) \int_0^{x-A} \frac{G_X(x-y)}{G_X(x)} dF_X(y) &\leq \int_0^{x-A} \frac{G_Y(x-y)}{G_X(x)} dF_X(y) \\
 &\leq (c + \varepsilon) \int_0^{x-A} \frac{G_X(x-y)}{G_X(x)} dF_X(y). \\
 (c - \varepsilon) \left\{ \frac{G_{X+X}(x)}{G_X(x)} - 1 - \eta_1 \right\} &\leq \frac{G_{X+Y}(x)}{G_X(x)} - 1 - \eta_2 \\
 &\leq (c + \varepsilon) \left\{ \frac{G_{X+X}(x)}{G_X(x)} - 1 - \eta_1 \right\},
 \end{aligned}$$

where $\eta_1, \eta_2 \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$. Therefore for any $\varepsilon > 0$, when x is great,

$$(c - 2\varepsilon) \left\{ \frac{G_{X+X}(x)}{G_X(x)} - 1 \right\} \leq \frac{G_{X+Y}(x)}{G_X(x)} - 1 \leq (c + 2\varepsilon) \left\{ \frac{G_{X+X}(x)}{G_X(x)} - 1 \right\}.$$

This proves (3).

Let K_1, K_2, \dots denote functions of x which $\rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$.

$$G_{X+X}/G_X - 1 = (c + K_1)(G_{X+X}/G_X - 1).$$

Hence

$$\frac{G_{X+Y} - G_X - G_Y}{G_X} = (c + K_1)(G_{X+X}/G_X - 2) + K_2.$$

Similarly, if $c > 0$,

$$\frac{G_{X+Y} - G_X - G_Y}{G_Y} = (c^{-1} + K_3)(G_{Y+Y}/G_Y - 2) + K_4.$$

Combining these, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}
 (5) \quad \frac{G_{Y+Y}}{G_Y} - 2 &= \frac{(c + K_1) G_X}{(c^{-1} + K_3) G_Y} \left\{ \frac{G_{X+X}}{G_X} - 2 \right\} + \frac{K_2 G_X}{G_Y} - \frac{K_4}{c^{-1} + K_3}, \\
 &= (c + \eta_1) \left\{ \frac{G_{X+X}}{G_X} - 2 \right\} + \eta_2,
 \end{aligned}$$

where $\eta_1, \eta_2 \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$.

If $F_X \in \mathcal{S}$, the right side of (5) $\rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$, and so $G_{Y+Y}(x)/G_Y(x) \rightarrow 2$. $F_Y \in \mathcal{S}$. This proves Corollary 1. This result was given in Pakes (1975), and the particular case, $c = 1$, in Tengels (1975). Corollary 2 follows immediately from (3). //

3.

It turns out that the theory is simpler in terms of the logarithms of tail functions. For any tail function G , we shall write $g = -\log G$, $G = e^{-g}$. Thus g is a

nondecreasing function of x such that $g(0) = 0$, $g(\infty) = \infty$, and we shall reserve the symbols g, g_1 , etc. for such functions. The set of g functions corresponding to distribution functions in \mathcal{L} will be denoted by \mathcal{H} .

$$\mathcal{H} = \{g; 1 - e^{-g} \in \mathcal{L}\}.$$

We also define

$$\mathcal{K} = \{g; 1 - e^{-g} \in \mathcal{L}\}.$$

Note that $g \in \mathcal{H}$ if and only if, for every a , $e^{-g(x)}/e^{-g(x+a)} \rightarrow 1$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$, that is if and only if

$$g(x+a) - g(x) \rightarrow 0.$$

Obviously $g \in \mathcal{H}$, $g_1(x) - g(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow g_1 \in \mathcal{H}$. We shall say that the functions g, g_1 are *equivalent*, and write $g \leftrightarrow g_1$. It follows from Corollary 1 above that $g \in \mathcal{H}$, $g \leftrightarrow g_1 \Rightarrow g_1 \in \mathcal{H}$.

