

## *An Inequality for Certain Functional of Multidimensional Probability Distributions*

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### § 1. Introduction and the results

Denote by  $\mathcal{P}$  the class of all probability distributions  $f$  in  $R^d$  such that  $\int |x|^2 f(dx) < \infty$  and  $\int (x_i - \mu_i)^2 f(dx) > 0$  ( $1 \leq i \leq d$ ), where  $\mu = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_d)$  is the mean vector of  $f$ . For each  $f \in \mathcal{P}$ , denote by  $g_f$  the Gaussian distribution with the same mean vector and variance matrix as those of  $f$ . We introduce a functional  $e$  on  $\mathcal{P}$  by

$$e[f] = \inf E\{|X - Y|^2\}, \quad f \in \mathcal{P},$$

where the infimum is taken over all pairs of  $R^d$ -valued random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  defined on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  and distributed according to  $f$  and  $g_f$  respectively. We also write  $e[X]$  for  $e[f_X]$ , where  $f_X$  is the probability distribution of a random variable  $X$ .

In the one dimensional case, the functional  $e$  was introduced and its basic properties were studied in [4] with an application to Kac's one-dimensional model of a Maxwellian gas. The purpose of this paper is to extend some results in [4] to the multi-dimensional case, that is, we will prove the following theorems.

**THEOREM 1.** *Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be random variables with probability distributions  $f \in \mathcal{P}$  and  $g_f$  respectively, and assume that  $e[f] = E\{|X - Y|^2\}$ . Then,  $X$  is equal to some Borel function of  $Y$  almost surely.*

**THEOREM 2.** *Let  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  be independent random variables with probability distributions belonging to  $\mathcal{P}$ . Then,*

$$e[X_1 + X_2] < e[X_1] + e[X_2]$$

*unless both  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are Gaussian. In other words, the functional equation*

$$e[f_1 * f_2] = e[f_1] + e[f_2], \quad f_1, f_2 \in \mathcal{P}$$

*gives a characterization of Gaussian distributions.*

## § 2. Proof of the theorems

The proof of Theorem 1 will be given in a series of lemmas. In what follows,  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  denotes the usual inner product in  $R^d$ .

LEMMA 1. *From the same assumption as in Theorem 1, it follows that*

$$\langle X(\omega) - X(\omega'), Y(\omega) - Y(\omega') \rangle \geq 0$$

for almost all  $(\omega, \omega')$  with respect to  $P \otimes P$ .

PROOF. In proving this lemma, we may assume that the basic probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$  is chosen as follows:  $\Omega$  is the unit interval  $[0, 1)$ ,  $\mathcal{F}$  is the class of Borel sets of  $\Omega$  and  $P$  is the Lebesgue measure in  $\Omega$ . Suppose the conclusion of the lemma is false. Then, there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that the set

$$\tilde{A} = \{(\omega, \omega') \in \Omega \times \Omega : \langle X(\omega) - X(\omega'), Y(\omega) - Y(\omega') \rangle < -\varepsilon\}$$

has strictly positive  $P \otimes P$ -measure. Now for integers  $n, N \geq 1$  and for any lattice point  $\mathbf{m} = (m_1, \dots, m_d) \in Z^d$ , we set

$$A_{\mathbf{m}}^n = \prod_{i=1}^d [m_i 2^{-n}, (m_i + 1) 2^{-n})$$

$$X_n(\omega) = \mathbf{m} 2^{-n} \quad \text{for } \omega \in X^{-1}(A_{\mathbf{m}}^n)$$

$$Y_n(\omega) = \mathbf{m} 2^{-n} \quad \text{for } \omega \in Y^{-1}(A_{\mathbf{m}}^n)$$

$$\tilde{A}_{n,N} = \left\{ (\omega, \omega') \in \Omega \times \Omega : \begin{array}{l} \langle X_n(\omega) - X_n(\omega'), Y_n(\omega) - Y_n(\omega') \rangle < -\varepsilon \\ |X_n(\omega)|, |X_n(\omega')|, |Y_n(\omega)|, |Y_n(\omega')| < N \end{array} \right\}.$$

