

On the class of infinitely divisible distributions and on its subclasses

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1. On the symmetry of infinitely divisible and stable distributions. As it is known [4], the logarithm of the characteristic function f(t) of any infinitely divisible distribution can be written in the Lévy form

(1)
$$\log f(t) = i\gamma t - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2 + \int_{-\infty}^{0} \left(e^{itu} - 1 - \frac{itu}{1 + u^2}\right) dM(u) + \int_{0}^{\infty} \left(e^{itu} - 1 - \frac{itu}{1 + u^2}\right) dN(u),$$

where $\gamma=\mathrm{const},\ \sigma\geqslant0,\ M(u)$ and N(u) are non-decreasing (continuous from the left) functions, defined on $(-\infty,0)$ and $(0,+\infty)$ respectively, and such that $M(-\infty)=N(+\infty)=0$ and

$$\int\limits_{-\varepsilon}^{0}u^{2}dM(u)+\int\limits_{0}^{\varepsilon}u^{2}dN(u)<+\infty$$

for every $\varepsilon > 0$.

Let us introduce the following definition:

DEFINITION. An infinitely divisible distribution (1) X is said to be completely asymmetric in the class of infinitely divisible distributions (denoted in the sequel by I) if it is impossible to represent it in the form $X = X_1 + X_2$, where $X_1, X_2 \in I$, X_1 and X_2 are independent and X_1 is symmetric.

The following theorem holds:

Theorem 1. Every infinitely divisible distribution X can be written in the form

(2)
$$X = a_1 X^{(8)} + a_2 X^{(a)},$$

where $a_1, a_2 = 0$ or $1, a_1 + a_2 > 0, X^{(s)}, X^{(a)} \in I, X^{(s)}$ is symmetric and $X^{(a)}$ is completely asymmetric in the class I.

⁽¹⁾ We assume all considered distributions to be non-degenerate.

Proof. Lévy functions M(u) and N(u) of an infinitely divisible distribution X define on $(-\infty,0)\cup(0,\infty)$ a non-negative measure μ satisfying the conditions

$$\int\limits_{-1}^{0}u^{2}\mu(du)+\int\limits_{0}^{1}u^{2}\mu(du)<+\infty, \hspace{0.5cm} \mu(-\infty,1)<\infty, \hspace{0.5cm} \mu(1,\infty)<\infty$$

and such that

(1')
$$\log f(t) = i\gamma t - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 t^2 + \int_{u \to 0} \left(e^{itu} - 1 - \frac{itu}{1 + u^2} \right) \mu(du).$$

Let us define the measure μ^* by the formula

$$\mu^*(A) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mu(-A)$$

where the set -A denotes the symmetric reflection of A with respect to u=0. Let us write further $\mu+\mu^*=\nu$. Obviously the measures μ and μ^* are absolutely continuous with respect to the measure ν . Therefore, in virtue of Radon-Nikodym theorem, we may write

$$\mu(A) = \int\limits_A \varrho(u) \nu(du)$$

where $\varrho(u) \geqslant 0$ is a measurable function. Let us write

$$\varrho_s(u) = \min(\varrho(u), \varrho(-u)), \quad \varrho_s(u) = \varrho(u) - \varrho_s(u).$$

We have of course $\varrho(u)=\varrho_s(u)+\varrho_a(u)$, $\varrho_s(u)\geqslant 0$, $\varrho_a(u)\geqslant 0$, $\varrho_s(u)=\varrho_s(-u)$ and for every u either $\varrho_a(u)=0$ or $\varrho_s(-u)=0$. The functions $\varrho_s(u)$ and $\varrho_a(u)$ define the measures μ_s and μ_a respectively by the formulas

$$\mu_{\mathbf{s}}(A) = \int\limits_{A} \varrho_{\mathbf{s}}(u) \, v(du), \quad \mu_{\mathbf{a}}(A) = \int\limits_{A} \varrho_{\mathbf{a}}(u) \, v(du).$$

We have of course

$$\mu = \mu_s + \mu_a$$
.

