

## Scale-free and power law distributions via fixed points and convergence of (thinning and conditioning) transformations

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### Abstract

In discrete contexts such as the degree distribution for a graph, *scale-free* has traditionally been *defined* to be *power-law*. We propose a reasonable interpretation of *scale-free*, namely, invariance under the transformation of  $p$ -thinning, followed by conditioning on being positive.

For each  $\beta \in (1, 2)$ , we show that there is a unique distribution which is a fixed point of this transformation; the distribution is power-law- $\beta$ , and different from the usual Yule–Simon power law- $\beta$  that arises in preferential attachment models.

In addition to characterizing these fixed points, we prove convergence results for iterates of the transformation.

**Keywords:** thinning, power-law, scale-free, degree distribution, Pareto distribution.

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## 1 Introduction and statement of results

In the context of random graphs, many authors define the term *scale-free* to mean that the degree distribution follows a power law – see for example [1, 4]. In this paper, we adopt a different point of view, in which scale-free means that the degree distribution is invariant under a natural transformation on the graph. As we will see, the power law property is then a consequence of this definition.

To motivate our transformation, consider a continuous random variable  $X \geq 1$ . It appears natural to say that its distribution is scale-free if  $cX$  conditioned on  $cX \geq 1$  has the same same distribution as  $X$ , i.e.,

$$\mathbb{P}(X \geq x) = \mathbb{P}(cX \geq x \mid cX \geq 1).$$

It is not hard to check that the only such distributions are the Pareto distributions

$$\mathbb{P}(X \geq x) = x^{-\alpha}, \quad x \geq 1.$$

See [12, 14] for similar observations. One can also consider convergence to these fixed points, and easily show that

$$\lim_{c \rightarrow 0} \mathbb{P}(cX \geq x \mid cX \geq 1) = x^{-\alpha}, \quad x \geq 1$$

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if and only if the tail probabilities  $\mathbb{P}(X \geq x)$  are of the form  $L(x)x^{-\alpha}$ , where  $L$  is slowly varying.

We consider now a discrete analogue of this setup. If  $D$  is a nonnegative integer valued random variable,  $cD$  is no longer integer valued, so we replace multiplication by thinning. A  $p$ -thinning of  $D$  is defined by

$$S_D = \sum_{i=1}^D X_i, \tag{1.1}$$

where  $X_i$  are i.i.d. Bernoulli ( $p$ ) random variables that are independent of  $D$ . In terms of the probability generating function  $G_D(s) = \mathbb{E} s^D$ , this becomes

$$G_{S_D}(s) = G_D(1 - p + ps) = G_D(1 - p(1 - s)). \tag{1.2}$$

In the graph context, this corresponds to thinning by edges.

We are concerned here with fixed points of the transformation  $T = T_p = T_{p,m}$  given by

$$T : D \rightarrow (S_D \mid S_D \geq m)$$

where  $m$  is an integer  $\geq 1$ , and convergence to these fixed points. (The case  $m = 1$  is the most natural.)

There are other contexts in which fixed points and convergence of transformations that are the composition of two operations that change a distribution in opposite directions have been studied. Examples are [2, 7].

Similar questions for other families of transformations acting on discrete distributions have been studied before – see [5, 6, 18] for example. The main feature that distinguishes our setting from these others is the conditioning.

We will use two forms of the power-law- $\beta$  property:

$$\mathbb{P}(D = k) \sim ck^{-\beta}, \tag{1.3}$$

$$\mathbb{P}(D \geq n) \sim L(n)n^{1-\beta} \tag{1.4}$$

where  $\beta > 1$  and  $L$  is slowly varying. The latter property is known as regular variation. Our characterization of fixed points is the following. It is proved in Section 3.

