# Generalized Gaussian Measures and a "Functional Equation" : III. Measures on $\mathrm{R}^{n}$ 

Lawrence Corwin*<br>Department of Mathematics, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02139

## 1. Introduction

The Gaussian distribution can be characterized as the sole probability distribution which is "invariant under rotations in $\mathbf{R}^{2}$." More precisely, let $U_{\theta}: \mathbf{R}^{2} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{2}$ rotate the plane through an angle $\theta$ which is not a multiple of $\pi / 2$. Given a probability distribution $\mu$ on $\mathbf{R}$, define $\sigma$ to be the distribution on $\mathbf{R}^{2}$ given by $\sigma(E)=\mu \times \mu\left(U_{\theta}(E)\right)$. Then if $\sigma=$ $\nu \times \nu$ for some probability distribution $\nu, \mu$ is Gaussian. The first theorem along these lines seems to have been due to Kac [14]; see Feller, [3, pp. 77-8], for a more complete account.

In this paper, we prove similar results for more general $\sigma$-additive set functions on $\mathbf{R}^{n}$. That is, $\mu$ is required only to be a (complex) linear combination of regular measures on $\mathbf{R}^{n}$. The function $\mu$ itself need not be a measure, since it may be undefined on some Borel sets in $\mathbf{R}^{n}$. (For instance, if $\mu$ were Lebesgue measure on $[0, \infty)$ and the negative of Lebesgue measure on $(-\infty, 0)$, then $\mu$ would be covered by the theorem, although $\mu(\mathbf{R})$ is not defined.) For brevity, we shall refer to $\mu$ as a measure.

The first main result of this paper is the following:

Theorem 1.1. Let $A: \mathbf{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{n}$ be an invertible self-adjoint operator. Define $\xi_{A}: \mathbf{R}^{n} \times \mathbf{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{n} \times \mathbf{R}^{n}$ by

$$
\xi_{A}(x, y)=(x+A y, A x-y) .
$$

[^0]Suppose that $\mu, \nu$ are measures on $\mathbf{R}^{n}$ such that for all measurable sets $E \subseteq \mathbf{R}^{n} \times \mathbf{R}^{n}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu \times \mu(E)=\nu \times \nu\left(\xi_{A}(E)\right) . \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Suppose further that for some positive real number $a$, the function $\exp (a\langle x, x\rangle)$ is $\mu$-integrable. $\left(\langle\right.$,$\rangle is the usual inner product on R^{n}$.) Then $\mu$ is concentrated on a subspace of $\mathbf{R}^{n}$, which we may assume is $\mathbf{R}^{m}$. Furthermore, $\exists$ a constant $c$ and a symmetric complex $n \times n$ matrix $B$ on $\mathbf{R}^{m}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
d \mu(x)=c \exp (-\langle\pi B x, x\rangle) d x . \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

The hypothesis that $\exp (-a\langle x, x\rangle)$ be integrable is not very aesthetic; in at least one case, it is unnecessary.

Theorem 1.2. Suppose in Theorem 1.1 that $A=I$ (i.e., $\xi(x, y)=$ $(x+y, x-y)$.) Then the conclusion of Theorem 1.1 holds without the hypothesis that $\exp (-a\langle x, x\rangle)$ is $\mu$-integrable.

A theorem like Theorem 1.2 should hold for a wider class of operators $A$, for instance, for $A=\lambda I(\lambda \neq 0)$. With the methods used in this paper, however, one runs into rather messy technical difficulties. It is quite possible, too, that Theorem 1.1 holds for a wider class of operators $A$. For instance, one may need only to assume that $A$ and $I+A^{2}$ are invertible. The only obstacle to proving this more general result is Lemma 3.2.

The work in proving Theorem 1.1 occurs in the case where $\mu$ is finite; this case is discussed in Section 3 of this paper. Section 2 is concerned with some technical lemmas about matrices, and the theorems are proved in Section 4.
Theorem 1.2 has some obvious applications to the generalized Gaussian measures discussed in [2]. A brief discussion of these results is given in Section 5. Section 6 examines the more general case of measures $\mu$, $\nu_{1}, \nu_{2}$ satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu \times \mu\left(\xi_{A}(E)=\nu_{1} \times \nu_{2}(E)\right) . \tag{1.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

## 2. Some Lemmas

In what follows, $A$ is the operator defined in Theorem 1.1, and $D=\left(I+A^{2}\right)^{-1}$. The Fourier transform of $f$ is given by $f(x)=$
$\int f(a) e^{2 \pi i\langle a, x\rangle} d a$; thus Lebesgue measure is its own dual for Fourier inversion. If $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right), y=\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{n}\right)$ are $n$-tuples of complex numbers $\langle x, y\rangle=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} y_{i}$.