The measure μ_s is symmetric ($\mu_s = \mu_s^*$) and the measure μ_a is completely asymmetric (if $0 \leqslant \mu_1 \leqslant \mu_a$ and $\mu_1 = \mu_1^*$, then $\mu_1 \equiv 0$). The measures μ_s and μ_a define the distributions $X^{(s)}$ and $X^{(a)}$ by means of (1') (the term $i\gamma t$ we include to $X^{(a)}$ and the term $-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2$ to $X^{(s)}$). Theorem 1 is thus proved.

If the distribution X from Theorem 1 is completely asymmetric in I, we have $a_1 = 0$. If X is symmetric, we have $a_2 = 0$.

In the sequel we shall use the following theorem due to Braumann [2]:

BRAUMANN'S THEOREM. Infinitely divisible distribution X is symmetric with respect to a if and only if for every u > 0 such that u is a continuity point of N(u) and -u is a continuity point of M(u) we have M(-u) = -N(u). Besides $a = \gamma$.

Observe that every non-normal, symmetric, infinitely divisible distribution X is a composition of two distributions completely asymmetric in I. Indeed, if X is defined by Lévy functions M(u) and $N(u) = -M(-u) \neq 0$, we can write $X = X_1 + X_2$, where X_1 is defined by $M_1(u) = M(u)$, $N_1(u) \equiv 0$ and X_2 is defined by $M_2(u) \equiv 0$, $N_2(u) = N(u)$.

We may make the following remark:

REMARK. Every stable distribution X can be written in the form (2), where $X^{(s)}$ and $X^{(a)}$ are stable.

Indeed, for a non-normal stable distribution X we have $M(u) = c_1/|u|^a$, $N(u) = -c_2/u^a$, where $c_1 \ge 0$, $c_2 \ge 0$, $c_1 + c_2 > 0$, $0 < \alpha < 2$. If $c_1 \ge c_2$, the distribution $X^{(s)}$ is defined by Lévy functions $M^{(s)}(u) = c_2/|u|^a$, $N^{(s)}(u) = -c_2/u^a$ and the distribution $X^{(a)}$ is defined by $M^{(a)}(u) = (c_1 - c_2)/|u|^a$, $N^{(a)}(u) \equiv 0$. Similarly in the case of $c_1 < c_2$. In either case $X^{(s)}$ and $X^{(a)}$ are stable.

It is easy to observe that for $c_1 = c_2$ the stable distribution X is symmetric (in formula (2) $a_1 = 1$, $a_2 = 0$) and for $c_1 \neq c_2$ the distribution X is asymmetric; if $c_1 = 0$ or $c_2 = 0$, the distribution X is completely asymmetric in I ($a_1 = 0$, $a_2 = 1$).

The logarithm of the characteristic function of a stable distribution can be written in the form (1) with $M(u) = c_1/|u|^a$, $N(u) = -c_2/u^a$ or in the form

(3)
$$\log f(t) = i\gamma t - c|t|^a \left[1 + i\beta \frac{t}{|t|} \omega(t, a) \right],$$

where $0 < \alpha \le 2$, $c \ge 0$, $-1 \le \beta \le 1$. Coefficients c_1, c_2 and β satisfy relations

(4)
$$\beta = \frac{c_1 - c_2}{c_1 + c_2}, \quad \text{if} \quad \alpha \neq 1, \alpha \neq 2,$$

(4')
$$\beta = \frac{c_2 - c_1}{c_1 + c_2}, \quad \text{if} \quad \alpha = 1.$$

Formula (3) can be written in the form

$$(3') \qquad \log f(t) = i\gamma t - b_1 |t|^a - b_2 |t|^a \left(1 \pm \frac{t}{|t|} i\omega(t, a)\right),$$

where $b_1 = (1 - |\beta|)c \geqslant 0$, $b_2 = |\beta|c \geqslant 0$.



 $b_1=0$ is equivalent to $|\beta|=1$ (or c=0 which represents a degenerate distribution). In view of (4) and (4') this corresponds to $c_1=0$ or $c_2=0$ hence to a distribution completely asymmetric in I.

