

## A Random Integral and Orlicz Spaces

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**1. Symmetric random measures.** Let  $\mathcal{B}$  be the  $\sigma$ -algebra of all Borel subsets of the unit interval  $I = [0, 1]$ . A function  $M$  defined on  $\mathcal{B}$  whose values are real-valued random variables is called a *random measure* if

(i) for every sequence  $E_1, E_2, \dots$  of disjoint sets from  $\mathcal{B}$   $M(\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} M(E_n)$ , where the series converges with probability 1,

(ii) for every sequence  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n$  of disjoint sets from  $\mathcal{B}$  the random variables  $M(E_1), M(E_2), \dots, M(E_n)$  are independent.

For the theory of random measures see [9]–[11].

A random measure  $M$  is said to be *symmetric* if the random variables  $M(E)$  ( $E \in \mathcal{B}$ ) are symmetrically distributed. Further, a random measure  $M$  is said to be *atomless* if  $M(\{a\}) = 0$  for every one-point set  $\{a\}$ . In this paper we identify random variables which are equal with probability 1. If  $M$  is an atomless random measure, then for every  $E \in \mathcal{B}$  the random variable  $M(E)$  has an infinitely divisible distribution ([11], p. 380). Thus the characteristic function  $\varphi_{M(E)}$  of the random variable  $M(E)$  can be written in the Lévy–Khinchine form

$$(1.1) \quad \varphi_{M(E)}(t) = \exp \left[ i\gamma_M(E)t + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left( e^{itu} - 1 - \frac{itu}{1+u^2} \right) \frac{1+u^2}{u^2} dH_E(u) \right],$$

where the function  $H_E$  is monotone non-decreasing, bounded, and  $H_E(-\infty) = 0$ . The set functions  $\gamma_M(E)$  and  $\mu_M(E) = H_E(\infty)$  ( $E \in \mathcal{B}$ ) are number-valued Borel measures ([11], p. 381). Moreover,  $M(E) = 0$  if and only if  $\gamma_M(E) = \mu_M(E) = 0$ . A set  $E$  from  $\mathcal{B}$  is said to be an  $M$ -null set if  $M(A) = 0$  for all Borel subsets  $A$  of  $E$ . Relations valid except on an  $M$ -null set are said to be valid  $M$ -almost everywhere. Put  $\nu_M = \text{var } \gamma_M + \mu_M$ . Then the classes of  $M$ -null sets and  $\nu_M$ -null sets are identical. Now we shall prove an analogue of the Nikodym Theorem. The limit in probability of a sequence  $X_n$  of random variables will be denoted by  $p - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} X_n$ .

**THEOREM 1.1.** *Let  $M_1, M_2, \dots$  be a sequence of atomless random measures. Suppose that for every  $E \in \mathcal{B}$  there exists the limit*

$$(1.2) \quad p - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M_n(E) = M(E).$$

*Then  $M$  is an atomless random measure.*

**Proof.** For every  $E \in \mathcal{B}$  the convergence (1.2) implies the uniform convergence,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \varphi_{M_n(E)}(t) = \varphi_{M(E)}(t)$  in every finite interval. Thus  $M(E)$  has an infinitely divisible distribution and its characteristic function is given by (1.1), where  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \gamma_{M_n}(E) = \gamma_M(E)$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_{M_n}(E) = \mu_M(E)$  ([5], p. 300). By the Nikodym Theorem ([3], Chap. III, 7) both set functions  $\gamma_M$  and  $\mu_M$  are atomless measures. Further, it is clear that the function  $M$  is atomless, finitely additive and satisfies condition (ii). Suppose that  $E_1 \supset E_2 \supset \dots$  and  $\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n = \emptyset$ , ( $E_n \in \mathcal{B}$ ,  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ ). Then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \gamma_M(E_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_M(E_n) = 0$ . Consequently, by (1.1)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \varphi_{M(E_n)}(t) = 1$  uniformly in every finite interval. Thus  $p - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} M(E_n) = 0$  which, by Prékopa's Theorem ([9], p. 227) shows that  $M$  is completely additive. Consequently  $M$  is an atomless random measure.