Lemma 2.1. $\|D\|<1,\|A D\|<1,\left\|A^{2}\right\|<1$.
Proof. For $\|x\|=1$, set $x=\left(I+A^{2}\right) z$. Then if $z \neq 0$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\langle A D x, A D x\rangle & =\langle A z, A z\rangle\left\langle\langle z, z\rangle+2\langle A z, A z\rangle+\left\langle A^{2} z, A^{2} z\right\rangle\right. \\
& =\left\langle\left(A^{2}+I\right) z,\left(A^{2}+I\right) z\right\rangle=\langle x, x\rangle=1 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Because the unit ball of $\mathbf{R}^{n}$ is compact, $\|A D\|<1$. The other parts are similar.

Lemma 2.2. Suppose $B$ is a symmetric $n \times n$ complex matrix whose real part is positive definite. Then $B$ is invertible, and $B^{-1}$ is symmetric and its real part is positive definite. If $f(x)=\sqrt{\operatorname{det} B} \exp (-\pi\langle B x, x\rangle)$, then $f(x)=\exp \left(-\pi\left\langle B^{-1} x, x\right\rangle\right)$, when the proper sign is chosen for the square root.

Proof. This is essentially the content of Lemmas 4.1 and 4.2 of [2].

Lemma 2.3. Let $C$ be an invertible symmetric $n \times n$ complex matrix; say $C=C_{1}+i C_{2}$, where the $C_{j}$ are real. Suppose that $C_{1}$ is positive semidefinite. Then $\exists \delta>0$ such that $\delta C_{2}{ }^{2}-\delta C_{1} \mid C_{1}$ and $\delta^{-1} I \quad C_{1}$ are both positive definite.

Proof. Pick $\delta$ so that $1 / \delta>$ largest eigenvalue of $C_{1}$. Then $\delta^{-1} I-C_{1}$ is positive definite. If $x \in \mathbf{R}^{n}$, write $x=x_{1}+x_{2}$, with $x_{1} \in \operatorname{ker} C_{1}$ and $x_{2} \perp$ ker $C_{1}$; then

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\langle\left(\delta C_{2}^{2}-\delta C_{1}^{2}+C\right)\left(x_{1}+x_{2}\right), x_{1}+x_{2}\right\rangle \\
& \quad=\left\langle\delta C_{2}\left(x_{1}+x_{2}\right), C_{2} x_{1}+x_{2}\right\rangle+\left\langle C_{1}\left(I-\delta C_{1}\right) x_{2}, x_{2}\right\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

On $\left(\operatorname{ker} C_{2}\right)^{\perp}, C$ has a square root; therefore the second term is positive if $x_{2} \neq 0$. If $x_{2}=0$, but $x_{1} \neq 0$, then the first term is $>0$, as $C_{2} \neq 0$ on $\operatorname{ker} C_{1}$ (since $C$ is invertible.)

This proves the lemma.

## 3. Proof of the Theorem for Finite Measures

We now prove Theorem 1.1 under the added hypotheses that $\mu$ (and hence also $\nu$ ) are finite and that $\mu\left(\mathbf{R}^{n}\right) \neq 0$. The rest of the proof will consist of reducing the general situation to this more special one.

Let $f, g$ be the Fourier-Stieltjes transforms of $\mu, \nu$, respectively. Then $f(0) \neq 0$.

Lemma 3.1. $f(x) f(y)=g(D(x+A y)) g(D(A x-y))$.
Proof.

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x) f(y)= & \iint_{=} \exp (-2 \pi i\langle\alpha, x\rangle) \exp (-2 \pi i\langle\beta, y\rangle) d \mu(\alpha) d \mu(\beta) \\
= & \iint_{R^{n} \times R^{n}} \exp (-2 \pi i(\langle\alpha+A \beta, D(x+A y)\rangle+\langle A \alpha-\beta, D(A x-y)\rangle) \\
& \times d(\mu \times \mu)(\alpha, \beta) \\
= & \iint_{R^{2}} \int_{R^{n}} \exp (-2 \pi i\langle\langle\alpha+A \beta, D(x+A y)\rangle+\langle A \alpha-\beta, D(A x-y)\rangle) \\
& \times d(\nu \times \nu)(\alpha+A \beta, A \alpha-\beta) \\
= & \iint_{R^{n} \times R^{n}} \exp (-2 \pi i\langle\alpha, D(x+A y)\rangle) \exp (-2 \pi i\langle\beta, D(A x-y)\rangle) \\
& \times d v(\alpha) d v(\beta) \\
= & g(D(x+A y)) g(D(A x-y)) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that Lemma 3.1 implies

