

ANNALES DE L'I. H. P., SECTION B

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Annales de l'I. H. P., section B, tome 19, n° 1 (1983), p. 57-69

http://www.numdam.org/item?id=AIHPB_1983__19_1_57_0

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Conditional symmetries of stable measures on \mathbf{R}^n

by

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ABSTRACT. — A result concerning conditional symmetries of symmetric p -stable laws μ on \mathbf{R}^2 is proved. μ is said to be conditional symmetric w. r. t. a real number c , if for all Borel sets B_1, B_2

$$\mu \{ (\xi_1, \xi_2), \xi_1 \in B_1, \xi_2 - c\xi_1 \in B_2 \} = \mu \{ (\xi_1, \xi_2), \xi_1 \in B_1, c\xi_1 - \xi_2 \in B_2 \}$$

is valid.

It is given a characterization of conditional symmetric stable laws. This result is then extended to \mathbf{R}^n .

RÉSUMÉ. — Pour des lois p -stables μ dans \mathbf{R}^2 , un résultat sur des symétries conditionnelles est prouvé. μ est dit conditionnellement symétrique par rapport à un nombre réel c , au cas où vaut

$$\mu \{ (\xi_1, \xi_2); \xi_1 \in B_1, \xi_2 - c\xi_1 \in B_2 \} = \mu \{ (\xi_1, \xi_2); \xi_1 \in B_1, c\xi_1 - \xi_2 \in B_2 \}$$

pour tous les ensembles Borel B_1, B_2 .

On obtient une caractérisation de lois stables conditionnellement symétriques. On peut étendre ce résultat à \mathbf{R}^n .

1. INTRODUCTION

All measures on \mathbf{R}^n are assumed to be finite and they are defined on the Borel subsets of \mathbf{R}^n . A measure μ is said to be *symmetric* if

$$\mu(\mathbf{B}) = \mu(-\mathbf{B})$$

for all Borel subsets $\mathbf{B} \subseteq \mathbf{R}^n$. If $\alpha > 0$ then $\tau_\alpha(\mu)$ is defined by

$$\tau_\alpha\mu(\mathbf{B}) = \mu(\alpha^{-1}\mathbf{B}).$$

Given $0 < p \leq 2$ the symmetric measure μ is said to be *p-stable* if for arbitrary $\alpha, \beta > 0$ the equality

$$\tau_\alpha(\mu) * \tau_\beta(\mu) = \tau_\gamma(\mu)$$

holds where $\gamma > 0$ can be calculated by $\gamma^p = \alpha^p + \beta^p$.

Let us denote by $\mathbf{R}_p(n)$ the set of all *p-stable symmetric measures on \mathbf{R}^n* .

Given $\mu \in \mathbf{R}_2(2)$, i. e. μ is Gaussian on \mathbf{R}^2 , there exists a real number c such that

$$(+) \quad \mu \{ (\xi_1, \xi_2); \xi_1 \in \mathbf{B}_1, c\xi_1 - \xi_2 \in \mathbf{B}_2 \} = \mu \{ (\xi_1, \xi_2); \xi_1 \in \mathbf{B}_1, \xi_2 - c\xi_1 \in \mathbf{B}_2 \}$$

for all Borel subsets $\mathbf{B}_1, \mathbf{B}_2 \subseteq \mathbf{R}^2$. The number c can be calculated by

$$c = \int_{\mathbf{R}^2} \xi_1 \xi_2 d\mu \bigg/ \int_{\mathbf{R}^2} |\xi_1|^2 d\mu$$

provided $\mu \{ \xi_1 = 0 \} = 0$.

One may ask now whether or not measures in $\mathbf{R}_p(2)$, $0 < p < 2$, possess the same property (+) as Gaussian ones. A first result in this direction was proved by M. Kanter ([1]) in 1972: If (X, Y) is a random vector whose distribution belongs to $\mathbf{R}_p(2)$, $1 < p < 2$, then there is a constant $c \in \mathbf{R}$ with

$$\mathbf{E}(cX - Y | X) = \mathbf{E}(Y - cX | X).$$

Here $\mathbf{E}(Z | X)$ means the conditional expectation of Z under the condition X . Later on A. Tortrat ([6]) stated the following theorem: For each $\mu \in \mathbf{R}_p(2)$ there exists a constant $c \in \mathbf{R}$ such that (+) holds. Unfortunately this is false in general. Thus the two following questions remained open:

- (1) Which $\mu \in \mathbf{R}_p(2)$ satisfy (+) with some $c \in \mathbf{R}$?
- (2) Is every $\mu \in \mathbf{R}_p(2)$ invariant under some reflection?