**2. A random integral.** Let  $M$  be an atomless random measure. If  $f$  is a real valued Borel simple function,  $f = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j \chi_{E_j}$ , where  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n$  belong to  $\mathcal{B}$  and  $\chi_A$  denotes the indicator of  $A$ , then the integral on every Borel set  $E$  of  $f$  with respect to  $M$  is defined by the formula

$$\int_E f(s) M(ds) = \sum_{j=1}^n c_j M(E_j \cap E).$$

It is clear that this definition does not depend upon a particular representation of  $f$  in the form of a linear combinations of indicators. Further, the integral of every Borel simple function is a random measure. A Borel function  $f$  defined on  $I$  is said to be  $M$ -integrable if there exists a sequence of Borel simple functions  $\{f_n\}$  such that

(\*) the sequence  $\{f_n\}$  converges to  $f$   $M$ -almost everywhere on  $I$ ,

(\*\*) for every  $E \in \mathcal{B}$  the sequence  $\{\int_E f_n(s) M(ds)\}$  converges in probability.

Then we put  $\int_E f(s) M(ds) = p - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_E f_n(s) M(ds)$ .

Now we shall prove that the integral of an  $M$ -integrable function is uniquely determined. Let  $\{f_n\}$  and  $\{g_n\}$  be two sequences of Borel simple functions satisfying conditions (\*) and (\*\*). We have to prove that the corresponding sequences of integrals have the same limits. Put  $h_n = f_n - g_n$  ( $n = 1, 2, \dots$ ). The sequence  $\{h_n\}$  tends to zero  $M$ -almost everywhere on  $I$  and consequently,  $v_M$ -almost everywhere,

where  $v_M$  is a non-negative measure associated with  $M$ . Thus, by the Egorov Theorem ([4], sec. 2.1) every set  $E$  from  $\mathcal{B}$  is a union

$$(2.1) \quad E = \bigcup_{k=0}^{\infty} E_k$$

of disjoint sets from  $\mathcal{B}$  such that  $v_M(E_0) = 0$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} h_n = 0$  uniformly on every set  $E_1, E_2, \dots$ . Let  $\gamma_{N_n}$  and  $\mu_{N_n}$  be number valued measures corresponding to the random measure  $N_n(A) = \int_A h_n(s) M(ds)$ . Since  $|\gamma_{N_n}(A)| \leq \text{Var } \gamma_M(A) \sup_{s \in A} |h_n(s)|$  and  $\mu_{N_n}(A) \leq \mu_M(A) \sup_{s \in A} |h_n(s)|$ , we have the formulae  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \gamma_{N_n}(E_k) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \mu_{N_n}(E_k) = 0$ , ( $k = 0, 1, \dots$ ). Thus

$$(2.2) \quad p - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N_n(E_k) = 0 \quad (k = 0, 1, \dots).$$

Put  $N(A) = p - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} N_n(A)$  ( $A \in \mathcal{B}$ ). By Theorem 1.1,  $N$  is a random measure. Hence and from (2.1) and (2.2) we get the formula  $N(E) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} N(E_k) = 0$  for every  $E \in \mathcal{B}$ . Thus for every set  $E \in \mathcal{B}$  the sequences  $\{\int_E f_n(s) M(ds)\}$  and  $\{\int_E g_n(s) M(ds)\}$  have the same limit.

The above definition of the random integral is an adaptation of the Dunford's definition of the integral with respect to a measure whose values belong to a Banach space ([3], Chap. IV, 10). One can prove that our definition of the integral is equivalent to the Prékopa's definition of the unconditional integral ([10], p. 340). It is evident that the random integral is a linear operation. Moreover, if the Borel sets  $E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n$  are disjoint, then the random variables  $\int_{E_1} f(s) M(ds), \int_{E_2} f(s) M(ds), \dots, \int_{E_n} f(s) M(ds)$  are independent.

Let  $M$  be a symmetric atomless random measure. Then the characteristic function  $\varphi_{M(E)}$  of  $M(E)$  ( $E \in \mathcal{B}$ ) is of the form

$$(2.3) \quad \varphi_{M(E)}(t) = \exp \int_0^{\infty} (\cos tu - 1) \frac{1+u^2}{u^2} dG_E(u),$$

where the function  $G_E$  is monotone non-decreasing, bounded, continuous on the left, and normalized by the condition  $G_E(0) = 0$ . For the measure  $\mu_M$  corresponding to  $M$  the equation  $\mu_M(E) = G_E(\infty)$  ( $E \in \mathcal{B}$ ) holds. Consequently,  $M$  and  $\mu_M$  have the same class of null-sets.