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(x) g(y)=f(x+A y) f(A x-y) . \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Lemma 3.2. $f(x) \neq 0, g(x) \neq 0$ for all $x$.
Proof. It suffices to prove either half. If the lemma is false, let $x_{0}$ be an element with minimal norm such that $f\left(x_{0}\right)=0$. By hypothesis, $x_{0} \neq 0$. But $f\left(x_{0}\right)=0 \Rightarrow g\left(D x_{0}\right) g\left(D A x_{0}\right)=0$, and $g\left(y_{0}\right)=0 \Rightarrow$ $f\left(y_{0}\right) f\left(A y_{0}\right)=0$; hence $f\left(x_{0}\right)=0 \Rightarrow f\left(D x_{0}\right) f\left(D A x_{0}\right)^{2} f\left(D A^{2} x_{0}\right)=0$. Now Lemma 2.1 gives a contradiction. From Lemma 3.1, $f(0)^{2}=g(0)^{2}$; by taking constant multiples of $\mu$ and $\nu$, we may assume $f(0)=g(0)=1$. Note that $f(x)=g(D(x)) g(D(A x))$ and that $f(y)=g(D(A y)) g(D(-y)$; set $y=x$ to show that $g(x)=g(-x)$. Similarly, $f$ is even.

Set $h(x, y)=f(x+y) / f(x) f(y)$.
Lemma 3.3. $h(x, y)$ is bilinear in $x$ and $y$.
Proof. Since $h$ is clearly symmetric in $x$ and $y$, it suffices to show linearity in either variable. Hence it suffices to show that $h(x+z, A y)=$ $h(x, A y) h(z, A y)$; we may assume further that $z=\left(A^{2}+I\right) w$.
(2.1) shows that $g(x)=f(x) f(A x)$, and hence that

$$
f(x) f(A x) f(y) f(A y)=f(x+A y) f(A x-y)
$$

Therefore $h(x, A y)=f(A x) f(y) / f(A x-y)$ and so

$$
\begin{aligned}
h(x+z, A y) & =h\left(x+A^{2} w+w, A y\right)=\frac{f\left(x+w+A^{2} w+A y\right)}{f\left(x+w+A^{2} w\right) f(A y)} \\
& =\frac{f\left(A y+A^{2} w\right) h\left(x+w, A y+A^{2} w\right)}{f\left(A^{2} w\right) h\left(x+w, A^{2} w\right) f(A y)} \\
& =\frac{f\left(A y+A^{2} w\right) f(A x+A w) f(y+A w)}{f\left(A^{2} w\right) f(A y) h\left(x+w, A^{2} w\right) f(A x-y)} \\
& =\frac{f\left(A y+A^{2} w\right)}{f(A y) f\left(A^{2} w\right)} \cdot \frac{f(A w+y)}{f(A w)} \cdot \frac{f(A x)}{f(A x-y)} \\
& =h\left(A^{2} w, A y\right) h(A w, y) h(x, A y) .
\end{aligned}
$$

For $x=0$, this says that $h(z, A y)=h\left(A^{2} w, A y\right) h(A w, y)$; the lemma follows.

Lemma 3.4. $f(x)=h(x, x / 2)$.
Proof. $h(x,-x)=f(x)^{-1} f(-x)^{-1}=f(x)^{-2}$; hence $h(x, x)=1 / h(x,-x)=$ $f(x)^{2}$. Furthermore, $f(2 x)=h(x, x) f(x)^{2}=f(x)^{4}$. Substitute $x / 2$ for $x$; then $h(x, x / 2)=h(x / 2, x / 2)^{2}=f(x / 2)^{4}=f(x)$.

Lemma 3.5. Set $\sigma=\mu * \mu$, and define $\varphi: \mathbf{R}^{n} \times \mathbf{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^{n} \times \mathbf{R}^{n}$ by $\varphi(x, y)=(x+y, y-x)$. Then $(\sigma \times \sigma(\varphi(E))=\mu \times \mu(E)$ for all measurable $E \subseteq R^{n} \times R^{n}$.

Proof. The Fourier-Stieltjes transform of $\sigma$ is $F=f^{2} . F(x) F(y)=$ $f(x+y) f(x-y)$, as a simple computation using Lemma 3.4 shows.

The formula $F(x) F(y)=f(x+y) f(x-y)$ means that

$$
\int u(x, y) d \sigma(x) d \sigma(y)=\int u(x+y, x-y) d \mu(x) d \mu(y)
$$

whenever $u$ is a product of characters on $\mathbf{R}^{n}$. It therefore holds for all functions $u$ which are uniform limits of sums of such characters, and hence for all $C^{\infty}$ functions in $\mathbf{R}^{n} \times \mathbf{R}^{n}$ with compact support. Take limits again; then the formula holds for all continuous $u$ with compact support. By the Riesz representation theorem, it also holds when $u=\chi_{\varphi E}$, the characteristic function of $\varphi E$; then, since $(x+y, x-y) \in \varphi E \Leftrightarrow$ $(x, y) \in E$, we get $\sigma \times \sigma(\varphi E)=\mu \times \mu(E)$, as desired.