**Theorem 1.1.** *Let  $m$  be a positive integer, and let  $D$  be a nonnegative integer valued random variable, with  $\mathbb{P}(D \geq m) > 0$ . The following are equivalent:*

- *The distribution of  $D$  is fixed by the transformation  $D \mapsto T_{p,m}D$  for all  $p \in (0, 1)$ .*
- *Either  $D \equiv m$  is constant, or else  $D$  has power-law- $\beta$  distribution (1.3), with  $\beta = \alpha + 1$ ,  $0 < \alpha < m$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(D < m) = 0$ , and*

$$\mathbb{P}(D = k + 1)/\mathbb{P}(D = k) = (k - \alpha)/(k + 1) \text{ for } k \geq m. \tag{1.5}$$

For the convergence results, we consider separately the cases of nontrivial and trivial fixed points. For the motivation for taking  $p \downarrow 0$  in these results, see Remark 2.2 in the next section.

**Theorem 1.2.** *Suppose the distribution of  $D$  is power-law- $\beta$ , as specified by (1.4). Then for every integer  $k \geq \beta$*

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\mathbb{P}(S_D = k)}{\mathbb{P}(S_D = k - 1)} = \frac{k - \beta}{k}. \tag{1.6}$$

**Theorem 1.3.** Take  $m \geq \beta - 1$ , and suppose the distribution of  $D$  is such that (1.6) holds for  $k \geq \beta$ . Then the distributions of  $(S_D \mid S_D \geq m)$  are tight as  $p \downarrow 0$ . It follows that these distributions have a limit as  $p \downarrow 0$ , which is the fixed point described in (1.5) in case  $\beta < m + 1$ , or  $\mathbb{P}(D = m) = 1$  in case  $\beta = m + 1$ .

**Theorem 1.4.** Suppose  $ED^{k-1} < \infty$ . Then

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbb{P}(S_D \geq k)}{\mathbb{P}(S_D = k - 1)} = 0, \tag{1.7}$$

provided that the denominator above is strictly positive. As a consequence, if  $ED^m < \infty$  and  $\mathbb{P}(D \geq m) > 0$ , then

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow 0} \mathbb{P}(S_D = m \mid S_D \geq m) = 1.$$

These three results are proved in Sections 4 and 5. In the final section, we prove that the nontrivial fixed points are infinitely divisible.

## 2 The transformations $T_{p,m}$ and their fixed points

If  $D$  is a nonnegative integer valued random variable and  $0 < p < 1$ , the  $p$ -thinning  $S_D$  of  $D$ , defined by (1.1), has, using the notation  $(z)_k = z(z - 1) \cdots (z - k + 1)$  for the falling product,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{P}(S_D = n) &= \sum_{l=n}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(D = l) \binom{l}{n} p^n (1-p)^{l-n} \\ &= \left(\frac{p}{1-p}\right)^n \frac{1}{n!} \sum_{l=n}^{\infty} (l)_n (1-p)^l \mathbb{P}(D = l). \end{aligned} \tag{2.1}$$

Fix an integer  $m = 1, 2, \dots$ . For  $p \in (0, 1)$ , the transformations  $T \equiv T_p \equiv T_{p,m}$  for which we consider fixed points and convergence of iterates are given by

$$\mathbb{P}(TD = l) = \mathbb{P}(S_D = l \mid S_D \geq m). \tag{2.2}$$

In Section 3, we will prove that the fixed points of the transformation are precisely those described by (2.3) – (2.6) below, and in Section 4 and 5 we will prove results where these fixed points arise as limits of iterates of the transformation.

**Remark 2.1.** We are referring here to distributions that are fixed points for all  $p$ , not just for some  $p$ . It would be interesting to know whether these are the only fixed points for a given  $p$ .

For  $m = 1, 2, \dots$ , the distribution with  $\mathbb{P}(D = m) = 1$  is a trivial fixed point of  $T_{p,m}$ . For  $m = 1$ , all nontrivial fixed points have the form: for some  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ ,

$$G_D(s) := \mathbb{E} s^D = 1 - (1 - s)^\alpha =: \sum_{k \geq 0} c_k(\alpha) s^k. \tag{2.3}$$

The right hand side of (2.3) defines  $c_k(\alpha)$  to be the coefficient of  $s^k$  in  $1 - (1 - s)^\alpha$ , so for  $k \geq 1$ ,  $c_k(\alpha) = (-1)^{k-1} (\alpha)_k / k!$ , and for  $m = 1$ , with the restriction  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(D = k) = c_k(\alpha)$ ,  $k = 1, 2, \dots$ .