If $g \in \mathcal{H}$, and $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} g'(x)$ exists, this limit must be 0. Also, if g is any function in \mathcal{H} , we can construct a function g_1 , which is equivalent to g , and which has a continuous derivative g'_1 with limit 0 at ∞ . Define g_0 by $g_0(x) = g(x)$ at $x = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, and g_0 linear in $[n-1, n]$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$. Clearly $g_0 \leftrightarrow g$, and in the set of points at which it exists, $g'_0(x) \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$. We obtain g_1 from g_0 by rounding off the corners, if any, at the points $x = 1, 2, \dots$, by circular arcs. Thus, \mathcal{H} consists of those g with a continuous derivative g' which $\rightarrow 0$ at ∞ , and their equivalents. We shall therefore consider only g having a continuous derivative g' with limit 0 at ∞ . If $G = e^{-g}$, the density function of the distribution is $f = -G' = e^{-g} g'$. Denoting the tail function of $F^{(2)}$ by $G^{(2)}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{G^{(2)}(x)}{G(x)} - 1 &= \int_0^x \frac{G(x-y)}{G(x)} dF(y) \\ &= \int_0^x \exp \{g(x) - g(x-y) - g(y)\} g'(y) dy. \end{aligned}$$

THEOREM II. *If g has a derivative g' which eventually $\downarrow 0$, a necessary and sufficient condition for $g \in \mathcal{H}$ is*

$$(6) \quad \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^x \exp \{yg'(x) - g(y)\} g'(y) dy = 1,$$

and a sufficient condition is

$$(7) \quad \exp \{yg'(y) - g(y)\} g'(y)$$

integrable over $[0, \infty]$.

PROOF. If g' is not monotonic over the whole range $[0, \infty]$, there is an equivalent g_0 with a derivative g'_0 which is so. We may therefore assume that g' is nonincreasing over the whole range.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{G^{(2)}(x)}{G(x)} - 1 &= \int_0^x \exp \{g(x) - g(x - y) - g(y)\} g'(y) dy \\ &\geq \int_0^x \exp \{yg'(x) - g(y)\} g'(y) dy \\ &\geq \int_0^x \exp \{-g(y)\} g'(y) dy = F(x). \end{aligned}$$

This shows that the condition (6) is necessary, since if $g \in \mathcal{K}$, the first and the last $\rightarrow 1$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$.

$$\begin{aligned} &\int_0^x \exp \{g(x) - g(x - y) - g(y)\} g'(y) dy \\ &= \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}x} + \int_{\frac{1}{2}x}^x \\ &= \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}x} \exp \{g(x) - g(x - y) - g(y)\} g'(y) dy \\ &\quad + \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}x} \exp \{g(x) - g(x - y) - g(y)\} g'(x - y) dy. \end{aligned}$$

The first integral is $\geq F(\frac{1}{2}x)$ which $\rightarrow 1$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$. On the other hand, $y \leq \frac{1}{2}x$, and therefore $x - y \geq \frac{1}{2}x$, $g(x) - g(x - y) \leq yg'(x - y) \leq yg'(\frac{1}{2}x)$. Thus the first integral is $\leq \int_0^{\frac{1}{2}x} \exp \{yg'(\frac{1}{2}x) - g(y)\} g'(y) dy$, which $\rightarrow 1$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$ if (6) is true. The first integral then $\rightarrow 1$. Moreover, as $x \rightarrow \infty$, the first integrand $\rightarrow e^{-g(y)} g'(y) = f(y)$ everywhere, and the integral $\rightarrow 1 = \int_0^\infty f(y) dy$. Thus the first integrand converges in mean to $f(y)$. The second integrand $\rightarrow 0$ everywhere. It is dominated by the first integrand since $g'(x - y) \leq g'(y)$. Therefore the second integral $\rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$, and $G^{(2)}(x)/G(x) - 1 \rightarrow 1$; $g \in \mathcal{K}$. The second part of the theorem follows by dominated convergence, since $g'(x) \leq g'(y)$. //