## Lemma 3.6. The support of $\mu$ is a subspace of $\mathbf{R}^{n}$.

Proof. This proof is an easy modification of the proof of Lemma 4.1 in [1].

In view of this result, we may as well assume that $\mu$ is defined on all of $\mathbf{R}^{n}$.

We now proceed to prove the theorem for $\mu$. From Lemma 3.3, we may assume that $f=\mu$ is a quadratic character. Let $e_{1}, \ldots, e_{n}$ be the usual basis for $\mathbf{R}^{n}$. For $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$, set $h_{j}(a, b)=f\left((a+b) e_{j}\right) / f\left(a e_{j}\right) f\left(b e_{j}\right)$. Then $h_{j}$ is bilinear, and so $\exists c_{j j} \in C$ with $h_{j}(a, b)=\exp \left(-2 c_{j j} a b\right)$. Similarly, let $h_{i j}(a, b)=f\left(a e_{i}+b e_{j}\right) / f\left(a e_{i}\right) f\left(b e_{j}\right)$ for $i \neq j$; then $h_{i j}(a, b) \exp \left(-2 \pi c_{i j} a b\right)$ for somc $c_{i j} \in C$. Morcover, $c_{i j}=c_{j i}$. Let $C=\left(c_{i j}\right)$; we show that $f(x)=\exp (\langle-\pi C x, x\rangle)$. To do this, we write $x=\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} l_{i}$ and induct on the number of nonzero $x_{i}$. If $x=x_{i} e_{i}$, then Lemma 3.4 shows that the formula holds; it is also easy to check the formula for $x=x_{i} e_{i}+x_{j} e_{j}$. The induction step follows from the formulas

$$
\begin{aligned}
f\left(x_{1}+x_{2}+x_{3}\right) & =f\left(x_{1}+x_{2}\right) f\left(x_{3}\right) h\left(x_{1}+x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \\
& =f\left(x_{1}+x_{2}\right) f\left(x_{3}\right) h\left(x_{1}, x_{3}\right) h\left(x_{2}, x_{3}\right) \\
& =\frac{f\left(x_{1}+x_{2}\right) f\left(x_{1}+x_{3}\right) f\left(x_{2}+x_{3}\right)}{f\left(x_{1}\right) f\left(x_{2}\right) f\left(x_{3}\right)}
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\langle C\left(x_{1}+x_{2}+x_{3}\right), x_{1}+x_{2}+x_{3}\right\rangle \\
& =\quad\left\langle C\left(x_{1}+x_{2}\right), x_{1}+x_{2}\right\rangle+\left\langle C\left(x_{1}+x_{3}\right), x_{1}+x_{3}\right\rangle \\
& \left.\quad+\left\langle C\left(x_{2}+x_{3}\right), x_{2}+x_{3}\right)\right\rangle-\left\langle C\left(x_{1}\right), x_{1}\right\rangle-\left\langle C\left(x_{2}\right), x_{2}\right\rangle-\left\langle C\left(x_{3}\right), x_{3}\right\rangle .
\end{aligned}
$$

$\operatorname{Re}(C)$ is at least positive semidefinite, since $f$ is bounded. If $\operatorname{Re}(C)$ is positive definite, then Lemma 2.2 and Fourier inversion show that $d \mu(x)=\sqrt{\operatorname{det} B} \exp \langle-\pi B x, x\rangle d x$, where $B=C^{-1}$. In that case we are done. We now show that $\operatorname{Re}(C)=C_{1}$ is positive definite. Otherwise, $C_{1}$ is positive semidefinite, but not positive definite. Set $C_{2}=\operatorname{Im}(C)$. $C$ is invertible, since otherwise $f$ is constant on cosets of $\operatorname{ker} C$ and hence supp $\mu \neq \mathbf{R}^{n}$ (by [5, Theorem 2.7.1]). By Lemma 2.3, $\exists \alpha$ such that $\alpha C_{2}{ }^{2}-\alpha C_{1}{ }^{2}+C_{1}$ and $\alpha^{-1} I-C_{1}$ are both positive definite. Then $\operatorname{Re}\left(\alpha^{-1} I-C\right)$ and $\operatorname{Re}\left(C-\alpha C^{2}\right)$ are positive definite; hence $\alpha^{-1} I-C$ and $C-\alpha C^{2}$ are invertible. Let their inverses be $B_{1}, B_{2}$, respectively, and let $\hat{g}(x)=\exp \left(\left\langle-\pi\left(C-\alpha C^{2}\right) x_{1} x\right\rangle\right), \hat{h}(x)=\exp \left(\left\langle-\pi\left(\alpha^{-1} I-C\right) x_{1} x\right\rangle\right)$. Then $\hat{g}, \hat{h}$ are the Fourier transforms of $g(x)=\sqrt{\operatorname{det} B_{2}} \exp \left(\left\langle-\pi B_{2} x_{1} x\right\rangle\right)$ and $h(x)=\sqrt{\operatorname{det} B_{1}} \exp \left(\left\langle-\pi B_{1} x_{1} x\right\rangle\right)$, respectively. Moreover, $\left(\hat{\mu}_{1} * \hat{h}\right)=\hat{g}$. However,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\widehat{(h \mu)}(x) & =\int \exp (-\pi i\langle x, a\rangle) h(a) d \mu(a) \\
& =\int \exp (-\pi i\langle x, a\rangle)\left(\int h(g) \exp (\pi i\langle a, z\rangle) d z\right) d \mu(a) \\
& =\iint h(z) \exp (\langle-\pi i a, x-z\rangle) d \mu(a) d g \\
& =\int h(z) \hat{\mu}(x-z) d z=\hat{h} * \hat{\mu}(x) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus $\hat{g}=\widehat{h \mu})$, or $g=h \mu$. Hence $d \mu(x)=g(x) / h(x) d x$ is absolutely continuous. It is also finite. Thus $\hat{\mu}(x)$ vanishes at $\infty$; it follows that $C_{1}$ is positive definite. This finishes the proof.