 $b_2=0$ is equivalent to $\beta=0$ (or c=0). In view of (4) and (4') this corresponds to $c_1=c_2$, hence to a symmetric distribution (the last conclusion follows also from the fact that in this case $\log f(t)$ is real).

Formula (3') gives us therefore two separated parts of every stable distribution: the symmetric part and the part completely asymmetric in I.

In Lukaes' book [9], p. 106, we find the following theorem:

The stable distributions with $0 < \alpha < 1$ and $|\beta| = 1$ are bounded from one side (from the right, if $\beta = +1$, from the left, if $\beta = -1$).

We shall show that the same is true also for $1 < \alpha < 2$ and $|\beta| = 1$. We shall base the proof on the following theorem (Baxter and Shapiro [1]):

Infinitely divisible distribution X is bounded from the right if and only if

$$N(u) \equiv 0$$
, $\sigma^2 = 0$ and $\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \int_{-1}^{-\epsilon} M(u) du < + \infty$.

X is bounded from the left if and only if

$$M(u) \equiv 0$$
, $\sigma^2 = 0$ and $\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \int_{\epsilon}^{1} N(u) du > -\infty$.

For 1< a< 2 we have $\beta=1$ if and only if $c_2=0$ (i.e. $N(u)\equiv 0$), and $\beta=-1$ if and only if $c_1=0$ (i.e. $M(u)\equiv 0$). Take $\beta=-1$. We have

$$\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \int_{\epsilon}^{1} N(u) du = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \int_{\epsilon}^{1} \frac{-c_2}{u^a} du = \frac{-c_2}{-\alpha + 1} > -\infty.$$

Thus, when $1 < \alpha < 2$ and $\beta = -1$, the stable distribution is bounded from the left. Quite similarly we prove the boundedness from the right for $1 < \alpha < 2$ and $\beta = 1$.

It is easy to verify that:

The stable distributions with a=1 and $|\beta|=1$ are unbounded from both sides. These are the only completely asymmetric in I stable distributions which are unbounded from both sides.

Observe still that the stable distributions with $|\beta| \neq 1$ are unbounded from both sides (for when $|\beta| \neq 1$, in view of (4) and (4') we have $c_1 \neq 0$ and $c_2 \neq 0$ or $M(u) \neq 0$, $N(u) \neq 0$).

Let us summarize these results in the form of a table:

а	<i>β</i>	boundedness	symmetry
2		unbounded from both sides	symmetric (normal distribution)
≠ 2	≠ 1	unbounded from both sides	symmetric $(\beta=0)$ or includes both the symmetric and the completely asymmetric parts $(\beta\neq0)$
$\neq 2$ $\neq 1$	1	bounded from one side	completely asymmetric
1	1	unbounded from both sides	completely asymmetric

2. On the decompositions. It is known that the class I is closed under compositions but is not closed under decompositions ([4], §17). In my paper [7] I observed that the class L is closed under compositions and in [8] I observed that the class of stable distributions is not closed under compositions. It is easy to observe that the class L and the class of stable distributions are not closed under decompositions. Indeed, we have $X_0 = X_1 + X_2$, where Lévy functions $M_i(u)$, $N_i(u)$ of X_i (i = 0, 1, 2) are defined as follows: $M_i(u) \equiv 0$ (i = 0, 1, 2), $N_2(u) = N_0(u) - N_1(u)$,

$$\begin{split} N_0(u) &= \begin{cases} \ln u & \text{for} \quad 0 < u \leqslant 1, \\ 0 & \text{for} \quad u > 1; \end{cases} \\ N_1(u) &= \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \ln u + \frac{1}{4} u^2 - \frac{1}{4} & \text{for} \quad 0 < u \leqslant 1, \\ 0 & \text{for} \quad u > 1. \end{cases} \end{split}$$

Obviously $X_0, X_2 \in L, X_1 \notin L$. Similarly we have $X_0 = X_1 + X_2$, where $N_i(u) \equiv 0 \ (i=0,1,2), \ M_2(u) = M_0(u) - M_1(u), \ M_0(u) = -1/u$,

$$M_1(u) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for} \quad u \leqslant -1, \\ u+1 & \text{for} \quad u > -1. \end{cases}$$

Obviously distribution X_0 is stable but X_1 and X_2 are not stable. The probability distribution X is said to be unimodal if there exists at least one value a such that the distribution function F(x) of X is convex for x < a and concave for x > a. Chung [3] has proved that the class of unimodal distributions is not closed under compositions. I shall prove

THEOREM 2. The class of unimodal distributions is not closed under decompositions.

