

On Modality of Lévy Processes Corresponding to Mixtures of Two Exponential Distributions

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1. Introduction. By a Lévy process we mean a stochastically continuous stochastic process taking values in the real line \mathbf{R} , having stationary independent increments, and starting at the origin. In this paper we consider multimodality of some Lévy process. We use the following definition of strict k -modality given by Sato [5]. The restriction of a σ -finite measure μ on \mathbf{R} to a Borel set B is denoted by $\mu|_B$.

Definition. (I) A σ -finite measure μ on \mathbf{R} is said to be strictly unimodal with mode a if it satisfies the following:

(i) The support I of μ is an interval or a singleton, and I contains a .

(ii) The measure $\mu|_{I \setminus (a)}$ has a version $f(x)$ of the density which is strictly increasing on $I \cap (-\infty, a)$ if $I \cap (-\infty, a) \neq \emptyset$ and strictly decreasing on $I \cap (a, \infty)$ if $I \cap (a, \infty) \neq \emptyset$.

(II) For $k \geq 2$, a σ -finite measure μ on \mathbf{R} is said to be strictly k -modal if it satisfies the following:

(i) The support I of μ is an interval.

(ii) There are disjoint sets I_1, \dots, I_k such that $I = \cup_{i=1}^k I_i$, each I_i is a singleton or an interval, and, for each i , $\mu|_{I_i}$ is strictly unimodal.

(iii) If $l < k$, then there are no disjoint sets J_1, \dots, J_l such that $I = \cup_{j=1}^l J_j$, each J_j is a singleton or an interval, and, for each j , $\mu|_{J_j}$ is strictly unimodal.

Strictly 2-modal is called strictly bimodal. The modes a_1, a_2, \dots, a_k of $\mu|_{I_1}, \mu|_{I_2}, \dots, \mu|_{I_k}$ are called modes of μ .

Brownian motion and stable processes, which are familiar examples of one-dimensional Lévy processes, are unimodal at any time (Yamazato [9]). But there are Lévy processes which have time evolution in modality. This fact is already known to Wolfe [8] and stressed by Sato [3] [4] [5] and Watanabe [7]. Examples show that there are Lévy processes which change from unimodal to non-unimodal, or from non-unimodal to unimodal, or from unimodal to non-unimodal and again to unimodal as time passes. There are Lévy

processes which change between unimodal and non-unimodal infinitely many times. Among these examples, we have few Lévy processes whose evolution in modality is completely known. One of such examples is Wolfe's (see [5] and [8]) and another is a compound Poisson process $\{X_t : t \geq 0\}$ whose distribution at $t = 1$ is

$$(1) \quad \mu = p\delta_0 + (1-p)ae^{-ax}I_{(0,\infty)}(x)dx,$$

where δ_0 stands for the delta distribution at 0, $0 < p < 1$, $0 < a$, and $I_{(0,\infty)}(x)$ stands for the indicator function of the interval $(0, \infty)$. Sato [5] proved that the distribution of X_t is strictly unimodal for $t \leq (1+p)/(1-p)$, and strictly bimodal for $t > (1+p)/(1-p)$. The distributions of these two examples have point mass at the origin. Hence, when they are strictly unimodal, they have modes at 0 and, when they are strictly bimodal, one of their two modes is located at 0.

We would like to find out examples which do not have point mass and are strictly k -modal at some t and whose time evolution in modality can be analyzed for all time. In order to consider this problem for $k = 2$, we shall investigate modality of the Lévy process $\{X_t : t \geq 0\}$ that has the following distribution μ at $t = 1$:

$$(2) \quad \mu = (1-p)ae^{-ax}I_{(0,\infty)}(x)dx + pbe^{-bx}I_{(0,\infty)}(x)dx,$$

where $0 < p < 1$ and $0 < a < b$. The distributions (1) and (2) are infinitely divisible by the result of Goldie [1], and X_t is unimodal with mode 0 for $0 < t < 1$ by the result of Steutel [6]. It is difficult to analyze modality of X_t for non-integer $t > 1$, but we can analyze it for integer $t = n$.

2. Results. From now on $\{X_t\}$ is the Lévy process that has distribution μ of (2) at $t = 1$. We shall obtain the following theorem. Denote the set of all positive integers by \mathbf{N} .

Theorem. *The distribution of X_n , $n \in \mathbf{N}$, is either strictly unimodal or strictly bimodal. Furth-*

ermore it is strictly unimodal if $n \geq \frac{b}{b-a} \left(1 + \frac{b}{1-p}\right)$.