## 4. Proof of the Main Theorems

Given the results of the last section, it is not hard to prove Theorem 1.1. It suffices to find a positive self-adjoint matrix $T$, which commutes with $A$, such that $\int e^{-\langle T x, x\rangle} d \mu(x)$ exists and is nonzero. For then $d \mu^{\prime}(x)=$ $e^{-\langle T x, x\rangle} d \mu(x)$ and $d \nu^{\prime}(x)=e^{-\langle D T x, x)} d \nu(x)$ satisfy the hypotheses for Section 3.

By hypothesis, $e^{-\langle\alpha x, x\rangle}$ is $\mu$-integrable, i.e., $d \mu(x)=e^{-\langle\alpha x, x\rangle} d \mu(x)$ is finite. For each positive self-adjoint matrix $T$ which commutes with $A, f_{T}(x)=e^{-\langle T x, x\rangle}$ is $\mu_{1}$-integrable. If $\exists T$ such that $\int_{\mathbf{R}^{n}} f_{T}(x) d \mu_{1}(x) \neq 0$,
we are done. Otherwise, the $f_{T}$ span a dense set on the space of continuous functions on $\mathbf{R}^{n}$ which vanish at $\infty$ (by the Stone-Weierstrass theorem). Then $\int_{\mathbf{R}^{n}} f(x) d \mu_{1}(x)=0$ for all continuous functions $f$ which vanish at infinity, and (by the Riesz representation theorem) $\mu_{1}=0$. This contradicts the hypothesis, and Theorem 1.1 is proved.

To prove Theorem 1.2, it suffices to show that if $\mu, \nu$ satisfy (1.1), then $\exists \alpha>0$ such that $e^{-\alpha\langle x, x\rangle}$ is $\mu$-integrable.
For $\alpha>0$, define

$$
\begin{aligned}
& S(\alpha)=\{x:\|x\|<\alpha\}, \\
& M(\alpha)=\sup _{\|f\|_{\infty}=1}\left|\int_{S(\alpha)} f(x) d \mu(x)\right|, \\
& N(\alpha)=\sup _{\|f\|_{\alpha}=1}\left|\int_{S(\alpha)} d(x) d v(x)\right|
\end{aligned}
$$

For any $\epsilon, 0<\epsilon<\alpha, S(2 \alpha+3 \epsilon / 2) \times S(\epsilon / 2) \subseteq \xi(S(\alpha+\epsilon) \times S(\alpha+\epsilon))$, as is easily checked.
Similarly,

$$
S(\alpha+\epsilon) \times S\left(\frac{\epsilon}{2}\right) \subseteq \xi^{-1}\left(S\left(\alpha+\frac{3 \epsilon}{2}\right) \times S\left(\alpha+\frac{\epsilon}{2}\right)\right) .
$$

From (1.1),

$$
\begin{aligned}
M(\alpha+\epsilon)^{2} & >N\left(2 \alpha+\frac{3 \epsilon}{2}\right) N\left(\frac{\epsilon}{2}\right), \\
N\left(\alpha+\frac{3 \epsilon}{2}\right)^{2} & >M(\alpha+\epsilon) M\left(\frac{\epsilon}{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

hence if $c=N(\epsilon / 2)^{2} M(\epsilon / 2)$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
M(\alpha+\epsilon)^{4}>c M(2 \alpha+\epsilon) . \tag{4.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\mu \neq 0, M \neq 0$. There is no loss of generality in assuming that $\exists \epsilon<1$ with $M(\epsilon / 2)>0$. Moreover, we may multiply $\mu$ and $\nu$ by the same nonnegative constant without affecting the result; thus we may assume $c=1$.