The purpose of this paper is to answer both questions. We hope that

these results clarify some geometric properties of p -stable symmetric measures, $0 < p < 2$, which are completely different from those of Gaussian measures (compare also [3]).

2. AUXILIARY RESULTS

In the sequel p always denotes a real number with $0 < p < 2$. If μ is a measure on \mathbf{R}^n its *characteristic function* $\hat{\mu}: \mathbf{R}^n \mapsto \mathbf{C}$ (field of complex numbers) is defined by

$$\hat{\mu}(a) = \int_{\mathbf{R}^n} \exp(i \langle x, a \rangle) d\mu(x), \quad a \in \mathbf{R}^n.$$

Then the following are equivalent ([2]):

- (1) $\mu \in \mathbf{R}_p(n)$.
- (2) There are $f_1, \dots, f_n \in L_p(\Omega, \mathbf{P})$ such that

$$\hat{\mu}(a) = \exp\left(- \int_{\Omega} \left| \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i f_i \right|^p d\mathbf{P}\right)$$

for all $a = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbf{R}^n$.

(3) If $\|\cdot\|$ is a norm on \mathbf{R}^n , ∂U the unit sphere defined by this norm then there is a measure λ on ∂U such that

$$\hat{\mu}(a) = \exp\left(- \int_{\partial U} |\langle x, a \rangle|^p d\lambda(x)\right), \quad a \in \mathbf{R}^n.$$

The measure λ on ∂U is called the *spectral measure* of μ . It is uniquely determined in the following sense: If $\tilde{\lambda}$ also generates $\hat{\mu}$ as in (3) then

$$\lambda(B) + \lambda(-B) = \tilde{\lambda}(B) + \tilde{\lambda}(-B)$$

for all Borel subsets $B \subseteq \partial U$. Particularly,

$$\lambda(B) = \tilde{\lambda}(B)$$

whenever $B = -B \subseteq \partial U$ is measurable.

As a consequence of the uniqueness we get:

LEMMA 1. — Let f_1, f_2 be in $L_p(\Omega, \mathbf{P})$ and let g_1, g_2 be in $L_p(\Omega', \mathbf{P}')$ such that

$$\int_{\Omega} |\alpha_1 f_1 + \alpha_2 f_2|^p d\mathbf{P} = \int_{\Omega'} |\alpha_1 g_1 + \alpha_2 g_2|^p d\mathbf{P}'$$

for all $(\alpha_1, \alpha_2) \in \mathbf{R}^2$. Then

$$(1) \quad \int_{\{f_1=0\}} |f_2|^p d\mathbf{P} = \int_{\{g_1=0\}} |g_2|^p d\mathbf{P}'$$

and

$$(2) \quad \int_{\{f_1 \neq 0\}} |f_2|^p d\mathbf{P} = \int_{\{g_1 \neq 0\}} |g_2|^p d\mathbf{P}'.$$

Proof. — Because of $\int_{\Omega} |f_2|^p d\mathbf{P} = \int_{\Omega'} |g_2|^p d\mathbf{P}'$ (choose $\alpha_1 = 0, \alpha_2 = 1$) the second equality is an easy consequence of the first one. Define $f = (f_1, f_2)$ and $g = (g_1, g_2)$ as mappings from Ω and Ω' into \mathbf{R}^2 , respectively. If $\|\cdot\|$ is the Euclidean norm on \mathbf{R}^2 we put $\mathbf{B} = \{0\} \times \{1, -1\} \subseteq \partial\mathbf{U}$. Then

$$\int_{\{f/\|f\| \in \mathbf{B}\}} \|f\|^p d\mathbf{P} = \int_{\{g/\|g\| \in \mathbf{B}\}} \|g\|^p d\mathbf{P}' \quad \text{proving (1)}.$$