**LEMMA 2.1.** *Let  $M$  be a symmetric atomless random measure. If  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence of Borel simple functions and  $p - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_I f_n(s) M(ds) = 0$ , then  $\{f_n\}$  converges to 0 in measure  $\mu_M$ .*

**Proof.** Put  $f_n = \sum_{j=1}^{k_j} c_{j,n} \chi_{E_{j,n}}$  ( $n = 1, 2, \dots$ ), where  $E_{1,n}, E_{2,n}, \dots, E_{k_n,n}$  are disjoint Borel sets. Then the characteristic function  $\varphi_n$  of  $\int_I f_n(s) M(ds)$  is given

by the formula  $\psi_n(t) = \prod_{j=1}^{k_n} \varphi_{M(E_{j,n})}(c_{j,n}t)$  ( $n = 1, 2, \dots$ ). Moreover,  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \psi_n(t) = 1$  uniformly in every finite interval. Hence, by (2.3) for every  $\varepsilon > 0$  we get the formula

$$(2.4) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^{k_n} \int_0^1 \int_0^\infty (1 - \cos c_{j,n}tu) \frac{1+u^2}{u^2} dG_{E_{j,n} \cap A_n}(u) dt = 0,$$

where  $A_n = \{s : |f_n(s)| \geq \varepsilon\}$ . Since

$$\int_0^1 (1 - \cos c_{j,n}tu) dt \geq C \frac{|c_{j,n}|^2 u^2}{1+u^2} \geq C\varepsilon^2 \frac{u^2}{1+u^2} \quad \text{if } E_{j,n} \cap A_n \neq \emptyset,$$

where  $C$  is a positive constant, we infer, in view of (2.4), that  $\mu_M(A_n) = \sum_{j=1}^{k_n} G_{E_{j,n} \cap A_n}(\infty)$  tends to 0 if  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . In other words the sequence  $\{f_n\}$  converges to 0 in measure  $\mu_M$ .

LEMMA 2.2. Let  $M$  be a symmetric atomless random measure. If  $\{f_n\}$  is a sequence of Borel simple functions and the sequence of integrals  $\{\int f_n(s) M(ds)\}$  converges in probability, then  $\{f_n\}$  converges in measure  $\mu_M$  to an  $M$ -integrable function  $f$  and for every  $E \in \mathcal{B}$   $\mathbb{P} - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_E f_n(s) M(ds) = \int_E f(s) M(ds)$ .

Proof. For every pair  $\{n_k\}$  and  $\{m_k\}$  of subsequences of the sequence of positive integers we have the formula

$$(2.5) \quad \mathbb{P} - \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \int (f_{n_k}(s) - f_{m_k}(s)) M(ds) = 0.$$

Thus, by Lemma 2.1,  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} (f_{n_k} - f_{m_k}) = 0$  in measure  $\mu_M$ . Hence, it follows that  $\{f_n\}$  is a Cauchy sequence with respect to the convergence in measure  $\mu_M$ . Consequently, it converges to a Borel function  $f$  in measure  $\mu_M$ . Since for every  $E \in \mathcal{B}$  the random variables  $\int_E (f_{n_k}(s) - f_{m_k}(s)) M(ds)$  and  $\int_{I \setminus E} (f_{n_k}(s) - f_{m_k}(s)) M(ds)$  are independent and symmetrically distributed, we have by (2.5) the formula

$$\mathbb{P} - \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \int_E (f_{n_k}(s) - f_{m_k}(s)) M(ds) = 0.$$

Thus the sequence of random variables  $\{\int_E f_n(s) M(ds)\}$  is a Cauchy sequence with respect to the convergence in probability. Consequently, it converges to a random variable  $N(E)$ . Taking a subsequence of  $\{f_n\}$  convergent to  $f$   $\mu_M$ -almost everywhere and, consequently,  $M$ -almost everywhere we infer, by the definition of the random integral, that the function  $f$  is  $M$ -integrable and  $\int_E f(s) M(ds) = N(E)$  ( $E \in \mathcal{B}$ ). The Lemma is thus proved.