In general, for  $m = 1, 2, \dots$  and  $\alpha \in (0, m)$  there is a nontrivial fixed point for  $T_{p,m}$ , which is power-law- $\beta$  for  $\beta = 1 + \alpha$ , with

$$G_D(s) := \mathbb{E} s^D = \frac{1 - (1 - s)^\alpha - \sum_{1 \leq k < m} c_k(\alpha) s^k}{1 - \sum_{1 \leq k < m} c_k(\alpha)}, \tag{2.4}$$

and this gives all nontrivial fixed points of  $T_{p,m}$ . A unified description of the fixed points (for all  $p$ ) of  $T_{p,m}$ , including both the trivial fixed point, obtained by taking  $\alpha = m$ , is:  $1 + \alpha = \beta \in (1, m + 1]$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(D \in \{m, m + 1, m + 2, \dots\}) = 1$ ,  $\mathbb{P}(D = m) > 0$ , and

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}(D = k + 1)}{\mathbb{P}(D = k)} = \frac{k - \alpha}{k + 1}, \quad k \geq m. \tag{2.5}$$

or equivalently, shifting the dummy variable  $k$  by 1,

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}(D = k)}{\mathbb{P}(D = k - 1)} = \frac{k - \beta}{k}, \quad k > m. \tag{2.6}$$

The Yule–Simon distribution for power-law- $\beta$  has point probabilities given by  $\mathbb{P}(D = k) = (\beta - 1) \Gamma(k) \Gamma(\beta) / \Gamma(k + \beta)$ , and hence ratios

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}(D = k)}{\mathbb{P}(D = k - 1)} = \frac{k - 1}{k - 1 + \beta}. \tag{2.7}$$

In comparison with (2.6), both formulas have denominator minus numerator =  $\beta$ , for every  $k$ , but for non-integer  $\beta$ , (2.6) has the integer in the denominator, while the Yule–Simon ratio (2.7) has the integer in the numerator.

**Remark 2.2.** For each  $m = 1, 2, \dots$ , it is true that for all  $p, q \in (0, 1)$  one has  $T_q \circ T_p = T_{pq}$ ; we omit the easy proof. It then follows that the  $k$ -fold iterate  $(T_q)^k$  of  $T_q$  is  $T_p$  with  $p = q^k$ . Theorem 1.3 allows  $p \rightarrow 0$  with only the restriction  $p > 0$ , and the special case where  $p$  goes to zero along a geometric sequence  $q^k$  yields convergence for iterates of the transformation  $T_q$ , for one fixed  $q$ .

### 3 Uniqueness

The goal is to show that, for  $m = 1, 2, \dots$ , any distribution  $D$  on the nonnegative integers which is unchanged by  $p$ -thinning followed by conditioning on being at least  $m$ , for all  $p \in (0, 1)$ , is either the constant  $D \equiv m$  or else, as specified by (2.6), the law with  $1 < \beta < m + 1$  and ratios  $\mathbb{P}(D = k) / \mathbb{P}(D = k - 1) = (k - \beta) / k$  for  $k \geq m + 1$ .

**Lemma 3.1.** Suppose  $A$  and  $B$  are two nonnegative integer valued random variables with probability generating functions  $G_A, G_B$ . Let  $m$  be a positive integer. Assume  $\mathbb{P}(A \geq m) > 0$  and  $\mathbb{P}(B \geq m) > 0$ . Consider the statements

- (a)  $\mathbb{P}(A = k) = \mathbb{P}(B = k)$  for all  $k \geq m$ .
- (b)  $(A|A \geq m)$  and  $(B|B \geq m)$  have the same distribution.
- (c)  $G_A^{(m)}(s) = G_B^{(m)}(s)$  for all  $s \in [0, 1)$ .
- (d)  $G_A^{(m)}(s) = c G_B^{(m)}(s)$  for all  $s \in [0, 1)$ , for some constant  $c > 0$ .