Let μ be in $\mathbf{R}_p(n)$. Then we denote by X_1, \dots, X_n the random variables defined by

$$X_j(x) = \zeta_j, \quad x = (\zeta_1, \dots, \zeta_n).$$

PROPOSITION 1 ([5]). — *Let μ be in $\mathbf{R}_p(n)$ with*

$$\hat{\mu}(a) = \exp \left(- \int_{\Omega} \left| \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i f_i \right|^p d\mathbf{P} \right).$$

Then, if $1 \leq k, l \leq n$, the random variables X_k and X_l are (stochastically) independent if and only if

$$\mathbf{P}(f_k \cdot f_l = 0) = 1.$$

Proof ⁽¹⁾. — Clearly, $\mathbf{P}(f_k \cdot f_l = 0) = 1$ implies the independence of X_k and X_l .

To prove the converse it suffices to treat the case $n = 2$. This follows by projecting \mathbf{R}^n onto \mathbf{R}^2 . Thus we assume that μ belongs to $\mathbf{R}_p(2)$ with

$$\hat{\mu}(a) = \exp \left(- \int_{\Omega} |\alpha_1 f_1 + \alpha_2 f_2|^p d\mathbf{P} \right)$$

⁽¹⁾ We enclose the proof of proposition 1 because the inequality used in [5] (p. 419) is false in the case $1 < p < 2$.

and X_1 and X_2 independent. Then

$$\hat{\mu}(a) = \exp \left(- \int_{\partial U} |\langle x, a \rangle|^p d\lambda(x) \right)$$

where

$$\lambda = \int_{\Omega} |f_1|^p dP \cdot \delta_{e_1} + \int_{\Omega} |f_2|^p dP \cdot \delta_{e_2}$$

with $e_1 = (1, 0)$ and $e_2 = (0, 1)$. By lemma 1 we get

$$\int_{\{f_1 \neq 0\}} |f_2|^p dP = \int_{\{\xi_1 \neq 0\}} |\xi_2|^p d\lambda = 0$$

proving $P(f_1 \cdot f_2 \neq 0) = 0$.

COROLLARY 1 ([6]). — *Let (Y_1, \dots, Y_n) be a random vector whose distribution belongs to $R_p(n)$. Then it is independent if and only if it is pairwise independent.*

The next proposition is a slight modification of a theorem due to Rudin ([4]). Originally it was formulated for complex valued random variables.

PROPOSITION 2. — *Let f and g be two real valued random variables with $f, g \in L_p(\Omega, P)$. If*

$$\int_{\Omega} |1 + \alpha f|^p dP = \int_{\Omega} |1 + \alpha g|^p dP$$

for all real numbers α then

$$f(P) = g(P), \quad \text{i. e.} \\ P(f \in B) = P(g \in B) \quad \text{for all Borel sets } B \subseteq \mathbf{R}.$$

Proof. — We want to reduce the real version of Rudin's theorem to its complex one. To do so choose a complex number $z = \alpha + i\beta$. If γ_1, γ_2 are independent standard Gaussian random variables it follows

$$\int_{\Omega} |1 + (\alpha + \beta(\gamma_2(\omega')/\gamma_1(\omega'))f|^p dP = \int_{\Omega} |1 + (\alpha + \beta(\gamma_2(\omega')/\gamma_1(\omega'))g|^p dP$$

for all $\omega' \in \Omega'$. Multiplying both sides with $|\gamma_1(\omega')|^p$ by integrating with respect to ω' we get

$$\int_{\Omega} (|1 + \alpha f|^2 + |\beta f|^2)^{p/2} dP = \int_{\Omega} (|1 + \alpha g|^2 + |\beta g|^2)^{p/2} dP$$

proving
$$\int_{\Omega} |1 + zf|^p d\mathbf{P} = \int_{\Omega} |1 + zg|^p d\mathbf{P}$$

for all complex numbers z . Now, proposition 2 follows by Rudin's theorem.

Remark. — Rudin's theorem remains true for all $p \in (0, \infty)$ with $p \neq 2, 4, 6, \dots$

The formulation of our main result requires a representation theorem for the characteristic function of measures in $\mathbf{R}_p(2)$.

PROPOSITION 3. — μ belongs to $\mathbf{R}_p(2)$ if and only if there are a finite measure σ on \mathbf{R} with $\int_{\mathbf{R}} |t|^p d\sigma(t) < \infty$ and a real number $b \geq 0$ such that

$$\hat{\mu}(a) = \exp\left(-\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 t|^p d\sigma(t) - b |\alpha_2|^p\right), \quad a = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2) \in \mathbf{R}^2.$$

Moreover, σ and b are uniquely determined.