Let  $\mathcal{L}(M)$  be the set of all  $M$ -integrable functions, where  $M$  is a symmetric atomless random measure. Of course,  $\mathcal{L}(M)$  is a linear space under usual addition and scalar multiplication. We identify functions which are equal  $M$ -almost everywhere. From Lemma 2.1 it follows that  $f = 0$   $M$ -almost everywhere if and only if  $\int f(s) M(ds) = 0$ . Thus we may define a non-homogeneous norm in  $\mathcal{L}(M)$  by

means of the formula  $\|f\| = \|\int f(s) M(ds)\|$ , where  $\|X\|$  is the Fréchet norm of the random variable  $X$  i.e. the expectation  $E \frac{|X|}{1+|X|}$ . It should be noted that the convergence in Fréchet norm is equivalent to the convergence in probability. The space  $\mathcal{L}(M)$  is a linear metric space under the norm  $\|\cdot\|$ . Moreover, from Lemma 2.2 it follows that the space  $\mathcal{L}(M)$  is complete. The set of all Borel simple functions is dense in  $\mathcal{L}(M)$ .

3. Orlicz spaces. Let  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  be two non negative functions defined on the right half-line. We say that  $F_1$  is non-weaker than  $F_2$  and write  $F_2 < F_1$  if  $F_2(x) \leq aF_1(kx)$  for  $x \geq x_0$  holds with some constants  $a, k > 0$  and  $x_0 \geq 0$ . We say that  $F_1$  and  $F_2$  are equivalent and write  $F_1 \sim F_2$  if  $F_1 < F_2$  and  $F_2 < F_1$ . Let  $K$  be the class of all non-decreasing continuous functions defined on the right half-line vanishing only at the origin. Given  $\Phi \in K$  for every Borel function  $f$  on  $I$  we put  $R_\Phi(f) = \int \Phi(|f(s)|) ds$ . Let  $L(\Phi)$  be the set of all real valued Borel functions  $f$  on  $I$  such that  $R_\Phi(cf)$  is finite for a positive constant  $c$  (in general dependent on  $f$ ). The set  $L(\Phi)$  is a linear space under usual addition and scalar multiplication. Moreover, it becomes a complete linear metric space under the non-homogeneous norm

$$\|f\|_\Phi = \inf \{c : c > 0, R_\Phi(c^{-1}f) \leq c\}.$$

The space  $L(\Phi)$  with this norm is called an Orlicz space, [6] · [8].

In this paper the linear metric spaces  $(X, \|\cdot\|_1)$  and  $(X, \|\cdot\|_2)$  will be treated as identical if the convergence in the norm  $\|\cdot\|_1$  is equivalent to the convergence in the norm  $\|\cdot\|_2$ . For two functions  $\Phi$  and  $\Psi$  from  $K$  the equation  $L(\Phi) = L(\Psi)$  holds if and only if  $\Phi \sim \Psi$  ([6]).

We say that a function  $\Phi$  satisfies the  $\Delta_2$ -condition if  $\Phi(2x) \leq b\Phi(x)$  for  $x \geq x_0$  holds with some constants  $b > 0$  and  $x_0 \geq 0$ . The  $\Delta_2$ -condition for  $\Phi$  is equivalent to the statement that the set of all Borel simple functions is dense in  $L(\Phi)$ .

Let  $K_0$  be the class of all functions  $\Phi$  from  $K$  for which  $\frac{\Phi(y)}{y^2} \leq c \frac{\Phi(x)}{x^2}$ ,  $y \geq x \geq x_0$  holds with some constants  $c > 0$  and  $x_0 \geq 0$ . It is clear that all functions in  $K_0$  satisfy the  $\Delta_2$ -condition, and  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\Phi(x)}{x^2} < \infty$ . Moreover, if  $\Phi \in K_0$  and  $\Phi \sim \Psi$  then  $\Psi \in K_0$ . It was proved in [6] and [7] (p. 109) that  $\Phi \in K_0$  if and only if  $\Phi \sim \Psi$  and the function  $\Psi(\sqrt{x})$  is concave. As examples of functions belonging to  $K_0$  we quote the functions  $\Phi_1$  with  $\Phi_1(\infty) < \infty$ ,  $\Phi_2(x) = x^p$  ( $0 < p \leq 2$ ),  $\Phi_3(x) = x^q (\log x)^{r_1} (\log \log x)^{r_2} \dots (\log \log \dots \log x)^{r_n}$  for  $x$  sufficiently large ( $0 < q < 2$ ,  $r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n \geq 0$ ).