EXAMPLE. Suppose $G(x) \sim \exp \{-x(\log x)^{-m}\}$, $m > 0$, $x \rightarrow \infty$. We may take

$$\begin{aligned} g(x) &= x(\log x)^{-m} \quad \text{when } x \text{ is great,} \\ g'(x) &= (\log x)^{-m} - m(\log x)^{-m-1}. \end{aligned}$$

When y is great

$$\exp \{yg'(y) - g(y)\} g'(y) = \exp \{-my(\log y)^{-m-1}\} \{(\log y)^{-m} - m(\log y)^{-m-1}\}$$

and is therefore integrable over $[0, \infty]$. Therefore $g \in \mathcal{H}$, $F \in \mathcal{L}$. Teugels (1975), p. 1001, states that $F \in \mathcal{L}$ if and only if $m > 1$.

The necessary condition (6) enables us to define distribution functions which belong to \mathcal{L} but not to \mathcal{S} . Thus \mathcal{S} is a proper subset of \mathcal{L} . Let (x_n) be an increasing sequence of numbers, to be defined later, with $x_0 = 0$. Define g by $g(x_0) = g(0) = 0$; g is continuous and piecewise linear so that for $x_{n-1} < x < x_n$, $g'(x) = 1/n$. Consider

$$\int_0^{x_n} \exp \{yg'(x_n) - g(y)\} g'(y) dy > \int_{x_{n-1}}^{x_n} .$$

For $x_{n-1} < y < x_n$,

$$yg'(x_n) - g(y) = y/n - \{g(x_{n-1}) + n^{-1}(y - x_{n-1})\} > -g(x_{n-1}),$$

and $g'(y) = n^{-1}$. Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{x_{n-1}}^{x_n} \exp \{yg'(x_n) - g(y)\} g'(y) dy &> \int_{x_{n-1}}^{x_n} \exp \{-g(x_{n-1})\} n^{-1} dy \\ &= \exp \{-g(x_{n-1})\} (x_n - x_{n-1})/n. \end{aligned}$$

Choose the x_n so that

$$\begin{aligned} \exp \{-g(x_{n-1})\} (x_n - x_{n-1})/n &= 2, \\ (x_n - x_{n-1}) &= 2n \exp \{g(x_{n-1})\}. \end{aligned}$$

We then have

$$\begin{aligned} g(x_n) &= g(x_{n-1}) + (x_n - x_{n-1})/n = g(x_{n-1}) + 2 \exp g(x_{n-1}), \\ x_0 &= 0, \quad g(x_0) = 0, \quad x_1 = 2, \quad g(x_1) = 2, \dots \end{aligned}$$

Clearly $g(x) \uparrow \infty$ as $x \uparrow \infty$. Also $g'(x) \downarrow 0$, and so $g \in \mathcal{H}$. However,

$$\int_0^{x_n} \exp \{yg'(x_n) - g(y)\} g'(y) dy > 2,$$

and so

$$\int_0^x \exp \{yg'(x) - g(y)\} g'(y) dy \text{ does not } \rightarrow 1 \text{ as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

Thus $g \in \mathcal{H}$ but $g \notin \mathcal{H}$.

The following theorem shows how the general case may often be reduced to the case $g'(x) \downarrow 0$. We need to consider only distribution functions F with continuous derivatives f .

THEOREM III. *If f_2/f_1 is bounded, and G_2/G_1 bounded away from 0, then*

$$F_1 \in \mathcal{L} \Rightarrow F_2 \in \mathcal{L} \quad \text{and} \quad F_1 \in \mathcal{S} \Rightarrow F_2 \in \mathcal{S}.$$

PROOF. Suppose $f_2/f_1 < C < \infty$, $G_2/G_1 > c > 0$, then $c < G_2/G_1 < C$.

$$0 \leq \frac{G_2(x-y) - G_2(x)}{G_2(x)} \leq \frac{C G_1(x-y) - G_1(x)}{G_1(x)}.$$

If $F_1 \in \mathcal{L}$, the last $\rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$. Therefore so does the other. $G_2(x-y)/G_2(x) \rightarrow 1$, and $F_2 \in \mathcal{L}$.

$$F_1 \in \mathcal{S} \Rightarrow F_1 \in \mathcal{L} \Rightarrow F_2 \in \mathcal{L}.$$

