On the Distributions of Logarithmic Derivative of Differentiable Measures on R

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In [1], Hora discussed distributions of logarithmic derivative of differentiable probability measures on R and obtained the following theorem with Yamasaki.

Theorem. Let P be an arbitrary probability distribution with mean 0 which is not Dirac measure δ_0 at 0. Then there exists some differentiable probability measure $d\mu(x)=f(x)dx$ such that $P(E)=\mu(x|f'(x)/f(x)\in E)$ for all $E\in\mathfrak{B}(R)$, where dx is the Lebesgue measure on R and $\mathfrak{B}(R)$ is the usual Borel field on R.

In this note, we will give a simple proof of this theorem and add a few comments. First we shall supplement some definitions and a few facts. (See, [1] and [2]).

- (a) A probability measure μ is said to be differentiable, if $\mu(E-t)$ is a differentiable function of t for each $E \in \mathfrak{B}(\mathbf{R})$.
- (b) For the differentiability of μ , it is necessary and sufficient that (1) μ is absolutely continuous with dx and (2) its density f(x) is differentiable almost everywhere on R and $f'(x) \in L^1_{dx}(R)$.
- (c) If δ_0 would coincide with the distribution μ_f of logarithmic derivative f'/f of μ $(d\mu(x)=f(x)dx)$, then it follows that f'=0 almost everywhere and that $f\equiv 0$. Thus we must exclude the case $P=\delta_0$ for this problem.
- (d) The distribution μ_f has mean 0. Therefore we must consider only probability distributions P with mean 0.

Before beginning the proof of the Theorem, we wish to state some idea which is somewhat formal. For a given P define a function $\omega(t)$ on (0, 1) such that $\omega(t) = \sup\{x \in R \mid P((-\infty, x)) \le t\}$. Then ω is increasing and by the properties of supremum,

(1)
$$P((-\infty, \omega(t))) \leq t$$
 for all $t \in (0, 1)$, and

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(2)
$$P((-\infty, x)) > t$$
, if $x > \omega(t)$.

Now let λ be the Lebesgue measure on [0,1] and define a measure $\omega\lambda$ on $\mathfrak{B}(R)$ such that $\omega\lambda(E)=\lambda(t|\omega(t)\in E)$ for all $E\in\mathfrak{B}(R)$. It follows from (2) that $\omega\lambda((-\infty,x))=P((-\infty,x))$ for all $x\in R$. So we have

(3)
$$\omega \lambda = P$$
.

Consequently,

(4)
$$\int_0^1 |\omega(t)| d\lambda(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x| dP(x) < \infty, \quad \text{and} \quad$$

(5)
$$\int_0^1 \omega(t) d\lambda(t) = \int_{-\infty}^\infty x \, dP(x) = 0.$$

Thus the problem is to find f which satisfies $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \chi_E(f'(x)/f(x))f(x)dx = \int_{-\infty}^{1} \chi_E(\omega(t))dt$, where χ_E is the indicator function of any Borel set E.

In order to find such f, we rewrite the right hand side using integration by substitution with a suitable monotone differentiable function γ on (0,1). After some calculations (which is omitted here) we reach to a contradiction in the case that γ is strictly increasing. On the other hand if γ is strictly decreasing, then putting $\lim_{t\to 1} \gamma(t) = \alpha$, $\lim_{t\to 0} \gamma(t) = \beta$, we have $\int_0^1 \chi_E(\omega(t)) dt = -\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \chi_E(\omega(\gamma^{-1}(x)))(\gamma^{-1}(x))' dx$. So if we take

(6)
$$f'(x)/f(x) = \omega(\gamma^{-1}(x)), \quad \text{and} \quad$$

(7)
$$f(x) = -(\gamma^{-1}(x))' = \frac{-1}{\gamma'(\gamma^{-1}(x))},$$

then the both sides in the above equality have the same form except the lower limit and upper limit of integration. From (6) and (7) it follows that $\omega(\tau^{-1}(x)) = -\tau'(\tau^{-1}(x))f'(x)$ and therefore $\omega(t) = -(f \circ \tau)'(t)$. Thus for a function defined by $h(t) = \int_0^t \omega(\tau) d\tau$, we have $f(\tau(t)) = -h(t) + \cos t$ and this constant must be 0, because f(x) must satisfy $\lim_{x \to +\infty} f(x) = 0$. Further it follows from (7) $\tau'(t) = h(t)^{-1}$ and $\tau(t) = \int_{1/2}^t \frac{d\tau}{h(\tau)} + \cos t$. From now on we shall show that this procedure actually gives the desired function f.

(Proof of Theorem)

It is clear that $h(t) \equiv \int_0^t \omega(\tau) d\tau$ is absolutely continuous, and that h(0) = h(1) = 0. h(t) is negative on (0, 1). In fact suppose that h(t) would be 0 for some $t_0 \in (0, 1)$. Then $0 = h(1) - h(t_0) = \int_{t_0}^1 \omega(\tau) d\tau \ge \omega(t_0) (1 - t_0)$, which shows $\omega(t_0) \le 0$. Similarly $0 = h(t_0) - h(0)$ shows $\omega(t_0) \ge 0$, hence $\omega(t_0) = 0$. Again from 0 = h(1) - h(1) = h(1) = h(1) = h(1).