The proof will be based on a simple lemma:

Lemma. If the distribution X is unimodal, then the distribution -X is also unimodal.

Let X be unimodal. Therefore its distribution function F(x) is convex for x < a and concave for x > a. For $x \neq -a$ the distribution function of -X is equal to $F_1(x) = 1 - F(-x)$ and so it is convex for x < -a and concave for x > -a.

Proof of Theorem 2. Ibragimov [5] has proved that not all distributions from the class L are unimodal. Let us take a non-unimodal distribution X_1 from the class L. In virtue of the lemma, distribution $X_2 = -X_1$ is also non-unimodal and it belongs of course to the class L. The distribution $X = X_1 + X_2$ is clearly symmetric and $X \in L$. Thus the distribution X is unimodal, because every symmetric distribution from the class L is unimodal (Wintner [10]). Thus we have a decomposition of a unimodal distribution from the class L into two non-unimodal distributions from the class L. Theorem 2 is thus proved.

The following corollary results immediately from the proof of Theorem 2:

COROLLARY. The class of unimodal distributions from the class L is not closed under decompositions in L.

Ibragimov [6] has introduced the notion of strongly unimodal distributions: a distribution is strongly unimodal, if its composition with any unimodal distribution is unimodal. The class of strongly unimodal distributions is closed under compositions (see [6]). I shall show that this class is not closed under decompositions. I shall use the following theorem due to Ibragimov:

IBRAGIMOV'S THEOREM. A non-degenerate unimodal distribution X is strongly unimodal if and only if its distribution function F(x) is continuous and the function $\omega(x) = \log F'(x)$ is concave at the set E of points where neither the right nor the left derivative of the function F(x) is equal to zero.

Let us consider the gamma distribution X with density function

$$p(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x \leq 0, \\ \frac{b^p}{\Gamma(p)} x^{p-1} e^{-bx} & \text{for } x > 0, \end{cases} p > 0, b > 0.$$

It is easy to verify that it is a unimodal distribution. If p > 1, its distribution function F(x) is convex for x < (p-1)/b and concave for x > (p-1)/b. If $p \le 1$, F(x) is convex for x < 0 and concave for x > 0.

The set E defined in Ibragimov's theorem consists of all the points x > 0. We have

$$\omega^{\prime\prime}(x)=\frac{1-p}{x^2}.$$

Thus, the function $\omega(x)$ is concave for $p \ge 1$ and convex for $p \le 1$. Therefore the gamma distribution is strongly unimodal for $p \ge 1$ and non-strongly unimodal for p < 1.

Let us now take two independent gamma distributions X_1 and X_2 with the same values of parameters $b_1=b_2=b$ and $p_1=p_2, \frac{1}{2} < p_1 < 1$. The distribution $X=X_1+X_2$ is a gamma distribution with parameter $p=2p_1>1$ and so it is a strongly unimodal distribution. Thus we have proved:

THEOREM 3. The class of strongly unimodal distributions is not closed under decompositions (even if the components are assumed to be identically distributed).

Since gamma distributions belong to the class L we have immediately the following corollary:

COROLLARY. The class of strongly unimodal distributions from the class L is not closed under decompositions in the class L (even if the components are assumed to be identically distributed).