To prove that $e^{-a\langle x, x\rangle}$ is integrable, it suffices to show that it is integrable on the complement of $S(1)$. Let $T_{n}$ be the complement of $S\left(2^{n-1}\right)$ in $S\left(2^{n}\right)$.

On $T_{n}, e^{-a\langle x, x\rangle} \leqslant \exp \left(-a 2^{2 n-2}\right)$; hence

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left|\int_{T_{n}} e^{-a<x, x>} d \mu(x)\right| & \leqslant M\left(2^{n}\right) \exp \left(-a 2^{2 n-2}\right) \\
& \leqslant M\left(2^{n}+\epsilon\right) \exp \left(-\frac{a}{4} 2^{2 n}\right) \\
& <M(1+\epsilon) 2^{2 n} \exp \left(-\frac{a}{4} 2^{2 n}\right)=\left(M(1+\epsilon) e^{-a / 4}\right) 2^{2 n}
\end{aligned}
$$

If $a$ is chosen such that $e^{a / 4}>M(1+\epsilon)$, then $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}\left|\int_{T_{n}} e^{-a\langle x, x\rangle} d \mu(x)\right|$ converges. The theorem follows.
It should be noted that Theorems 1.1 and 1.2 apply to $\nu$ as well as to $\mu$. The simplest way to show this is to set $\mu_{0}(E)=\mu(D E)$; then $\nu \times \nu(E)=$ $\mu_{0} \times \mu_{0}\left(\xi_{A}(E)\right)$, and the theorems can be applied directly.

## 5. Applications

In [1] the notion of a Gaussian measure was generalized to locally compact Abelian groups $G$ for which $x \rightarrow 2 x$ is an automorphism: $\mu$ is symmetric Gaussian on $G$ if $\exists$ a measure $\nu$ on $G$ such that $\mu \times \mu(E)=$ $\nu \times \nu(\xi(E))$ for all measurable $E \subseteq G \times G(\xi: G \times G \rightarrow G \times G$ is defined by $\xi(x, y)=(x+y, x-y)$ ). Theorem 1.2, in effect, characterizes the Gaussian measures on $\mathbf{R}^{n}$.

We now characterize the symmetric Gaussian measures on groups of the form $G=\mathbf{R}^{n} \times C$, where $C$ is a compact group such that $x \rightarrow 2 x$ is an automorphism. The first step is to reduce the problem to one with finite measures. For $(x, y) \in \mathbf{R}^{n} \times C$, define $\|(x, y)\|=\|x\|$.

Lemma 5.1. If $\mu$ is symmetric Gaussian on $G=\mathbf{R}^{n} \times C$, then $\exists$ a real number a and a finite symmetric Gaussian measure $\mu_{0}$ on $G$ such that $d \mu(x)=e^{-a\|x\|^{2}} d \mu_{0}(x)$.

The proof is exactly like that used to deduce Theorem 1.2 from Theorem 1.1.

Now let $\mu$ be a finite Gaussian measure on $G$. Then (as in Lemma 3.6) supp $\mu$ is a closed subgroup of $G$ closed under $x \mapsto 2 x$. Because of the structure theorem for Abelian groups [5, Theorem 2.4], there is no generality in supposing that $\operatorname{supp} \mu=G$. The Fourier-Stieltjes transform, $\hat{\mu}$, is a multiple of a quadratic character (by [1, Lemma 5.2]),
and hence is nonzero on a subgroup of $G$. That subgroup includes $\mathbf{R}^{n}$ (because $\mu(0) \neq 0$ ). Then the argument of [2, Theorem 2.1], shows that we may assume $\hat{\mu}$ is never zero on $G$.

Let $G_{0}$ be the dual of the discrete rationals. $R$ can be imbedded in $G_{0}$ by identifying $x \in R$ with the character $a \mapsto e^{2 \pi i x a}$. In this way, $G$ can be imbedded in $G_{1}=G_{0}{ }^{n} \times C . G_{1}$ is a subgroup of $G$; if one regards $\mu$ as a measure on $G_{1}$, its Fourier-Stieltjes transform (on $\hat{G}_{1}$ ) is the restriction of $\mu$ to $G_{1}$.