(Here  $G_A^{(m)}(s)$  denotes the  $m$ th derivative of  $G_A(s)$ .) Then (a) if and only if (c), and (b) if and only if (d).

*Proof.* Let  $a_k := \mathbb{P}(A = k)$  and  $b_k := \mathbb{P}(B = k)$  so that  $G_A(s) = \sum_{k \geq 0} a_k s^k$  and likewise for  $G_B$ . These are power series with radius of convergence  $\geq 1$ , hence differentiable term-by-term, with  $G_A^{(m)}(s) = \sum_{k \geq m} k_{(m)} a_k s^{k-m}$  for  $|s| < 1$ , and likewise for  $G_B$ . This immediately shows that (a) implies (c); to see that (c) implies (a), given  $k \geq m$ , differentiate  $k - m$  times and evaluate at  $s = 0$ .

The equivalence of (b) and (d) follows, with  $c = \mathbb{P}(B \geq m) / \mathbb{P}(A \geq m)$ . □

We apply this with  $A = D$  and  $B = S_D$ . We are looking for a fixed point of  $D \mapsto TD$ , where  $TD \equiv T_{p,m}D := (S_D|S_D \geq m)$  and  $S_D$  is the  $p$ -thinning of  $D$ . Since  $1 = \mathbb{P}(TD \geq m)$ , we can have  $D$  and  $TD$  equal in distribution only if  $1 = \mathbb{P}(D \geq m)$ . Thus we assume that  $1 = \mathbb{P}(D \geq m)$ , so that  $D = (D|D \geq m)$ , and now we have a fixed point of  $D \mapsto TD$  if and only if  $(D|D \geq m) = (S_D|S_D \geq m)$ . Combine Lemma 3.1 with (1.2), so that the two generating functions of interest are  $G_A(s) = G(s)$  and  $G_B(s) = G(1 - p(1 - s))$ .

Write  $f$  for the  $m$ th derivative of  $G$ , so that

$$G_B^{(m)}(s) = (G(1 - p + ps))^{(m)} = p^m f(1 - p(1 - s)).$$

Assuming that  $1 = \mathbb{P}(D \geq m)$ , we have a fixed point of  $D \mapsto T_{p,m}D$  if and only if

$$f(s) = cp^m \times f(1 - p(1 - s)), \text{ for all } s \in [0, 1].$$

**Lemma 3.2.** *Let  $f$  be a continuous function from  $[0, 1)$  to  $(0, \infty)$ , with  $f(0) = 1$ , and let  $p \mapsto c(p)$  be any function on  $(0, 1)$ . If*

$$\forall p \in (0, 1), \forall s \in [0, 1), \quad f(1 - p(1 - s)) = c(p)f(s), \tag{3.1}$$

then for some constant  $d$  we have  $f(s) = (1 - s)^{-d}$ .

*Proof.* First let  $s = 1 - t$  so that (3.1) becomes

$$\forall p \in (0, 1), \forall t \in (0, 1], \quad f(1 - pt) = c(p)f(1 - t),$$

and then consider  $g(t) := f(1 - t)$  so that the system to solve becomes

$$\forall p \in (0, 1), \forall t \in (0, 1], \quad g(pt) = c(p)g(t), \tag{3.2}$$

with  $g(1) = 1$ . Plugging in  $t = 1$  we see that  $c(p) = g(p)$ , and (3.2) becomes  $g(pt) = g(p)g(t)$ . It follows that  $g(u) = u^{-d}$  for some  $d$ .  $\square$

*Proof of Theorem 1.1.* Start by assuming that  $D$  is a fixed point. We combine Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2, as in the remarks before Lemma 3.2, so that  $G(s) = \mathbb{E} s^D$ ,  $f$  is the  $m$ th derivative of  $G$ , and the conclusion of Lemma 3.2 applied to  $f(s)/f(0)$  is that  $f(s) = c(1 - s)^{-d}$  with  $c > 0$ . [We have  $c = f(0) > 0$  because  $\mathbb{P}(D \geq m) > 0$  implies  $\mathbb{P}(S_D = m) > 0$ , hence  $\mathbb{P}(D = m|D \geq m) = \mathbb{P}(S_D = m|S_D \geq m) > 0$ , hence  $c = m!\mathbb{P}(D = m) > 0$ .]