Proof. — Of course, μ belongs to $\mathbf{R}_p(2)$ whenever its characteristic function can be represented in this way. Now, let μ be in $\mathbf{R}_p(2)$ with characteristic function

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\mu}(a) &= \exp\left(-\int_{\Omega} |\alpha_1 f_1 + \alpha_2 f_2|^p d\mathbf{P}\right) \\ &= \exp\left(-\int_{\{f_1 \neq 0\}} |\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 f_2/f_1|^p |f_1|^p d\mathbf{P} - |\alpha_2|^p \int_{\{f_1=0\}} |f_2|^p d\mathbf{P}\right). \end{aligned}$$

Defining σ and b by

$$\sigma(\mathbf{B}) = \int_{\{f_2/f_1 \in \mathbf{B}\}} |f_1|^p d\mathbf{P}, \quad \mathbf{B} \subseteq \mathbf{R} \text{ measurable,}$$

and

$$b = \int_{\{f_1=0\}} |f_2|^p d\mathbf{P}$$

we get a representation of $\hat{\mu}$ as stated in the proposition. It remains to prove that σ and b are uniquely determined. Because of proposition 2 it suffices to show that b is uniquely determined. But this easily follows from lemma 1 above.

In view of proposition 3 we may write $\mu \sim (\sigma, b)$ whenever

$$\hat{\mu}(a) = \exp\left(-\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |\alpha_1 + \alpha_2 t|^p d\sigma(t) - b |\alpha_2|^p\right)$$

for all $a = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2) \in \mathbf{R}^2$.

3. p -STABLE MEASURES INVARIANT UNDER REFLECTIONS

Let μ be in $\mathbf{R}_p(2)$ and let c be a real number. Then μ is said to be *conditional symmetric* with respect to c if

$$\mu(\xi_1 \in B_1, \xi_2 - c\xi_1 \in B_2) = \mu(\xi_1 \in B_1, c\xi_1 - \xi_2 \in B_2)$$

for all Borel subsets $B_1, B_2 \subseteq \mathbf{R}$.

We denote in the following the matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2c & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

by T_c . Then μ is conditional symmetric with respect to c if and only if $T_c(\mu) = \mu$. Without loss of generality we can and do assume

$$\text{supp}(\mu) = \mathbf{R}^2$$

since otherwise μ is concentrated on an 1-dimensional subspace. Those measures are conditional symmetric. We start with a formula for the calculation of c provided it exists. Besides it proves that c is uniquely determined.

PROPOSITION 4. — *Let μ be in $\mathbf{R}_p(2)$ with $T_c(\mu) = \mu$. Then*

$$c = \int_{\mathbf{R}^2} \xi_2 \xi_1^{q-1} d\mu(x) \Big/ \int_{\mathbf{R}^2} |\xi_1|^q d\mu(x), \quad 1 < q < p,$$

where $\xi_1^{q-1} = |\xi_1|^{q-1} \text{sign } \xi_1$.

If $0 < p \leq 1$ then $c \in \mathbf{R}$ is the uniquely determined real number with

$$\int_{\{\xi_2/\xi_1 > c\}} |\xi_1|^q d\mu = \int_{\{\xi_2/\xi_1 < c\}} |\xi_1|^q d\mu$$

for some (each) $q < p$.

Proof. — If $q < p$ by $T_c(\mu) = \mu$ we get

$$\int_{\mathbf{R}^2} |\langle x, a \rangle|^q d\mu = \int_{\mathbf{R}^2} |\langle x, a \rangle|^q dT_c(\mu)(x) \quad \text{for all } a \in \mathbf{R}^2.$$