Hence

$$\frac{G_2(x-y)}{G_2(x)} f_2(y) \rightarrow f_2(y), \quad \text{as } x \rightarrow \infty.$$

Also

$$\frac{G_2(x-y)}{G_2(x)} f_2(y) \leq \frac{C^2 G_1(x-y)}{c G_1(x)} f_1(y),$$

which converges in mean to $C^2 c^{-1} f_1(y)$. Therefore $(G_2(x-y)/G_2(x)) f_2(y)$ converges in mean to $f_2(y)$, and

$$\int_0^x \frac{G_2(x-y)}{G_2(x)} f_2(y) dy \rightarrow 1. \quad //$$

In terms of the g functions we may state the corollary : if $g_2 - g_1$ and g'_2/g'_1 are both bounded, $g_1 \in \mathcal{H} \Rightarrow g_2 \in \mathcal{H}$, $g_1 \in \mathcal{K} \Rightarrow g_2 \in \mathcal{K}$.

EXAMPLE. Consider the case, when x is great

$$g_1(x) = x/\log x, \quad g'_1(x) = 1/\log x - 1/(\log x)^2,$$

$$g_2(x) = x/\log x + \sin(x/\log x),$$

$$g'_2(x) = \{(1/\log x - 1/(\log x)^2) \{1 + \cos(x/\log x)\}\}.$$

The derivative $g'_2(x)$ is zero when $x/\log x$ is an odd multiple of π and positive everywhere else. It is not monotonic in any infinite interval.

$$g_2(x) - g_1(x) = \sin(x/\log x), \quad g'_2(x)/g'_1(x) = 1 + \cos(x/\log x),$$

which are both bounded. As shown above, $g_1 \in \mathcal{H}$, and so $g_2 \in \mathcal{H}$.

THEOREM IV. *If f_Y/f_X is bounded, then*

$$(8) \quad 0 < p < 1, \quad F_X \in \mathcal{S} \Rightarrow pF_X + (1-p)F_Y \in \mathcal{S},$$

$$(9) \quad F_X \in \mathcal{S} \Rightarrow F_{X+Y} \in \mathcal{S}.$$

PROOF. If $F = pF_X + (1-p)F_Y, f = pf_X + (1-p)f_Y$.

$$p \leq \frac{pf_X + (1-p)f_Y}{f_X} = \frac{f}{f_X} = p + (1-p)f_Y/f_X.$$

Thus f/f_X is bounded away from 0 and from ∞ . The conditions of Theorem III are fulfilled, and $F_X \in \mathcal{S} \Rightarrow F \in \mathcal{S}$.

Suppose $f_Y \leq Cf_X$.

$$f_{X+Y}(x) = \int_0^x f_Y(x-y)f_X(y)dy \leq C \int_0^x f_X(x-y)f_X(y)dy = Cf_{X+X}(x),$$

$$f_{X+Y}(x)/f_{X+X}(x) \leq C.$$

If $F_X \in \mathcal{S}, G_{X+X}(x)/G_X(x) \rightarrow 2$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$. Therefore G_{X+X}/G_X is bounded, and G_{X+X}/G_{X+Y} also, since $G_{X+Y} \geq G_X$. Thus G_{X+Y}/G_{X+X} is bounded away from 0, and f_{X+Y}/f_{X+X} is bounded. $F_X \in \mathcal{S} \Rightarrow F_{X+X} \in \mathcal{S} \Rightarrow F_{X+Y} \in \mathcal{S}$. //

THEOREM V.