In case  $d = 0$ , we have  $f$  is constant and  $D \equiv m$ . We cannot have  $d$  negative, since then the coefficient of  $s^1$  in  $f$  is  $d$ , while  $G$  has nonnegative coefficients. In case  $d > 0$ , writing  $[s^k]f(s)$  for the coefficient of  $s^k$  in  $f$ , so that  $[s^k]G(s) = \mathbb{P}(D = k)$ , we have for  $k \geq m$

$$k_{(m)}\mathbb{P}(D = k) = [s^{k-m}]f(s) = [s^{k-m}](c(1 - s)^{-d}) = c(-1)^{k-m} \frac{(-d)_{(k-m)}}{(k - m)!}.$$

Hence for  $k \geq m$

$$\mathbb{P}(D = k) = c(-1)^{k-m} \frac{(-d)_{(k-m)}}{k!}$$

and

$$\frac{\mathbb{P}(D = k + 1)}{\mathbb{P}(D = k)} = \frac{-(-d - (k - m))}{k + 1} = \frac{k - \alpha}{k + 1},$$

with  $\alpha = m - d < m$ . The requirement  $\sum \mathbb{P}(D = k) < \infty$  implies that  $\alpha > 0$ .

The implication in the opposite direction is easy, again by combining Lemmas 3.1 and 3.2.  $\square$

### 4 Convergence to nontrivial fixed points

Before proving Theorem 1.2, we state part of a Tauberian theorem that can be found on page 447 of [8]. Many other Tauberian theorems can be found in [3].

**Theorem 4.1.** *Let  $q_l \geq 0$  and suppose  $Q(s) = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} q_l s^l$  converges for  $0 \leq s < 1$ . If  $L$  is slowly varying,  $\rho > 0$ , and  $q_l \sim l^{\rho-1} L(l)$ , then*

$$Q(s) \sim \frac{\Gamma(\rho)}{(1-s)^\rho} L\left(\frac{1}{1-s}\right) \text{ as } s \uparrow 1.$$

*Proof of Theorem 1.2.* Write  $H(k) = \mathbb{P}(D \geq k)$ , so that (1.4) gives  $H(k) = k^{1-\beta} L(k)$ , where  $L$  is slowly varying. Sum by parts, make a change of variables in the second sum below, and apply the Tauberian theorem to each of the resulting sums. By (2.1),

$$\begin{aligned} P(S_D = k) k! \left(\frac{1-p}{p}\right)^k &= \sum_{l=k}^{\infty} (l)_k (1-p)^l \mathbb{P}(D = l) \\ &= \sum_{l=k}^{\infty} (l)_k (1-p)^l [H(l) - H(l+1)] \\ &= \sum_{l=k}^{\infty} (l)_k (1-p)^l H(l) - \sum_{l=k+1}^{\infty} (l-1)_k (1-p)^{l-1} H(l) \\ &= k!(1-p)^k H(k) + \sum_{l=k+1}^{\infty} (l-1)_{k-1} (k-lp) (1-p)^{l-1} H(l) \\ &= k!(1-p)^k H(k) + k \sum_{l=k+1}^{\infty} (l-1)_{k-1} (1-p)^{l-1} H(l) \\ &\quad - p \sum_{l=k+1}^{\infty} (l)_k (1-p)^{l-1} H(l) \\ &\sim k\Gamma(k-\beta+1)p^{\beta-k-1}L(p^{-1}) - \Gamma(k-\beta+2)p^{\beta-k-1}L(p^{-1}) \\ &= \Gamma(k-\beta+1)(\beta-1)p^{\beta-k-1}L(p^{-1}), \end{aligned}$$

provided that  $k - \beta + 1 > 0$ . This gives (1.6) if  $k > \beta$ . If  $k = \beta$ , the above computation with  $k$  replaced by  $k - 1$  gives

$$\sum_{l=k-1}^{\infty} l(l-1) \cdots (l-k+2) (1-p)^l \mathbb{P}(D = l) \sim (k-1)! H(k-1) + (k-1)L^*(p^{-1}),$$

so (1.6) holds in this case as well. □

Convergence of the ratios of probabilities in (1.6) does not immediately imply tightness of the distributions of  $(S_D \mid S_D \geq m)$  as  $p \downarrow 0$ . This tightness is needed to conclude that the iterates of the transformation converge to the appropriate fixed point. We therefore now turn our attention to that issue.