Remark. Sato points out that, if $t > (1+p)/(1-p)$, then, for any $a > 0$, the distribution of X_t is non-unimodal for any sufficiently large b , because, as $b \rightarrow \infty$, X_t converges to the Lévy process that has distribution (1) at $t = 1$. Our theorem shows that, if t is an integer, then non-unimodality of the distribution of X_t implies strictly bimodal.

Before proceeding to the proof of theorem we shall state important two lemmas. In counting the number of changes of sign of a finite sequence $a_0, a_1, a_2, \dots, a_m$, or an infinite sequence $a_0, a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots$, we disregard zero terms (see [2], p. 36).

We can find the following lemma in [2], p. 41.

Lemma 1 (Extension of Descartes' rule of signs to power series). *Let the radius of convergence of the power series $\sum_{l=0}^{\infty} A_l x^l$ be ρ . Then the number of its zeros in $(0, \rho)$ does not exceed the number of changes of sign of its coefficients. Here we count the zeros according to their multiplicity.*

We can find a proposition including the following lemma in [2], p. 41.

Lemma 2. *Suppose that*

$$\sum_{l=0}^m a_l \frac{\lambda^l}{(\alpha - \lambda)^l} = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} A_l \lambda^l$$

with $\alpha > 0$. Then the number of changes of sign of $\{A_l\}_{l \geq 0}$ does not exceed the number of changes of sign of $\{a_l\}_{l=0,1,\dots,m}$.

The distribution of X_n has the following density $f_n(x)$:

$$\begin{aligned} f_n(x) &= e^{-ax} \left[(1-p)^n a^n \frac{x^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} \right. \\ &+ \sum_{l=0}^{n-2} x^l \frac{(n-2-l)!}{(b-a)^{n-l-1}} \sum_{j=l+1}^{n-1} \binom{n}{j} p^{n-j} (1-p)^j \\ &\quad \times \frac{a^j b^{n-j}}{(j-1)!(n-j-1)!} (-1)^{j-1-l} \binom{j-1}{l} \Big] \\ &+ e^{-bx} \left[p^n b^n \frac{x^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} + \sum_{l=0}^{n-2} x^l \frac{(n-2-l)!}{(a-b)^{n-l-1}} \right. \\ &\times \sum_{j=l+1}^{n-1} \binom{n}{j} (1-p)^{n-j} p^j \\ &\quad \times \left. \frac{b^j a^{n-j}}{(j-1)!(n-j-1)!} (-1)^{j-1-l} \binom{j-1}{l} \right]. \end{aligned}$$

This is proved by induction. We denote by $g^{(l)}(x)$, $l \in \mathbf{N}$, the l -th derivative of a function $g(x)$.

Proof of Theorem. Set

$$F_n(s) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\frac{x}{s}} f_n(x) dx.$$

Then

$$F_n(s) = \left((1-p) \frac{a}{a + (1/s)} + p \frac{b}{b + (1/s)} \right)^n.$$

We have

$$\begin{aligned} F_n \left(\frac{\lambda}{b(1-\lambda)} \right) &= \frac{\lambda}{b(1-\lambda)} \left(f_n(0) + \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\frac{bx}{\lambda}} e^{bx} f_n'(x) dx \right). \end{aligned}$$

Here we used the form of $f_n(x)$. Set $h_n(x) = e^{bx} f_n'(x)$. In order to study modality of the distribution of X_n , we look at the number of zeros of $h_n(x)$ in $(0, \infty)$. Since $h_n(x)$ is analytic, Lemma 1 says that it is enough to look at the number of changes of sign of $\{h_n^{(l)}(0)\}_{l \geq 0}$. Now we consider the power series

$$(1-\lambda) F_n \left(\frac{\lambda}{b(1-\lambda)} \right) = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} A_l \frac{\lambda^l}{l!}.$$

Use integration by parts repeatedly. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} A_l \frac{\lambda^l}{l!} &= \frac{\lambda}{b} f_n(0) + \left(\frac{\lambda}{b} \right)^2 h_n(0) + \\ &\dots + \left(\frac{\lambda}{b} \right)^l h_n^{(l-2)}(0) + \left(\frac{\lambda}{b} \right)^l \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\frac{bx}{\lambda}} h_n^{(l-1)}(x) dx. \end{aligned}$$

Differentiate both sides l times, and let $\lambda \rightarrow 0$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} A_l &= \frac{l!}{b^l} h_n^{(l-2)}(0) + \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} \frac{d^l}{d\lambda^l} \left(\left(\frac{\lambda}{b} \right)^l \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\frac{bx}{\lambda}} h_n^{(l-1)}(x) dx \right) \\ &= \frac{l!}{b^l} h_n^{(l-2)}(0). \end{aligned}$$