4. Homogeneous random measures. Throughout this paragraph we assume that the measure  $M$  in question is not identically equal to 0. A random measure  $M$  is said to be homogeneous if for each pair  $E_1, E_2$  of congruent Borel sets the random variables  $M(E_1)$  and  $M(E_2)$  are identically distributed. Of course, homogeneous

random measures are atomless. Moreover, for symmetric homogeneous measures  $M$  the characteristic function  $\varphi_{M(E)}$  of  $M(E)$  ( $E \in \mathcal{B}$ ) is given by the formula (2.3) with

$$(4.1) \quad G_E(u) = |E| G(u),$$

where  $|E|$  is the Lebesgue measure of  $E$ , and the Lévy-Khinchine function  $G$  is monotone non-decreasing, bounded, continuous on the left with  $G(0) = 0$  and  $G(\infty) > 0$ . Hence, it follows that  $M(E) = 0$  if and only if  $|E| = 0$ . Moreover, the measure  $\mu_M$  corresponding to  $M$  is equal to the Lebesgue measure up to a positive factor.

We note that for every monotone non-decreasing bounded function  $G$  continuous on the left with  $G(0) = 0$  and  $G(\infty) > 0$  there exists a symmetric homogeneous random measure for which (4.1) holds. In fact, for every such function  $G$  there exists a separable homogeneous stochastic process  $X(t)$  ( $0 \leq t \leq 1$ ) with independent increments such that the characteristic function  $\psi_{[a,b]}$  of the increment  $X(b) - X(a)$  is given by the formula

$$\psi_{[a,b]}(t) = \exp(b-a) \int_0^\infty (\cos tu - 1) \frac{1-u^2}{u^2} dG(u)$$

([1]; [2], p. 61, 605). Setting  $M(\bigcup_{j=1}^n [a_j, b_j]) = \sum_{j=1}^n (X(b_j) - X(a_j))$  ( $0 \leq a_1 < b_1 \leq a_2 < b_2 \leq \dots \leq a_n < b_n \leq 1$ ) we get a random set function which by Prékopa's Theorems ([9], pp. 227, 243) can be extended to a random measure. Of course, this measure is symmetric, homogeneous and satisfies condition (4.1).

Now we assume that  $M$  is a symmetric homogeneous random measure with the Lévy-Khinchine function  $G$ . The characteristic function  $\psi_f$  of the integral  $\int_I f(s) M(ds)$  ( $f \in \mathcal{L}(M)$ ) is then given by the formula

$$(4.2) \quad \psi_f(t) = \exp\left(-\int_I T_M(tf(s)) ds\right),$$

where

$$(4.3) \quad T_M(x) = \int_0^\infty (1 - \cos xu) \frac{1-u^2}{u^2} dG(u).$$

Put

$$(4.4) \quad U_M(x) = \int_0^\infty \min(x^2, u^2) (1-u^2) dG(u),$$

$$(4.5) \quad \Psi_M(x) = \int_{1/x}^\infty \frac{G(u)}{u^3} du.$$

Both functions  $U_M$  and  $\Psi_M$  belong to the class  $K$ .

LEMMA 4.1. For all  $x \geq 0$  and  $a \geq 0$  inequalities

$$\max_{0 \leq v \leq ax} T_M(v) \leq c_1(a) U_M(x),$$

$$\int_0^1 T_M(xt) dt \geq c_2 U_M(x)$$

hold with some positive  $c_1(a)$  and  $c_2$ . Moreover,  $U_M \sim \Psi_M$ .

Proof. The inequalities in question are a consequence of the inequalities

$$\max_{0 \leq v \leq ax} (1 - \cos vu) \leq c_1(a) \min(x^2 u^2, 1), \quad (x, u \geq 0),$$

$$1 - \frac{\sin xu}{xu} \geq c_2 \min(x^2 u^2, 1), \quad (x, u \geq 0)$$

and the definitions (4.3) and (4.4). Moreover, integrating by parts (4.4) we get the inequalities

$$2\Psi_M(x) \leq U_M(x) \leq G(\infty) + 2\Psi_M(x), \quad (x \geq 0).$$

Thus  $U_M \sim \Psi_M$ , which completes the proof.

LEMMA 4.2. Let  $\{f_n\}$  be a sequence of Borel simple functions on  $I$ . The sequence  $\{f_n\}$  converges to 0 in  $\mathcal{L}(M)$  if and only if it converges to 0 in  $L(\Psi_M)$ .