Then, there exists  $N$  such that  $P \otimes P(\tilde{A}_{n,N}) > 0$  for all sufficiently large  $n$ . Fixing such an  $N$ , we choose an  $n$  so that  $P \otimes P(\tilde{A}_{n,N}) > 0$  and

$$(2.1) \quad 2^{-n+3} N \sqrt{d} + 2^{-2n+2} d < \varepsilon.$$

Since

$$\tilde{A}_{n,N} = \bigcup (X^{-1}(A_{\mathbf{m}_1}^n) \cap Y^{-1}(A_{\mathbf{m}_2}^n)) \times (X^{-1}(A_{\mathbf{m}'_1}^n) \cap Y^{-1}(A_{\mathbf{m}'_2}^n))^{\circledast}$$

where the union is taken over all quartets  $(\mathbf{m}_1, \mathbf{m}'_1, \mathbf{m}_2, \mathbf{m}'_2)$  satisfying

$$(2.2) \quad \begin{cases} \langle \mathbf{m}_1 2^{-n} - \mathbf{m}'_1 2^{-n}, \mathbf{m}_2 2^{-n} - \mathbf{m}'_2 2^{-n} \rangle < -\varepsilon \\ |\mathbf{m}_1 2^{-n}|, |\mathbf{m}'_1 2^{-n}|, |\mathbf{m}_2 2^{-n}|, |\mathbf{m}'_2 2^{-n}| < N, \end{cases}$$

there exist  $\mathbf{m}_1, \mathbf{m}'_1, \mathbf{m}_2, \mathbf{m}'_2 \in Z^d$  (satisfying (2.2)) such that

$$P(A) > 0, A = X^{-1}(A_{m_1}^n) \cap Y^{-1}(A_{m_2}^n),$$

$$P(A') > 0, A' = X^{-1}(A_{m_1'}^n) \cap Y^{-1}(A_{m_2'}^n).$$

By (2.1) and (2.2), we see that

$$(2.3) \quad \langle x - x', y - y' \rangle < 0 \quad \text{for any } x \in A_{m_1}^n, x' \in A_{m_1'}^n, y \in A_{m_2}^n, y' \in A_{m_2'}^n.$$

Next, we take an irrational number  $\lambda$  and denote by  $T$  the (ergodic) Weyl automorphism  $\omega \in \Omega \rightarrow \omega + \lambda \pmod{1}$ . Then there exists an integer  $k$  such that  $P(A \cap T^{-k}A') > 0$ . We set  $U = T^k$ ,  $B = A \cap U^{-1}A'$ ,  $B' = UB$ . Since  $B \cap B' = \emptyset$  and  $U: B \rightarrow B'$  is measure-preserving, we can define a new random variable  $X^*$  with probability distribution  $f$  by

$$X^*(\omega) = \begin{cases} X(U(\omega)) & \text{for } \omega \in B \\ X(U^{-1}(\omega)) & \text{for } \omega \in B' \\ X(\omega) & \text{for } \omega \notin B \cup B'. \end{cases}$$

From (2.3), we see that for  $\omega \in B$

$$\begin{aligned} & |X(U(\omega)) - Y(\omega)|^2 + |X(\omega) - Y(U(\omega))|^2 \\ & < |X(\omega) - Y(\omega)|^2 + |X(U(\omega)) - Y(U(\omega))|^2, \end{aligned}$$

and this inequality combined with the fact that  $U$  is measure-preserving gives us  $E\{|X^* - Y|^2\} < E\{|X - Y|^2\}$ . This is a contradiction, and the proof is finished.