*Proof of Theorem 1.3.* Tightness of these conditional distributions means that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \limsup_{p \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\mathbb{P}(S_D \geq k)}{\mathbb{P}(S_D \geq m)} = 0. \tag{4.1}$$

Thus we need to deduce the asymptotics of ratios of tail probabilities from the asymptotics of ratios of point probabilities.

A key identity that allows for this transition is

$$\frac{d}{dp} \mathbb{P}(S_D \geq k) = kp^{-1} \mathbb{P}(S_D = k). \tag{4.2}$$

Students of the theory of percolation will recognize this as a very simple form of Russo’s formula – see page 35 of [9], for example. The proof of (4.2) is also simple: Use (2.1) to write

$$\mathbb{P}(S_D \geq k) = \sum_{l=k}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(D = l) \left[ 1 - \sum_{n=0}^{k-1} \binom{l}{n} p^n (1-p)^{l-n} \right]. \tag{4.3}$$

Differentiating gives

$$\frac{d}{dp} \mathbb{P}(S_D \geq k) = p^{-1} \sum_{l=k}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(D = l) \sum_{n=0}^{k-1} \binom{l}{n} p^n (1-p)^{l-n-1} (lp - n).$$

To prove (4.2) one needs to check

$$\sum_{n=0}^{k-1} \binom{l}{n} p^n (1-p)^{l-n-1} (lp - n) = k \binom{l}{k} p^k (1-p)^{l-k}. \tag{4.4}$$

The easiest way to check this is to note that the two sides of (4.4) agree for  $k = 0$ , and differences of the two sides of (4.4) for successive values of  $k$  also agree.

By L’Hospital’s Rule, whenever (1.6) holds, it follows from (4.2) that

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\mathbb{P}(S_D \geq k)}{\mathbb{P}(S_D \geq k-1)} = \frac{k - \beta}{k - 1}. \tag{4.5}$$

Using (4.5) repeatedly gives

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{\mathbb{P}(S_D \geq m+k)}{\mathbb{P}(S_D \geq m)} = \prod_{j=1}^k \frac{m+j-\beta}{m+j-1}.$$

Now (4.1) follows from this and the fact that  $\sum_j (\beta - 1)(m + j - 1) = \infty$ . □

## 5 Convergence to trivial fixed points

Next we consider what happens in the less interesting regime  $m < \beta - 1$ .

**Remark 5.1.** *If (1.4) holds with  $m = \beta - 1$ , then Theorems 1.2 and 1.3 provide the conclusion of Theorem 1.4 even though  $ED^m$  may be infinite.*

*Proof of Theorem 1.4.* From (2.1) with  $n = k - 1$  and the dominated convergence theorem, we see that

$$\mathbb{P}(S_D = k - 1) \sim p^{k-1} E \binom{D}{k-1} \text{ as } p \downarrow 0. \tag{5.1}$$

We need to show that

$$\lim_{p \rightarrow 0} \frac{\mathbb{P}(S_D \geq k)}{p^{k-1}} = 0.$$

This will follow from (4.3) and the dominated convergence theorem provided that

$$1 - \sum_{n=0}^{k-1} \binom{l}{n} p^n (1-p)^{l-n} \leq C(lp)^{k-1} \tag{5.2}$$

for some  $C$  depending only on  $k$ , and

$$1 - \sum_{n=0}^{k-1} \binom{l}{n} p^n (1-p)^{l-n} = o(p^{k-1}) \tag{5.3}$$

as  $p \rightarrow 0$  for each  $l$ . Both (5.2) and (5.3) follow from

$$1 - \sum_{n=0}^{k-1} \binom{l}{n} p^n (1-p)^{l-n} \leq C(lp)^k \tag{5.4}$$

for some (different) constant  $C$ , again depending only on  $k$ ; (5.4) is a Chernoff bound; see [10, formula (12)]. That (5.3) follows from (5.4) is immediate. To deduce (5.2) from (5.4) write