$$(10) \quad g_1, g_2 \in \mathcal{X} \Rightarrow g_1 + g_2 \in \mathcal{X}.$$

$$(11) \quad m > 1, g \in \mathcal{X} \Rightarrow mg \in \mathcal{X}.$$

PROOF. If $0 < u < x$,

$$\int_0^u \exp \{g(x) - g(x-y) - g(y)\} g'(y) dy - \int_{x-u}^x \exp \{g(x) - g(x-y) - g(y)\} \{g'(y) - g'(x-y)\} dy$$

$$= \int_0^u \exp \{g(x) - g(x-y) - g(y)\} \{g'(y) - g'(x-y)\} dy$$

$$= 1 - \exp \{g(x) - g(x-u) - g(u)\}.$$

$$(12) \quad \exp \{g(x) - g(x-u) - g(u)\}$$

$$= 1 + \int_{x-u}^x \exp \{g(x) - g(x-y) - g(y)\} g'(y) dy - \int_0^u \exp \{g(x) - g(x-y) - g(y)\} g'(y) dy,$$

$$\leq 1 + \int_0^x \exp \{g(x) - g(x-y) - g(y)\} g'(y) dy,$$

which $\rightarrow 2$ as $x \rightarrow \infty$ if $g \in \mathcal{K}$, and so is bounded. Therefore $g(x) - g(x-u) - g(u)$ is bounded for all x , and all $u \leq x$.

Suppose $g_1, g_2 \in \mathcal{K}$, $g = g_1 + g_2$.

$$\int_0^x \exp \{g(x) - g(x-y) - g(y)\} g'(y) dy = \int_0^x I(x, y) dy,$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} I(x, y) &= \exp \{g_1(x) - g_1(x-y) - g_1(y) + g_2(x) - g_2(x-y) - g_2(y)\} \\ &\quad \times \{g'_1(y) + g'_2(y)\} \leq \exp \{g_1(x) - g_1(x-y) - g_1(y) + C_2\} g'_1(y) \\ &\quad + \exp \{C_1 + g_2(x) - g_2(x-y) - g_2(y)\} g'_2(y), \end{aligned}$$

which converges in mean to $\exp \{-g_1(y) + C_2\} g'_1(y) + \exp \{C_1 - g_2(y)\} g'_2(y)$, as $x \rightarrow \infty$.

Also $I(x, y) \rightarrow e^{-g(y)} g'(y)$. Hence I converges in mean, and $\int_0^x I(x, y) dy \rightarrow 1$. $g \in \mathcal{K}$.

If $u, x-u$ are both $\geq A > 0$, we have from (12)

$$\begin{aligned} &\exp \{g(x) - g(x-u) - g(u)\} \\ &\leq 1 + \int_A^x \exp \{g(x) - g(x-y) - g(y)\} g'(y) dy - \int_0^A \\ &= 1 + \int_0^x -2 \int_0^A, \end{aligned}$$

which $\rightarrow 2 - 2F(A) = 2G(A)$ if $g \in \mathcal{K}$. Choose A so that $G(A) < \frac{1}{2}$, then $\exp \{g(x) - g(x-u) - g(u)\} < 1$ when $x-u, u \geq A$, and x is great. Consider

$$\int_A^{x-A} \exp \{mg(x) - mg(x-y) - mg(y)\} mg'(y) dy.$$

When x is great, the integrand $< \exp \{g(x) - g(x-y) - g(y)\} mg'(y)$, which converges in mean. Therefore, as $x \rightarrow \infty$,

$$\begin{aligned} &\int_A^{x-A} \exp \{mg(x) - mg(x-y) - mg(y)\} mg'(y) dy \\ &\quad \rightarrow \int_A^\infty \exp \{-mg(y)\} mg'(y) = \exp \{-mg(A)\}. \end{aligned}$$

As shown above, $\int_{x-A}^x \rightarrow 0$, and it may easily be shown by dominated convergence that $\int_0^A \rightarrow 1 - \exp \{-mg(A)\}$. Thus

$$\int_0^x \exp \{mg(x) - mg(x-y) - mg(y)\} mg'(y) dy \rightarrow 1,$$

so that $mg \in \mathcal{K}$. //

If \mathcal{S}' denotes the set of tail functions G corresponding to distribution functions F in \mathcal{S} , the above results may be written

$$G_1, G_2 \in \mathcal{S}' \Rightarrow G_1 G_2 \in \mathcal{S}',$$

$$m > 1, G \in \mathcal{S}' \Rightarrow G^m \in \mathcal{S}'.$$

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301 Davey St
Hobart, Tasmania 7000
Australia