If $a = (1, \alpha)$ this implies

$$\int_{\mathbf{R}^2} |1 + \alpha(\xi_2/\xi_1)|^q |\xi_1|^q d\mu(x) = \int_{\mathbf{R}^2} |1 + \alpha(2c - \xi_2/\xi_1)|^q |\xi_1|^q d\mu(x)$$

for all $\alpha \in \mathbf{R}$. Consequently, by proposition 2

$$\int_{\{\xi_2/\xi_1 \in \mathbf{B}\}} |\xi_1|^q d\mu(x) = \int_{\{2c - \xi_2/\xi_1 \in \mathbf{B}\}} |\xi_1|^q d\mu(x)$$

for all Borel sets $\mathbf{B} \subseteq \mathbf{R}$. If $q > 1$ then the integral

$$\int_{\mathbf{R}^2} (\xi_2/\xi_1) |\xi_1|^q d\mu(x)$$

exists and

$$2c \int_{\mathbf{R}^2} |\xi_1|^q d\mu(x) = 2 \int_{\mathbf{R}^2} (\xi_2/\xi_1) |\xi_1|^q d\mu(x)$$

which proves the first part of proposition 4.

Now we choose $\mathbf{B} = (-\infty, c)$. Then the second equality is satisfied. Moreover, if $\alpha < \beta$ then

$$\int_{\{\alpha < \xi_2/\xi_1 < \beta\}} |\xi_1|^q d\mu(x) > 0$$

because of $\text{supp } (\mu) = \mathbf{R}^2$. Thus c is uniquely determined by the second equality.

Now we are able to prove the main result of this section.

PROPOSITION 5. — *Let $\mu \sim (\sigma, b)$ in $\mathbf{R}_p(2)$ be given. Then $T_c(\mu) = \mu$ if and only if $h_c(\sigma) = \sigma$ where $h_c(t) = 2c - t$.*

Proof. — The equality $h_c(\sigma) = \sigma$ implies $\hat{\mu}(T_c^*a) = \hat{\mu}(a)$, $a \in \mathbf{R}^2$, i. e. $T_c(\mu) = \mu$.

On the other hand, if $T_c(\mu) = \mu$ then $h_c(\sigma) = \sigma$ because of $T_c(\mu) \sim (h_c(\sigma), b)$ by the uniqueness of the generating measure on \mathbf{R} .

COROLLARY 2. — *Let μ be in $\mathbf{R}_p(2)$. Then $T_c(\mu) = \mu$ if and only if $\mu = v * T_c(v)$ for some $v \in \mathbf{R}_p(2)$.*

Proof. — Given $\mu \in \mathbf{R}_p(2)$ with $T_c(\mu) = \mu$ such that $\mu \sim (\sigma, b)$ we define v by $v \sim (\rho, b/2)$ where

$$\rho(\mathbf{B}) = \sigma(\mathbf{B} \cap (c, \infty)) + (\sigma\{c\}/2)\delta_c(\mathbf{B}).$$

Then $\mu = T_c(v) * v$. The converse follows immediately.

REMARK 1. — Using proposition 5 it is rather easy to construct measures μ in $\mathbf{R}_p(2)$ with $T_c(\mu) \neq \mu$ for all $c \in \mathbf{R}$. Thus, theorem 2 of [6] is false.

REMARK 2. — If $T_c(\mu) = \mu$ with $\mu \sim (\sigma, b)$ then c can be calculated by

$$c = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} t d\sigma(t) / \sigma(-\infty, \infty)$$

provided the integral exists (for instance if $p \geq 1$).

REMARK 3. — Corollary 2 is a special case of a more general result proved by the second named author.

The equality $T_c(\mu) = \mu$ means that μ is invariant under a very special reflection. But as we saw not every measure in $R_p(2)$ has this property. Thus it is very natural to ask whether or not each measure in $R_p(2)$ is invariant under an appropriate reflection. It turns out that this is not true in general. We give an example of an element in $R_p(2)$ which is only invariant under some trivial linear mappings, namely under the identity map and under the transformation mapping x onto $-x$.

To construct such an example we need the following proposition:

PROPOSITION 6. — Let $\mu \sim (\sigma, 0)$ be in $R_p(2)$ and let

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} \tau_{11} & \tau_{12} \\ \tau_{21} & \tau_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

be a matrix. Then $T(\mu) = \mu$ if and only if

$$(1) \quad \sigma(\tau_{11} + \tau_{12}t = 0) = 0$$

and

$$(2) \quad \int_{\{t \in \mathbf{R}; (\tau_{21} + \tau_{22}t) / (\tau_{11} + \tau_{12}t) \in B\}} |\tau_{11} + \tau_{12}t|^p d\sigma(t) = \sigma(B)$$

for all Borel subsets $B \subseteq \mathbf{R}$.