$$1 - \sum_{n=0}^{k-1} \binom{l}{n} p^n (1-p)^{l-n} = 1 - \sum_{n=0}^{k-2} \binom{l}{n} p^n (1-p)^{l-n} - \binom{l}{k-1} p^{k-1} (1-p)^{l-k+1} \tag{5.5}$$

and apply (5.4) to the first part of (5.5) with  $k$  replaced by  $k-1$ .

The final statement follows from (5.1) with  $k = m + 1$ . □

## 6 Infinite divisibility

We will show that the distributions in (2.4) are *infinitely divisible*; this is relatively easy, thanks to a result from renewal theory.

**Proposition 6.1.** *Suppose the sequence  $\{u(n), n \geq 0\}$  satisfies  $u(0) = 1$ ,*

$$u(n) > 0, u(n-1)u(n+1) \geq u^2(n) \text{ for } n \geq 1 \text{ and } \lim_n \frac{u(n)}{u(n+1)} > 0. \tag{6.1}$$

Let

$$\log \left( \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u(n)s^n \right) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda(n)s^n. \tag{6.2}$$

Then  $\lambda(n) \geq 0$  for  $n \geq 1$ .

*Proof.* Let  $\{f(n), n \geq 1\}$  be the sequence associated to  $u(\cdot)$  by the renewal equation:

$$u(n) = \sum_{k=1}^n f(k)u(n-k), \tag{6.3}$$

and consider the two generating functions

$$U(s) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u(n)s^n \text{ and } F(s) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} f(n)s^n.$$

Multiplying (6.3) by  $s^n$  and summing for  $n \geq 0$  gives

$$U(s) = 1 + U(s)F(s), \text{ or equivalently } U(s) = \frac{1}{1 - F(s)}.$$

Therefore, (6.2) can be written as

$$\log[U(s)] = -\log(1 - F(s)) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{[F(s)]^n}{n}.$$

Kaluza ([11]) proved that  $f(k) \geq 0$  for all  $k \geq 1$ . (See [13, Theorem 1] for generalizations of this statement; see also [16].) Therefore the series in (6.2) has nonnegative coefficients. □



The inequality in (6.1) is known as log-convexity of the sequence  $u$ . There is a long history of connections between log-convexity and infinite divisibility; see [17] [19] and [15, Thm. 51.3; Notes on p. 426], for example.

**Corollary 6.2.** *For  $m = 1, 2, \dots$ , and  $\alpha \in (0, m)$ , the probability distribution for  $D$  specified by (2.4) and (2.5) is infinitely divisible.*

*Proof.* Let  $X = D - m$ , and define  $u(n) = \mathbb{P}(X = n)/\mathbb{P}(X = 0)$  for  $n \geq 0$ . This yields

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u(n)s^n = \left[ 1 - (1-s)^\alpha - \sum_{k=0}^{m-1} (-1)^k \frac{(\alpha)_k}{k!} s^k \right] / (-1)^m \frac{(\alpha)_m}{m!} s^m,$$

so that  $u(0) = 1$ ,  $u(n) > 0$  for all  $n > 0$  and  $u(n)/u(n+1) = (m+n+1)/(m+n-\alpha)$ , which is decreasing in  $n$ , so that (6.1) is satisfied. The probability generating function of  $X$  is

$$G_X(s) := \mathbb{E} s^X = \mathbb{P}(X = 0) \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u(n)s^n = \mathbb{P}(X = 0) \exp \left( \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \lambda(n)s^n \right),$$

and Proposition 6.1 shows that  $\lambda(n) \geq 0$  for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ . Hence  $X$  is equal in distribution to  $\sum_{n \geq 1} nZ_n$ , where  $Z_1, Z_2, \dots$  are independent, and  $Z_n$  is Poisson distributed with parameter  $\lambda(n)$ .  $\square$

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