

A Characterization of the Generalized Inverse Gaussian Distribution by Continued Fractions

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1. Introduction

We consider the two following probability distributions on $(0, +\infty)$.

$$\mu_{\lambda, a, b}(dx) = \frac{a^{\lambda/2} b^{-\lambda/2}}{2K_{\lambda}(\sqrt{ab})} x^{\lambda-1} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(ax + bx^{-1})\right) \mathbb{1}_{(0, \infty)}(x) dx$$

where λ is real and $a, b > 0$ and

$$\nu_{\lambda, a}(dx) = \frac{a^{-\lambda}}{\Gamma(\lambda)} x^{\lambda-1} \exp(-a^{-1}x) \mathbb{1}_{(0, \infty)}(x) dx,$$

where $\lambda, a > 0$.

The generalized inverse Gaussian distribution introduced by Barndorff-Nielsen and Halgreen (1977) is $\mu_{\lambda, a, b}$. Since

$$\int_0^{\infty} \mu_{\lambda, a, b}(dx) = \int_0^{\infty} \mu_{-\lambda, a, b}(dx) = 1, \quad (1)$$

denoting the distribution of the random variable X by $L(X)$, and changing $x \mapsto \frac{1}{x}$ in the first integral yields

$$L(X) = \mu_{\lambda, a, b} \quad \text{if and only if} \quad L\left(\frac{1}{X}\right) = \mu_{-\lambda, b, a}, \quad (2)$$

$$K_{\lambda}(c) = K_{-\lambda}(c) \quad \text{for } c > 0. \quad (3)$$

Indeed (3) is a consequence of the known properties of the Bessel function $K_{\lambda}(c)$ (see G.N. Watson (1966), p. 78). Hence the Laplace transform of $\mu_{\lambda, a, b}$ defined for $s > 0$ is

$$\hat{\mu}_{\lambda, a, b}(s) = \int_0^{\infty} \exp(-sx) \mu_{\lambda, a, b}(dx) = \left(1 + \frac{2s}{a}\right)^{-\lambda/2} \frac{K_{\lambda}(\sqrt{(a+2s)b})}{K_{\lambda}(\sqrt{ab})}. \quad (4)$$

From (3) we get

$$\hat{\mu}_{-\lambda, a, b}(s) = \left(1 + \frac{2s}{a}\right)^{\lambda/2} \frac{K_\lambda(\sqrt{(a+2s)b})}{K_\lambda(\sqrt{ab})}. \tag{5}$$

Comparing (4) and (5) we obtain our basic relation

$$\mu_{\lambda, a, b} = \mu_{-\lambda, a, b} * \gamma_{\lambda, 2/a} \quad \text{for } \lambda, a, b > 0 \tag{6}$$

where $*$ denotes convolution.

If we now consider two independent random variables X and Y such that

$$L(X) = \mu_{-\lambda, a, a} \quad \text{and} \quad L(Y) = \gamma_{\lambda, 2/a} \quad \text{with } \lambda, a > 0,$$

we obtain from (6)

$$L(Y + X) = \mu_{\lambda, a, a}$$

and from (2) we have

$$L(X) = L\left(\frac{1}{Y + X}\right). \tag{7}$$

Likewise if we consider three independent random variables X , Y_1 and Y_2 such that

$$L(X) = \mu_{-\lambda, a, b}, \quad L(Y_1) = \gamma_{\lambda, 2/b} \quad \text{and} \quad L(Y_2) = \gamma_{\lambda, 2/a},$$

with $\lambda, a, b > 0$, we obtain from (6) and (2)

$$L(Y_2 + X) = \mu_{\lambda, a, b}, \quad L\left(\frac{1}{Y_2 + X}\right) = \mu_{-\lambda, b, a},$$

$L\left(Y_1 + \frac{1}{Y_2 + X}\right) = \mu_{\lambda, b, a}$ and eventually

$$L(X) = L\left(\frac{1}{Y_1 + \frac{1}{Y_2 + X}}\right). \tag{8}$$

2. Characterizations

Formulae (7) and (8) raise the question, whether these properties are characteristic of $\mu_{-\lambda, a, a}$ and of $\mu_{-\lambda, a, b}$. This question is answered in the affirmative by the following.