**LEMMA 2.** *Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be  $R^d$ -valued random variables defined on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$ , and assume that  $Y$  has a non-degenerate Gaussian distribution  $g$ . If*

$$\langle X(\omega) - X(\omega'), Y(\omega) - Y(\omega') \rangle \geq 0$$

*holds for almost all  $(\omega, \omega')$  with respect to  $P \otimes P$ , then there exist a regular conditional probability distribution  $P_y(\cdot)$  of  $X$  given  $Y$  and a set  $A (\subset R^d)$  of Lebesgue measure 0 such that  $P_y \otimes P_y(\Gamma_{y,y'}) = 1$  holds for all  $y, y' \notin A$ , where*

$$\Gamma_{y,y'} = \{(x, x') \in R^{2d} : \langle x - x', y - y' \rangle \geq 0\}.$$

**PROOF.** Let  $A_m^n$  and  $Y_n$  be the same as in the proof of the preceding lemma, and let  $P_y^{(n)}(\cdot)$  be a regular conditional probability distribution of  $X$  given  $Y_n$ ; it is given by

$$P_y^{(n)}(\Gamma) = P\{X^{-1}(\Gamma) \cap Y^{-1}(A_m^n)\} / g(A_m^n),$$

for  $\Gamma \in \mathcal{B}(R^d)$ ,  $y \in A_m^n$ . If we set

$$\Psi_n(y) = \int_{R^d} \psi(x) P_y^{(n)}(dx)$$

for a bounded continuous function  $\psi$ , then  $\{\Psi_n(y), \mathcal{B}_n, g\}$  is a martingale, where  $\mathcal{B}_n$  is the  $\sigma$ -field generated by  $\{A_m^n, m \in Z^d\}$ . Therefore, by the convergence theorem of martingales the set

$$B_\psi = \{y \in R^d : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \Psi_n(y) \text{ exists}\}$$

has full  $g$ -measure. Take a countable family  $\{\psi_k\}_{k \geq 1}$  which is dense in  $C_0(R^d)$ , the space of real valued continuous functions on  $R^d$  vanishing at infinity, and let  $B$  be the intersection of all  $B_{\psi_k}$ ,  $k \geq 1$ . Then  $g(B) = 1$ . Moreover, it is easy to see that for each  $y \in B$  the limit  $L_y(\psi)$  of  $\Psi_n(y)$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  exists for any  $\psi \in C_0(R^d)$  and defines a unique measure  $P_y(\cdot)$ , that is,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int \psi(x) P_y^{(n)}(dx) = \int \psi(x) P_y(dx), \psi \in C_0(R^d).$$

Now we define  $P_y(\cdot)$  for  $y \notin B$  to be an arbitrary probability measure on  $R^d$  and put  $A = B^c \cup \{y : P_y(R^d) \neq 1\}$ . We also redefine  $P_y(\cdot)$  for  $y$  such that  $P_y(R^d) \neq 1$  to be an arbitrary probability measure. Then  $g(A) = 0$  and  $P_y(\cdot)$  is a regular conditional probability distribution of  $X$  given  $Y$ . To show that  $A$  and  $\{P_y(\cdot)\}$  have the desired property, we first notice that

$$\langle X(\omega) - X(\omega'), Y_n(\omega) - Y_n(\omega') \rangle \geq -\sqrt{d} 2^{-n+1} |X(\omega) - X(\omega')|$$

holds for almost all  $(\omega, \omega')$  with respect to  $P \otimes P$  and hence

$$(2.4) \quad P_y^{(n)} \otimes P_{y'}^{(n)}(\Gamma_{y,y'}^{(n)}) = 1$$

for almost all  $(y, y')$  with respect to  $g \otimes g$ , where

$$\Gamma_{y,y'}^{(n)} = \{(x, x') \in R^{2d} : \langle x - x', y - y' \rangle \geq -\sqrt{d} 2^{-n+1} |x - x'|\}.$$