Theorem 5.1 of [2] shows that (as a measure on $G_{1}$ ) $\mu=\mu_{1} * \mu_{2}$, where $\mu_{1}$ is a large Gaussian measure on $G_{1}$ and $\mu_{2}$ is a matricial Gaussian measure concentrated on a subgroup of $G$. The Fourier-Stieltjes transform $\mu_{1}$ is a finite-valued quadratic character; it must therefore be constant on the cosets of $\left(\widehat{G_{0}{ }^{n}}\right)=Q^{n}$. Hence $\mu_{1}$ is concentrated on $C$. $\mu_{1}$ is invertible. Regard it as a measure on $\mathbf{R}^{n} \times C$; then we may regard $\mu_{2}=\mu^{-1} * \mu$ as a measure on $\mathbf{R} \times C$. We have proved

Theorem 5.2. A finite symmetric Gaussian measure $\mu$ whose support is $\mathbf{R}^{n} \times C$ and whose Fourier-Stieltjes transform never vanishes can be written as $\mu=\mu_{1} * \mu_{2}$, where $\mu_{1}$ is a "matricial" Gaussian measure on $\mathbf{R}^{n} \times C$ and $\mu_{2}$ is a large Gaussian measure concentrated at finitely many points of $C$.

The quotation marks are around "matricial" because the term was defined only for compact groups in [2]. The extended meaning should be clear.

A slight extension of this proof enable one to find all finite Gaussian measures on group $G$ for which $x \rightarrow 2 x$ is an automorphism.

## 6. A Generalization of the Main Theorem

Theorem 1.1 has a generalization, obtained by using (1.3) as the "functional equation."

Theorem 6.1. Suppose that $\mu, \nu_{1}$, and $\nu_{2}$ are nonzero measures on $\mathbf{R}^{n}$ which satisfy (1.3), and assume further that $\exists a \in \mathbf{R}$ such that $e^{-\alpha\|x\|^{2}}$ is integrable with respect to all three measures. Then $\mu$ is a translate of a character times a measure satisfying (1.1); that is, $\exists$ a measure $\mu_{0}$ and a character $\alpha$ on $\mathbf{R}^{n}$ such that $\mu_{0}$ is of the form described in Theorem 1.1 and $\alpha(x) d \mu_{0}(x)$ is a translate of $\mu$. The same applies to the $\nu_{i}$.

To begin the proof, note that (as in the proof of Theorem 1.1) we may assume that $\mu$ and the $\nu_{i}$ are finite measures and that $\mu\left(\mathbf{R}^{n}\right) \neq 0$. Then setting $f=\mu_{0}, g_{i}=\nu_{i}(i=1,2)$, one obtains (as in Lemma 3.1)

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{1}(x) g_{2}(y)=f(x+A y) f(A x-y) \tag{6.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

and it follows (as in Lemma 3.2) that $f$ and the $g_{i}$ never vanish. We may also assume that $f(0)=1, g_{i}(0)=1(i=1,2)$.

The meat of the rest of the proof if contained in an algebraic lemma.
Lemma 6.2. If $f, g_{1}$, and $g_{2}$ are nonvanishing functions satisfying (6.1), then $\exists$ a homomorphism $s: \mathbf{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}^{x}$ such that $f_{0}=f s$ and $g_{0}(x)=$ $g_{1}(x) s(x) s(A x)$ satisfy (3.1).

Proof. Set $r(x)=f(x) / f(-x)$. Then since $f(x) f(A x)=g_{1}(x)$, $f(A x) f(-x)=g_{2}(x)$, we have $r(x)=g_{1}(x) / g_{2}(x)$. Next,

$$
\begin{aligned}
r(A x-A y) & =\frac{f(A x-A y)}{f(A y-A x)}=\frac{f(A x-A y) f\left(A^{2} x+y\right)}{f\left(y+A^{2} x\right) f(A y-A x)} \\
& =\frac{g_{1}(A x) g_{2}(-y)}{g_{1}(y) g_{2}(A x)}=r(A x) \frac{g_{2}(-y)}{g_{1}(y)}
\end{aligned}
$$

For $x=0$, we find that $r(A y)=g_{2}(y) \mid g_{1}(-y)$; hence $r(A x-A y)=$ $r(A x) r(-A y)$. Since $A$ is an isomorphism, $r$ is a homomorphism. Let $s(x)=r(-x / 2), f_{0}=f s_{1}, g_{0}(x)=g_{1}(x) s(x+A x), g_{3}(x)=$ $g_{2}(x) s(A x-x)$. Then $g_{3}(x)=g_{0}(x)\left(g_{2}(x) / g_{1}(x) s(-2 x)=g_{0}(x)\right.$, and so $f_{0}(x+A y) f_{0}(A x-y)=g_{0}(x) g_{3}(y)=g_{0}(x) g_{0}(y)$, as desired.