Theorem 1. (i) *Let X and Y be two independent random variables such that $X > 0$ and $L(Y) = \gamma_{\lambda, 2/a}$ for $\lambda, a > 0$. Then $L(X) = L\left(\frac{1}{Y + X}\right)$ if and only if $L(X) = \mu_{-\lambda, a, a}$.*

(ii) *Let X , Y_1 and Y_2 be three independent random variables such that $X > 0$, $L(Y_1) = \gamma_{\lambda, 2/b}$, $L(Y_2) = \gamma_{\lambda, 2/a}$ for $\lambda, a, b > 0$. Then $L(X) = L\left(\frac{1}{Y_1 + \frac{1}{Y_2 + X}}\right)$ if and only if $L(X) = \mu_{-\lambda, a, b}$.*

The proof, as can easily be guessed from (8), is based on elementary properties of continued fractions. We shall therefore adopt the following notations.

If $(y_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ is a sequence of positive numbers, we define inductively the sequence $([y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n])_{n=1}^\infty$ by $[y_1] = y_1$ and

$$[y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n] = y_1 + \frac{1}{[y_2, \dots, y_n]} \quad \text{for } n \geq 2.$$

The following facts are well known (see for instance (Olds (1963), 3.7)). If $(p_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ and $(q_n)_{n=1}^\infty$ are defined by

$$\begin{aligned} p_1 = y_1, \quad p_2 = y_1 y_2 + 1, \quad \text{and} \quad p_n = y_n p_{n-1} + p_{n-2} \quad \text{for } n > 2 \\ q_1 = 1, \quad q_2 = y_2, \quad \text{and} \quad q_n = y_n q_{n-1} + q_{n-2} \quad \text{for } n > 2 \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

then

$$[y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n] = \frac{p_n}{q_n}, \tag{10}$$

$$[y_1, \dots, y_n] - [y_1, \dots, y_{n+1}] = \frac{(-1)^n}{q_n q_{n+1}}, \tag{11}$$

$$[y_1, \dots, y_n, k] = \frac{k p_n + p_{n-1}}{k q_n + q_{n-1}}. \tag{12}$$

The proof of Theorem 1 is based on the following.

Theorem 2. *If d is an integer > 0 and if $X_0, Y_1, Y_2, Y_3, \dots$ is a sequence of strictly positive independent random variables such that*

$$L(Y_{md+r}) = L(Y_r), \quad \forall r = 1, 2, \dots, d \quad \text{and} \quad \forall m = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

(i) $Z = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} [Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n]$ exists almost surely.

(ii) The Markov chain $(X_m)_{m=0}^\infty$ defined by

$$\frac{1}{X_{m+1}} = \left[Y_{md+1}, \dots, Y_{md+2}, \dots, Y_{(m+1)d}, \frac{1}{X_m} \right]$$

for $m \geq 0$, is such that $L(X_m)$ converges to $L\left(\frac{1}{Z}\right)$ for any $L(X_0)$; and

(iii) $L(X_0) = L\left(\frac{1}{\left[Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_d, \frac{1}{X_0} \right]}\right)$ if and only if $L(X_0) = L\left(\frac{1}{Z}\right)$.

Proof of Theorem 2. (i) Consider p_n and q_n defined by (9) with Y_n replacing y_n . (11) implies that

$$\left(\frac{p_{2n+1}}{q_{2n+1}}\right)_{n=0}^\infty \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\frac{p_{2n}}{q_{2n}}\right)_{n=0}^\infty$$

are two adjacent sequences, and we have only to show that $q_n q_{n+1} \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ almost surely.