But, since  $P_y^{(n)}(\cdot)$  is constant on each  $A_m^n$ , the equality (2.4) holds for all  $(y, y')$ . Because  $\Gamma_{y,y'}^{(n)} \downarrow \Gamma_{y,y'}$  as  $n \uparrow \infty$ , we have  $P_y^{(n)} \otimes P_{y'}^{(n)}(\Gamma_{y,y'}^{(n_0)}) = 1$  for  $n \geq n_0$ ; letting  $n \uparrow \infty$  and using the facts that  $P_y^{(n)}$  converges to  $P_y$  for  $y \notin A$  and that  $\Gamma_{y,y'}^{(n_0)}$  is closed, we obtain  $P_y \otimes P_{y'}(\Gamma_{y,y'}^{(n_0)}) = 1$  for  $y, y' \notin A$ . Since  $n_0$  is arbitrary, the lemma is proved.

By definition a set valued function  $S: y \in R^d \rightarrow S(y) \subset R^d$  is said to be *monotone*, if there exists a set  $A (\subset R^d)$  of Lebesgue measure 0 such that the inequality

$$\langle x - x', y - y' \rangle \geq 0 \quad \text{for } x \in S(y), x' \in S(y')$$

holds whenever  $y, y' \notin A$ .

LEMMA 3. Let  $S: y \in R^d \rightarrow S(y) \subset R^d$  be monotone. Then,  $S(y)$  consists of a single point for almost all  $y$ .

PROOF. First we consider the case  $d=1$ , and let  $I(y)$  be the smallest closed interval containing  $S(y)$ . Then, the monotone property of  $S$  implies that  $I(y)$  and  $I(y')$  are non-overlapping if  $y \neq y'$ ,  $y, y' \notin A$  (a null set in the definition of monotonicity). Therefore,  $I(y)$  consists of a single point for almost all  $y$ , and hence so does  $S(y)$ . Next, we consider the case  $d > 1$ . Given  $k(1 \leq k \leq d)$  and  $z = (z_1, \dots, z_{d-1}) \in R^{d-1}$ , we define a set valued function  $S_k^z$  on  $R^1$  by

$$S_k^z(\eta) = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \xi \in R^1: (w_1, \dots, w_{k-1}, \xi, w_k, \dots, w_{d-1}) \in S(y) \\ \text{for some } w = (w_1, \dots, w_{d-1}) \in R^{d-1} \end{array} \right\}$$

where  $y = (z_1, \dots, z_{k-1}, \eta, z_k, \dots, z_{d-1})$ . We put

$$A_k^z = \{ \eta \in R^1: (z_1, \dots, z_{k-1}, \eta, z_k, \dots, z_{d-1}) \in A \}$$

$$B_k = \{ z \in R^{d-1}: A_k^z \text{ is a null set} \}.$$

Then, by Fubini's theorem  $B_k^z$  and  $A_k^z$  for each  $z \in B_k$  are null sets, and from the monotone property of  $S$  it follows that  $S_k^z$  is monotone for each  $z \in B_k$ . So, the result for the case  $d=1$  implies that, for each  $z \in B_k$ ,  $S_k^z(\eta)$  is a single point for almost all  $\eta$ . Let  $D_k$  be the set of all  $y \in R^d$  such that the projection to the  $k$ -th coordinate reduces  $S(y)$  to a single point, and put  $D = \cap D_k$ . Then,  $D^c$  is a null set, and  $S(y)$  is a single point for each  $y \in D$ , as was to be proved.

The proof of Theorem 1 is now completed as follows. From the first two lemmas, it follows that there exist a null set  $A$  and a regular conditional probability distribution  $P_y(\cdot)$  of  $X$  given  $Y$  with the property stated in Lemma 2. If we define  $S(y)$ ,  $y \in R^d$ , as the smallest closed set of full  $P_y$ -measure, then  $S(y) \times S(y') \subset \Gamma_{y,y'}$  provided  $y, y' \notin A$ , or what is the same, the mapping  $S: y \in R^d \rightarrow S(y)$  is monotone. Therefore, by Lemma 3  $S(y)$  is a single point for almost all  $y$ ; this means that  $X$  is equal to some Borel function of  $Y$  almost surely.