Proof. — Because of

$$\widehat{T(\mu)}(a) = \exp\left(-\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\alpha_1(\tau_{11} + \tau_{12}t) + \alpha_2(\tau_{21} + \tau_{22}t)|^p d\sigma(t)\right) \text{ for } a = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2) \text{ we get}$$

$$\int_{\{\tau_{11} + \tau_{12}t = 0\}} |\tau_{21} + \tau_{22}t|^p d\sigma(t) = 0$$

provided $T(\mu) = \mu \sim (\sigma, 0)$ (lemma 1). Then either $\sigma(\tau_{11} + \tau_{12}t = 0) = 0$ or there is a $t \in \mathbf{R}$ with $\tau_{21} + \tau_{22}t = \tau_{11} + \tau_{12}t = 0$.

Since we assumed $\text{supp } T(\mu) = \text{supp } (\mu) = \mathbf{R}^2$ the mapping T must be

an automorphism. Consequently, the second case cannot happen proving (1). (2) is an easy consequence of proposition 2.

The converse follows immediately.

PROPOSITION 7. — *Let $\mu \in \mathbf{R}_p(2)$ be defined by*

$$\hat{\mu}(a) = \exp(-|\alpha_1 + \alpha_2|^p - |\alpha_1 + \alpha_2/2|^p - |\alpha_1 - \alpha_2|^p), \quad a = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2).$$

Then $T(\mu) = \mu$ implies either

$$T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{or} \quad T = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Proof. — Assume $T(\mu) = \mu$. Then, if $t_1 = 1$, $t_2 = 1/2$ and $t_3 = -1$, for each k , $k = 1, 2, 3$, there exists a uniquely determined t_j , $j = 1, 2, 3$, such that

$$(\tau_{21} + \tau_{22}t_k)/(\tau_{11} + \tau_{12}t_k) = t_j \quad \text{and} \quad |\tau_{11} + \tau_{12}t_k| = 1.$$

By some easy calculations it follows that this is possible if and only if $\tau_{21} = \tau_{12} = 0$ and $\tau_{22} = \tau_{11} = \pm 1$.

This proves proposition 7.

4. REFLECTIONS IN \mathbf{R}^n

The purpose of this section is to extend some results of the third section to the n -dimensional case. As in [6] we only investigate measures in $\mathbf{R}_p(n)$ for which the first $n-1$ coordinate functionals X_1, \dots, X_{n-1} are independent. Let $c = (c_1, \dots, c_{n-1}) \in \mathbf{R}^{n-1}$ be given. Then we define an $n \times n$ matrix S_c by

$$S_c = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & 1 \\ 2c_1 & \dots & 2c_{n-1} & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

We want to investigate measures μ in $\mathbf{R}_p(n)$ having $n-1$ independent coordinate functionals such that

$$S_c(\mu) = \mu.$$

They satisfy

$$\mu \left\{ \xi_1 \in B_1, \dots, \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} c_i \xi_i - \xi_n \in B_n \right\} = \mu \left\{ \xi_1 \in B_1, \dots, \xi_n - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} c_i \xi_i \in B_n \right\}$$

for arbitrary Borel sets $B_1, \dots, B_n \subseteq \mathbf{R}$.

The following was stated in [6], Let μ be in $\mathbf{R}_p(n)$ with X_1, \dots, X_{n-1} independent. Then there is a vector $c=(c_1, \dots, c_{n-1})$ such that $S_c(\mu)=\mu$. But this is false in general. This follows for instance by proposition 9 below.

Let us start with a representation theorem for measures having $n - 1$ independent coordinate functionals.