Now

$$\begin{aligned} q_{2n+1} &= 1 + \sum_{k=1}^n (q_{2k+1} - q_{2k-1}) = 1 + \sum_{k=1}^n Y_{2k+1} q_{2k} \\ &\geq \sum_{k=1}^n Y_{2k} Y_2 \rightarrow \infty \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty \text{ almost surely.} \end{aligned}$$

Since $q_{2n} \geq Y_2$, clearly $q_n q_{n+1} \rightarrow \infty$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ almost surely.

(ii) We now use the fact that

$$\frac{1}{X_m} = \left[Y_{(m-1)d+1}, Y_{(m-1)d+2}, \dots, Y_{md}, Y_{(m-2)d+1}, \dots, Y_{(m-1)d}, Y_1, \dots, Y_d, \frac{1}{X_0} \right]$$

has the same distribution as $\left[Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_{md}, \frac{1}{X_0} \right]$.

From (10) and (12) we see that $\left[Y_1, \dots, Y_{md}, \frac{1}{X_0} \right]$ belongs to the interval with end points

$$\frac{P_{md}}{q_{md}} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{P_{md+1}}{q_{md+1}}.$$

(Since $a, b, c, d > 0$ and $\frac{a}{b} < \frac{c}{d}$ imply $\frac{a}{b} < \frac{a+c}{b+d} < \frac{c}{d}$).

Hence, from, (i) $Z = \lim_m \left[Y_1, \dots, Y_{md}, \frac{1}{X_0} \right]$ and $L(X_m) \xrightarrow{m \rightarrow \infty} L\left(\frac{1}{Z}\right)$ which is the unique stationary distribution of the Markov chain $(X_m)_{m=0}^\infty$.

(iii) The “if” part is obvious from (ii).

Conversely, if $L(X_0) = L\left(\frac{1}{\left[Y_1, \dots, Y_d, \frac{1}{X_0} \right]}\right)$, necessarily $L(X_0) = L(X_1)$

$= L(X_m)$ for all m . From (ii), $L(X_0) = L\left(\frac{1}{Z}\right)$:

Proof of Theorem 1. The “if” parts of (i) and (ii) are respectively (7) and (8). Conversely, we apply Theorem 2(iii) to the case $d=1$ and $L(Y_1) = \gamma_{\lambda, 2/a}$ to obtain (i), and to the case $d=2$, $L(Y_1) = \gamma_{\lambda, 2/b}$ and $L(Y_2) = \gamma_{\lambda, 2/a}$ to obtain (ii). Indeed, Theorem 2(iii) shows that the equation in $L(X_0)$

$$L(X_0) = L\left(\frac{1}{\left[Y_1, \dots, Y_d, \frac{1}{X_0} \right]}\right)$$

has a unique solution, and (7) and (8) give such a solution for $d=1$ and 2.

Remarks. Applying Theorem 2 to any d , and $L(Y_r) = \gamma_{\lambda, 2/a_r}$ where $\lambda, a_1, \dots, a_d > 0$, we can consider:

$$Z = Y_1 + \frac{1}{Y_2 + \frac{1}{Y_3 + \frac{1}{Y_4 + \dots}}}$$

which makes sense because of Theorem 2(i). If we denote by

$$L\left(\frac{1}{Z}\right) = \mu_{-\lambda, a_d, a_{d-1}, \dots, a_1}, \tag{13}$$

$$L(Z) = \mu_{\lambda, a_1, a_d, \dots, a_2}, \tag{14}$$

it is then easy to see that

$$\mu_{\lambda, a_d, \dots, a_1} = \mu_{-\lambda, a_d, \dots, a_1} * \gamma_{\lambda, 2/a_d}. \tag{15}$$

Theorem 2 implies that for fixed d , the family $\mu_{\lambda, a_1, \dots, a_d}$ of probabilities on $(0, +\infty)$ satisfying (13), (14) and (15) is unique. But it is indeed a challenging problem to determine the distribution explicitly. The cases $d=1$ and $d=2$ described in Theorem 1 turn out to be lucky accidents.

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