Here we used the form of $h_n^{(l-1)}(x)$. Hence the number of changes of sign of $\{h_n^{(l)}(0)\}_{l \geq 0}$ is equal to the number of changes of sign of $\{A_l\}_{l \geq 2}$. On the other hand,

$$\begin{aligned} (1-\lambda) F_n \left(\frac{\lambda}{b(1-\lambda)} \right) &= \lambda^n (1-\lambda) \left(\frac{(1-p)a}{b - (b-a)\lambda} + p \right)^n \\ &= p^n \lambda^n (1-\lambda) \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha - \lambda} + 1 \right)^n, \end{aligned}$$

where $\alpha = \frac{b}{b-a}$, $\beta = \frac{(1-p)a}{p(b-a)}$. Now notice that

$$(1-\lambda) \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha - \lambda} + 1 \right)^n = \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{\alpha} \right)^n$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \times \left(1 - (\alpha - 1) \frac{\lambda}{a - \lambda}\right) \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha} + 1 + \frac{\beta}{\alpha} \frac{\lambda}{\alpha - \lambda}\right)^n \\ &= \left(1 - \frac{\lambda}{\alpha}\right) \left[\left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha} + 1\right)^n + \sum_{l=1}^n \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha} + 1\right)^{n-l} \right. \\ & \quad \times \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha}\right)^{l-1} \left(\frac{\lambda}{\alpha - \lambda}\right)^l \frac{n!}{(n-l+1)!l!} \\ & \quad \times \left\{(n-l+1) \frac{\beta}{\alpha} - (\alpha-1)l \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha} + 1\right)\right\} \\ & \quad \left. - (\alpha-1) \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha}\right)^n \left(\frac{\lambda}{\alpha - \lambda}\right)^{n+1}\right] \\ &= \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha} + 1\right)^n + \lambda \left[\left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha} + 1\right)^{n-1} \right. \\ & \quad \times \frac{1}{\alpha} \left\{-\alpha \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha} + 1\right) + n \frac{\beta}{\alpha}\right\} \\ & \quad + \sum_{l=1}^{n-1} \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha} + 1\right)^{n-l-1} \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha}\right)^l \frac{n!}{(n-l)!(l+1)!} \frac{1}{\alpha} \\ & \quad \times \left\{(n-l) \frac{\beta}{\alpha} - (\alpha-1)(l+1) \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha} + 1\right)\right\} \\ & \quad \left. \times \left(\frac{\lambda}{\alpha - \lambda}\right)^l - \frac{\alpha-1}{\alpha} \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha}\right)^n \left(\frac{\lambda}{\alpha - \lambda}\right)^n\right]. \end{aligned}$$

Since $\alpha > 1$ and $\beta > 0$, the coefficients of $\left(\frac{\lambda}{\alpha - \lambda}\right)^l, l = 0, 1, \dots, n$, in the brackets in the last expression change sign at most twice. Now we can apply Lemma 2. We see that $A_l = 0$ for $0 \leq l \leq n-1, A_n > 0$, and the sequence $\{A_l\}_{l \geq n+1}$ changes sign at most twice. Therefore, $f'_n(x)$ has at most three zeros in $(0, \infty)$. Hence X_n is either strictly unimodal or strictly bimodal.

Suppose that $n \geq \frac{b}{b-a} \left(1 + \frac{b}{a} \frac{p}{1-p}\right)$, which is equivalent to

$$-\alpha \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha} + 1\right) + n \frac{\beta}{\alpha} \geq 0.$$

Then we see that $A_{n+1} \geq 0$ and that $\{A_l\}_{l \geq n+1}$ changes sign at most once. We see that, for $n \geq 2, f_n(0) = 0$ and $f'_n(x)$ has only one zero in $(0, \infty)$. This completes the proof of Theorem.

Corollary. *The distribution of X_n is strictly unimodal for every $n \in \mathbf{N}$ if $\frac{a(b-2a)}{b^2} \geq \frac{p}{1-p}$.*

Proof. By the latter half of Theorem, the distribution of X_n is strictly unimodal for every $n \geq 2$, if

$$2 \geq \frac{b}{b-a} \left(1 + \frac{b}{a} \frac{p}{1-p}\right).$$

This condition is equivalent to $\frac{a(b-2a)}{b^2} \geq \frac{p}{1-p}$.

Remark. If $n \leq \frac{1}{b-a} \left(a + b + 2b \frac{p}{1-p}\right)$, then the distribution of X_n is strictly unimodal. In fact, in this case $(n-1) \frac{\beta}{\alpha} - (\alpha-1)2 \left(\frac{\beta}{\alpha} + 1\right) \leq 0$ and $\{A_l\}_{l \geq n}$ changes sign at most once.

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