 $h(t_0)=h(t_0)-h(0)$, we have $\omega(\tau)\equiv 0$ on (0,1), which contradicts to $P\neq \delta_0$. As $\omega(\tau)$ is negative for sufficiently small τ , h(t) is negative on (0,1). Now we can define a function γ on (0,1) such that $\gamma(t)=\int_{1/2}^t \frac{d\lambda(\tau)}{h(\tau)}$. Then γ is strictly decreasing continuously differentiable function on (0,1). Put $\lim_{t\to 1}\gamma(t)=\alpha$ $(\geq -\infty)$ and $\lim_{t\to 0}\gamma(t)=\beta$ $(\leq \infty)$. Lastly we define a function f(x) on R such that $f(x)=-h(\gamma^{-1}(x))$, if $x\in (\alpha,\beta)$ and f(x)=0, otherwise. Since f is absolutely continuous on any closed interval of (α,β) and $\lim_{x\to \alpha}f(x)=\lim_{x\to \beta}f(x)=0$, so it is continuous, differentiable almost everywhere and

(8)
$$f'(x) = -\omega(\gamma^{-1}(x))h(\gamma^{-1}(x)) = \omega(\gamma^{-1}(x))f(x) \quad \text{on } (\alpha, \beta).$$

Then

(9)
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)dx = -\int_{a}^{\beta} h(\gamma^{-1}(x))dx = \int_{0}^{a} h(t)\gamma'(t)d\lambda(t) = 1, \quad \text{and}$$

(10)
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f'(x)| dx = \int_{a}^{\beta} |\omega(\gamma^{-1}(x))| f(x) dx = \int_{0}^{1} |\omega(t)| d\lambda(t) < \infty.$$

Consequently f(x) is an absolutely continuous function on R and a measure defined by $d\mu(x)=f(x)dx$ is differentiable. Now we have $\mu(x\mid f'(x)/f(x)\in E)=-\int_{\alpha}^{\beta} \chi_{E}(\omega(\gamma^{-1}(x))h(\gamma^{-1}(x))dx=\int_{0}^{1} \chi_{E}(\omega(t))d\lambda(t)=P(E)$ for all Borel sets E.

Q. E. D.

Remark 1. $f_k(x) \equiv f(x+k)$ (k: an arbitrary constant) also satisfies $\mu_{f_k} = P$, because the translation of f does not change the distribution of logarithmic derivative.

Remark 2. If P is a symmetric distribution i.e., P(E)=P(-E) for all $E \in \mathfrak{B}(\mathbf{R})$, then f is an even function and f(0)>0.

Proof. Take any $t \in (0, 1/2)$. Then $P((-\infty, \omega(t+1/2)+\varepsilon))>t+1/2$ and $P((-\varepsilon-\omega(1/2-t), \infty))=P((-\infty, \omega(1/2-t)+\varepsilon))>1/2-t$. It follows that $\omega(t+1/2)+\varepsilon>-\varepsilon-\omega(1/2-t)$ for all $\varepsilon>0$ and hence $\omega(t+1/2)+\omega(1/2-t)\ge 0$. Since $0=\int_0^1 \omega(t)d\lambda(t)=\int_0^{1/2} \{\omega(t+1/2)+\omega(1/2-t)\}d\lambda(t)$, so $\omega(t+1/2)+\omega(1/2-t)=0$ for almost all $t \in (0, 1/2)$. Consequently it follows from (5) h(t+1/2)=h(1/2-t) and from this $\gamma(t+1/2)=-\gamma(1/2-t)$ for all $t \in (0, 1/2)$. Thus we have $f(0)=-h(\gamma^{-1}(0))=-h(1/2)>0$, and $f(\gamma(t+1/2))=-h(t+1/2)=-h(1/2-t)=f(\gamma(1/2-t))=f(-\gamma(t+1/2))$. Q. E. D.

Conversely, it is evident that if f is an even function then μ_f is symmetric.

Example 1. $P=U_{-a,a}$ (a>0): Uniform distribution on [-a, a].

By simple computations, we have $\omega(t) = a(2t-1)$, h(t) = at(t-1) and $\gamma(t) = a^{-1}\log(t^{-1}(1-t))$. Therefore $\gamma^{-1}(x) = \{1 + \exp(ax)\}^{-1}$ and $f(x) = a\exp(ax) \{1 + \exp(ax)\}^{-2}$.

Example 2. P = N(0, 1): Normal distribution with mean 0 and variance 1.

Put $G(x)=(2\pi)^{-1/2}\int_{-\infty}^x \exp(-x^2/2)dx$. Then it is easy to see that $\omega(t)=G^{-1}(t)$, $h(t)=-(2\pi)^{-1/2}\exp(-G^{-1}(t)^2/2)$ and $\gamma(t)=-G^{-1}(t)$. Thus we have $\gamma^{-1}(x)=G(-x)$ and $f(x)=(2\pi)^{-1/2}\exp(-x^2/2)$.

Remark 3. As we have seen in Remark 1, a function f which satisfies $\mu_f = P$ for a given P is not unique. By the way we can take f as an even function, if P is symmetric. However such an even function is not uniquely determined as it will be seen in the following example.

Example 3. Put $g(x)=1/2|x|\exp(-|x|)$. Then $d\mu(x)=g(x)dx$ is a differentiable measure and after some calculations we have,

$$\mu(x \mid g'(x)/g(x) \in E) = 1/2 \int_{E} \left\{ \frac{1}{(1+\mid x\mid)^{3}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{1+\mid x\mid}\right) + \chi_{[-1, 1]}(x) \frac{1}{(1-\mid x\mid)^{3}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{1-\mid x\mid}\right) \right\} dx.$$

Thus for the measure P defined by the right hand side in the above equality, g and f obtained in the proof of Theorem are even solutions of $\mu_f = P$. However they does not coincide with each other, because g(0)=0 and f(0)>0.

References

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