It now follows that $f_{0}(x)=\exp (\langle-\pi C x, x\rangle)$ for some symmetric matrix $C$, as in Theorem 1.1. Moreover, $s(-x)=\exp \left(-\pi\left\langle a_{0}+2 i a_{1}, x\right\rangle\right)$, where $a_{0}$ and $a_{1}$ are $n$-tuples of real numbers. Hence

$$
f(x)=\exp \left(-\pi\left\langle C x+a_{0}+2 i a_{1}, x\right\rangle\right) .
$$

Since $f$ is bounded, $a_{0} \in$ range $(\operatorname{Re} C)$. For let $a_{0}=b_{0}+c_{0}$, with $b_{0} \in \operatorname{range}(\operatorname{Re} C), b_{1} \in$ range $(\operatorname{Re} C)$. Then $\operatorname{Re}\left(c b_{1}\right)=0$, since $\operatorname{Re} C$ is self-adjoint. Hence $\left|f\left(-\lambda b_{1}\right)\right|=\exp \left(\left\langle-\pi a_{0},-\lambda b_{1}\right\rangle\right)=\exp \left(\lambda\left\|b_{1}\right\|^{2}\right)$ is bounded, and so $b_{1}=0$.
Pick $x_{0}$ with $2 C\left(x_{0}\right)=a_{0}+2 i a_{2}$. Then

$$
f(x)=K \exp \left(2 \pi i\left\langle a_{2}-a_{1}, x-x_{0}\right\rangle\right) \exp \left(-\pi\left\langle C\left(x-x_{0}\right), x-x_{0}\right\rangle\right),
$$

where $K$ is a constant. Set $d \mu_{0}(x)=\exp \left(2 \pi i\left\langle-x_{0}, x\right\rangle\right) d \mu\left(x+u_{1}-a_{2}\right)$. Then $\mu_{0}(x)=K \exp (-\pi\langle c x, x\rangle)$, as desired. The result for $\nu_{1}$ and $\nu_{2}$ follows similarly, by expressing $g_{1}$ and $g_{2}$ in terms of $g_{0}$.

In the case where $A=I$, we can say a bit more.
Theorem 6.3. Suppose that $\mu_{1}, \mu_{2}, \nu_{1}, \nu_{2}$ are measures on $\mathbf{R}^{n}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mu_{1} \times \mu_{2}(E)=\nu_{1} \times \nu_{2}(\xi(\epsilon)) \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all measurable $E \subseteq \mathbf{R}^{n} \times \mathbf{R}^{n}$. Assume further that $\exists$ a real number a such that $\exp \left(-a\|x\|^{2}\right)$ is integrable with respect to the $\mu_{i}, \nu_{i}$. Then the $\mu_{i}, \nu_{i}$ are translates of characters times measures satisfying (1.1), as in Theorem 6.1.

Proof. Most of the analysis is just like that of Theorem 6.1; what we need to prove is the analog of Lemma 6.2. To be precise, we need to show that if $f_{1}, f_{2}, g_{1}, g_{2}$ are nonvanishing functions, with $f_{i}(0)=$ $g_{i}(0)=1$, satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
g_{1}(x) g_{2}(y)-f_{1}(x+y) f_{2}(x-y) \tag{6.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

then $\exists$ a homomorphism $u: \mathbf{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbf{C}^{\mathbf{x}}$ such that for $G_{1}=g_{1} u, G_{2}=g_{2} u$, $f_{2}(x+y) f_{2}(x-y)=G_{1}(x) G_{2}(y)$; moreover, $f_{2}=f_{1} u$. To show this set $t(x)=g_{2}(x) / g_{2}(-x)=f_{1}(x) f_{2}(-x) / f_{1}(-x) f_{2}(x)$; then

$$
\begin{aligned}
t(x+y) & =\frac{f_{1}(x+y) f_{2}(-x-y)}{f_{1}(-x-y) f_{2}(x+y)} \\
& =\frac{f_{1}(x+y) f_{2}(x-y) f_{1}(-y+x) f_{2}(-y-x)}{f_{1}(-y-x) f_{2}(-y+x) f_{1}(x-y) f_{2}(x+y)} \\
& =\frac{g_{1}(x) g_{2}(y) g_{1}(-y) g_{2}(x)}{g_{1}(-y) g_{2}(-x) g_{1}(x) g_{2}(-y)}=t(x) t(y) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now let $u(x)=t(-x / 2)$. Then $G_{1}(x) G_{2}(y)=F_{1}(x+y) f_{2}(x-y)$ and $G_{2}(y)=G_{2}(-y)$. Hence $F_{1}(x+y) f_{2}(x-y)=F_{2}(x-y) f_{2}(x+y)$, or $F_{1}(x+y)\left|f_{2}(x+y)=F_{1}(x-y)\right| f_{2}(x-y)$, for all $x, y$. For $x=y$, we find $F_{1} / f_{2}=F_{1}(0) / f_{2}(0)=1$. This proves the assertion. The rest of the theorem now follows.

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