We give the proof of Theorem 2. We remark that Theorem 1 implies the following: if  $f \in \mathcal{P}$  and  $Y$  is  $g_f$ -distributed, then there exists some Borel function  $\varphi$  from  $R^d$  into itself such that  $e[f] = E\{|\varphi(Y) - Y|^2\}$ , since there exists some pair of random variables (with distributions  $f$  and  $g_f$ ) which gives the infimum value  $e[f]$ . Now we take independent Gaussian random variables  $Y_1$  and  $Y_2$  whose mean vectors and variance matrices are the same as those of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  respectively. Then by the above remark, there exist Borel functions  $\varphi_1$  and  $\varphi_2$  such that  $e[X_1] = E\{|\varphi_1(Y_1) - Y_1|^2\}$  and  $e[X_2] = E\{|\varphi_2(Y_2) - Y_2|^2\}$ . We have

$$(2.5) \quad e[X_1] + e[X_2] = E\{(|\varphi_1(Y_1) + \varphi_2(Y_2) - (Y_1 + Y_2)|)^2\}.$$

Since  $\varphi_1(Y_1) + \varphi_2(Y_2)$  has the same distribution as that of  $X_1 + X_2$  and  $Y_1 + Y_2$  has the same mean vector and variance matrix as those of  $X_1 + X_2$ , the right hand side of (2.5) (and hence  $e[X_1] + e[X_2]$ ) dominates  $e[X_1 + X_2]$ . Next, we suppose that  $e[X_1] + e[X_2] = e[X_1 + X_2]$ . Then, by Theorem 1 there exists a Borel function  $\varphi$  such that

$$\varphi_1(Y_1) + \varphi_2(Y_2) = \varphi(Y_1 + Y_2) \quad \text{a.s.}$$

This equation implies that  $\varphi_1$ ,  $\varphi_2$  and  $\varphi$  must be linear and hence  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  must have Gaussian distributions.

### § 3. Applications

1. Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  be  $R^d$ -valued independent random variables with common distribution  $f(\in \mathcal{P})$  of mean vector 0. Then, by the same arguments as in [4], we can prove that  $e[n^{-1/2}(X_1 + \dots + X_n)] \rightarrow 0$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$  and hence the probability distribution of  $n^{-1/2}(X_1 + \dots + X_n)$  converges to  $g_f$  as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ; this is the well-known central limit theorem.

2. Let  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  be real-valued independent random variables, and assume that

$$\tilde{X}_1 = X_1 \cos \theta + X_2 \sin \theta, \quad \tilde{X}_2 = -X_1 \sin \theta + X_2 \cos \theta$$

are independent for some  $\theta$  which is not an integral multiple of  $\pi/2$ . Then,  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are Gaussian. This is known as a theorem of M. Kac [3]. There are several proofs (for example, see [1], [2]); here we give a proof based upon Theorem 2 assuming that the probability distributions of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are in  $\mathcal{P}$ .

By Theorem 2, we have

$$(3.1) \quad \begin{cases} e[\tilde{X}_1] \leq e[X_1] \cos^2 \theta + e[X_2] \sin^2 \theta, \\ e[\tilde{X}_2] \leq e[X_1] \sin^2 \theta + e[X_2] \cos^2 \theta. \end{cases}$$

Let

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} X_1 \\ X_2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad A = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then we can prove that  $e[AX] = e[X]$ ,  $e[AX] = e[\tilde{X}_1] + e[\tilde{X}_2]$  and  $e[X] = e[X_1] + e[X_2]$ ; here we have used the orthogonality of the matrix  $A$  for the first equality and the independence of the components for the last two equalities. Therefore (3.1) holds with "=", and hence  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are Gaussian by Theorem 2.

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