We have seen that the composition of two non-strongly unimodal distributions may be strongly unimodal. It may also be, of course, non-strongly unimodal. It suffices to take the composition of two gamma distributions with parameters $p_1 < \frac{1}{2}$ and $p_2 < \frac{1}{2}$. It is easy to observe that the composition of a strongly-unimodal and of a non-strongly unimodal distributions may be strongly unimodal. It suffices to take the composition of two gamma distributions: one with p < 1 and the second with p > 1. But the composition of a strongly unimodal and of a non-strongly unimodal distributions may also be non-strongly unimodal. It suffices to take the composition of the uniform distribution with density function

$$p_1(x) = egin{cases} 0 & ext{for} & x < 0, \ 1 & ext{for} & 0 < x < 1, \ 0 & ext{for} & x > 1, \end{cases}$$

which is strongly unimodal and of the distribution with density function

$$p_{z}(x) = egin{cases} 0 & ext{for} & x \leqslant 0\,, \ 1/2\sqrt{x} & ext{for} & 0 < x < 1\,, \ 0 & ext{for} & x > 1\,, \end{cases}$$

which is non-strongly unimodal. The composition of these distributions has the density function

$$p(x) = egin{cases} 0 & ext{for} & x < 0\,, \\ \sqrt{x} & ext{for} & 0 < x < 1\,, \\ 1 - \sqrt{x - 1} & ext{for} & 1 < x < 2\,, \\ 0 & ext{for} & x > 2\,. \end{cases}$$



It is easy to verify that this distribution is non-strongly unimodal. It must be mentioned that Lukacs and also Dugué gave an example of decomposition of Cauchy distribution into two non-stable distributions (see e. g. [9], § 9.2).

3. On the distributions of the same sort and of the same type. The logarithm of characteristic function f(t) of an infinitely divisible distribution X with finite variance can be written in Kolmogorov's form [4]:

$$\log f(t) = i\gamma t + \int\limits_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (e^{itu} - 1 - itu) \frac{1}{u^2} dK(u),$$

where $\gamma = \text{const}$, K(u) (Kolmogorov function) is a non-decreasing bounded function, $K(-\infty) = 0$. If $X_1 = aX + b$, a > 0, we have $f_1(t) = f(at)e^{ibt}$ and so

$$\log f_1(t) = it(a\gamma + b) + \int\limits_{-\infty}^{+\infty} (e^{itu} - 1 - itu) rac{1}{u^2} a^2 dK \left(rac{u}{a}
ight).$$

Thus the distribution $X_1 = aX + b$ (a > 0) is defined by $\gamma_1 = a\gamma + b$ and $K_1(u) = a^2K(u/a)$.

In my paper [8] I introduced the notion of distributions of the same sort. If infinitely divisible distributions X and X_1 have finite variances, then they are of the same sort if and only if there exists a constant a>0 such that $K_1(u)=aK(u)$ for all u, where K(u) and $K_1(u)$ are Kolmogorov functions of X and X_1 , respectively. The question arises, when two infinitely divisible distributions X and X_1 with finite variances are simultaneously of the same type and of the same sort. We must then have for all u

$$a^2K\left(\frac{u}{a}\right)=aK(u), \quad a>0, a>0.$$

Substituting u = 0 we obtain $a = a^2$, hence

(5)
$$K(u) = K\left(\frac{u}{a}\right), \quad a > 0.$$

Suppose now that (5) holds for some a<1. Let us take an arbitrary $u_0>0$ and form the increasing sequence $u_n=u_{n-1}/a$. From (5) we have $K(u_{n-1})=K(u_n)$ and since $\lim_{u\to\infty}u_n=+\infty$ and K(u) does not decrease, $K(u)=\mathrm{const}$ for $u\geqslant u_0$. Similarly, taking the decreasing sequence $u_{-n}=au_{-n+1}$, which converges to zero, we state that $K(u)=\mathrm{const}$ for $0< u\leqslant u_0$. Therefore $K(u)=\mathrm{const}$ for u>0. Similarly (taking $u_0<0$) we have $K(u)=\mathrm{const}$ for u<0. The case a>1 is quite analogous. We have then

THEOREM 4. The class of normal distributions is the only class of distributions with finite variances which are of the same sort and simultaneously form one type of distributions.

This theorem gives us a new characterization of normal distributions (another characterization I gave in my paper [8]).

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