PROPOSITION 8. — *Let μ be in $\mathbf{R}_p(n)$ with X_1, \dots, X_{n-1} independent. Let ν_i in $\mathbf{R}_p(2)$ be the distribution of (X_i, X_n) , $1 \leq i \leq n-1$, and let ν_n be the distribution of X_n on \mathbf{R} . Then*

$$\hat{\mu}(a) = \hat{\nu}_1(\alpha_1, \alpha_n) \dots \hat{\nu}_{n-1}(\alpha_{n-1}, \alpha_n) (\hat{\nu}_n(\alpha_n))^{2-n}, \quad a = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbf{R}^n.$$

Proof. — Assume

$$\hat{\mu}(a) = \exp \left(- \int_{\Omega} \left| \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i f_i \right|^p d\mathbf{P} \right).$$

If $A_i = \{ \omega \in \Omega; f_i(\omega) \neq 0 \}$ by proposition 1

$$\mathbf{P}(A_i \cap A_j) = 0, \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq n - 1, \quad i \neq j.$$

Putting
$$A = \Omega \setminus \bigcup_{i=1}^{n-1} A_i$$

we get

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\Omega} \left| \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i f_i \right|^p d\mathbf{P} &= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \int_{A_i} |\alpha_i f_i + \alpha_n f_n|^p d\mathbf{P} + |\alpha_n|^p \int_A |f_n|^p d\mathbf{P} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \int_{\Omega} |\alpha_i f_i + \alpha_n f_n|^p d\mathbf{P} - \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} |\alpha_n|^p \int_{\Omega \setminus A_i} |f_n|^p d\mathbf{P} \\ &\quad + |\alpha_n|^p \int_A |f_n|^p d\mathbf{P} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} \int_{\Omega} |\alpha_i f_i + \alpha_n f_n|^p d\mathbf{P} - (n-2) |\alpha_n|^p \int_{\Omega} |f_n|^p d\mathbf{P}. \end{aligned}$$

This proves proposition 8.

PROPOSITION 9. — *Let μ and ν_1, \dots, ν_{n-1} be defined as above. Then $S_c(\mu) = \mu$ if and only if*

$$T_{c_i}(\nu_i) = \nu_i, \quad 1 \leq i \leq n - 1,$$

where $c = (c_1, \dots, c_{n-1})$ and

$$T_{c_i} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2c_i & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Proof. — Because of

$$S_c^*(a) = (\alpha_1 + 2c_1\alpha_n, \dots, \alpha_{n-1} + 2c_{n-1}\alpha_n, -\alpha_n)$$

by proposition 8 we get

$$\hat{\mu}(S_c^*a) = \hat{\mu}(a)$$

provided that

$$\hat{v}_i(\alpha_i, \alpha_n) = \hat{v}_i(T_{c_i}^*(\alpha_i, \alpha_n)) = \hat{v}_i(\alpha_i + 2c_i\alpha_n, -\alpha_n), \quad 1 \leq i \leq n-1.$$

To prove the converse we fix i with $1 \leq i \leq n-1$. If

$$a = (0, \dots, \alpha_i, 0, \dots, 0, \alpha_n) \quad \text{from} \quad S_c(\mu) = \mu$$

and proposition 8 it follows

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{v}_1(2c_1\alpha_n, -\alpha_n) \dots \hat{v}_i(\alpha + 2c_i\alpha_n, -\alpha_n) \dots \hat{v}_{n-1}(2c_{n-1}\alpha_n, -\alpha_n) \\ = \hat{v}_1(0, \alpha_n) \dots \hat{v}_i(\alpha, \alpha_n) \dots \hat{v}_{n-1}(0, \alpha_n). \end{aligned}$$

Then the quotient

$$d(\alpha_n) = \frac{\hat{v}_i(\alpha + 2c_i\alpha_n, -\alpha)}{\hat{v}_i(\alpha, \alpha_n)}$$

is independent of α . Choosing $\alpha = -\beta - 2c_i\alpha_n$ we get

$$d(\alpha_n) = \frac{\hat{v}_i(-\beta, -\alpha_n)}{\hat{v}_i(-\beta - 2c_i\alpha_n, \alpha_n)} = \frac{\hat{v}_i(\beta, \alpha_n)}{\hat{v}_i(\beta + 2c_i\alpha_n, -\alpha_n)} = d(\alpha_n)^{-1}.$$

Since $d(\alpha_n) > 0$ we have $d(\alpha_n) = 1$ for each $\alpha_n \in \mathbf{R}$.

Consequently,

$$\hat{v}_i(T_{c_i}^*(\alpha, \alpha_n)) = \hat{v}_i(\alpha, \alpha_n)$$

and

$$v_i = T_{c_i}(v_i), \quad 1 \leq i \leq n-1.$$

This proves proposition 9.

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(Manuscrit reçu le 31 mars 1981)