Proof. Suppose that  $\{f_n\}$  converges to 0 in  $\mathcal{L}(M)$ . Then for every positive number  $C$ ,  $\{C^{-1} \int_I f_n(s) M(ds)\}$  tends to 0 in probability. Hence and from (4.2) it follows that  $\lim \int_I T_M(tC^{-1} f_n(s)) ds = 0$  uniformly in every finite interval. Thus  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^1 \int_0^1 T_M(tC^{-1} f_n(s)) dt ds = 0$  and, consequently, by Lemma 4.1  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \int_I \Psi_M(C^{-1} f_n(s)) ds = 0$ . Since  $\|f\|_{\Psi_M} \leq C$  if  $R_{\Psi_M}(C^{-1} f) < C$ , the last equation implies the relation  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f_n\|_{\Psi_M} \leq C$ . Thus  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|f_n\|_{\Psi_M} = 0$  because of the arbitrariness of  $C$ . Now suppose that  $\{f_n\}$  converges to 0 in  $L(\Psi_M)$ . Since, by Lemma 2.1,  $\Psi_M \sim U_M$ , we may assume without loss of generality that  $\|f_n\|_{U_M} < 1$  ( $n = 1, 2, \dots$ ). Then the inequality  $R_{U_M}(f_n) \leq \|f_n\|_{U_M}$  ( $n = 1, 2, \dots$ ) holds. By Lemma 4.1 for every  $a > 0$  we have the inequality

$$\max_{0 \leq t \leq a} \int_I T_M(tf_n(s)) ds \leq c_1(a) R_{U_M}(f_n), \quad (n = 1, 2, \dots).$$

Hence and from 4.2 follows that the sequence  $\{\Psi_{f_n}\}$  of characteristic function converges to 1 uniformly in every finite interval. Thus  $\{\int_I f_n(s) M(ds)\}$  converges to 0 in probability and, consequently,  $\{f_n\}$  converges to 0 in  $\mathcal{L}(M)$ . The Lemma is thus proved.

Now we shall prove the main theorem.

THEOREM 4.1. Let  $M$  be a symmetric homogeneous random measure. Then there exists a function  $\Phi \in \mathbf{K}_0$  such that  $\mathcal{L}(M) = L(\Phi)$ . Moreover  $\Phi \sim \Psi_M$ , where

$$\Psi_M(x) = \int_{1/x}^{\infty} \frac{G(u)}{u^3} du \text{ and } G \text{ is the Lévy-Khinchine function corresponding to } M.$$

Conversely, for every function  $\Phi \in \mathbf{K}_0$  there exists a symmetric homogeneous random measure  $M$  such that  $\mathcal{L}(M) = L(\Phi)$ .

Proof. Let  $M$  be a symmetric homogeneous random measure. Since  $\Psi_M(\sqrt{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^x G\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{u}}\right) du$ , the function  $\Psi_M(\sqrt{x})$  is concave and, consequently,  $\Psi_M \in \mathbf{K}_0$ .

Hence, in particular, it follows that  $\Psi_M$  satisfies the  $\Delta_2$ -condition. Thus the set of all Borel simple functions is dense in both complete spaces  $\mathcal{L}(M)$  and  $L(\Psi_M)$ . Now the equation  $\mathcal{L}(M) = L(\Psi_M)$  is a consequence of Lemma 4.2.

Suppose that  $\Phi \in \mathbf{K}_0$ . Of course we may assume without loss of generality that the function  $\Phi(\sqrt{x})$  is concave. Then it can be written in the form  $\Phi(\sqrt{x}) = \int_0^x q(u) du$ , where the function  $q$  is monotone non-increasing, continuous on the right and non-negative. Put  $G(0) = 0$  and  $G(x) = \min(1, q(x^{-2}))$  ( $x > 0$ ). The function  $G$  is monotone non-decreasing, bounded, and continuous on the left. Moreover  $G(\infty) > 0$  because the function  $\Phi$  vanishes at the origin only. We already know that the function  $G$  is the Lévy-Khinchine function for a symmetric homogeneous random measure  $M$ . By a simple computation we obtain the relation  $\Phi \sim \Psi_M$  where  $\Psi_M$  is defined by (4.5). Thus  $\mathcal{L}(M) = L(\Phi)$  which completes the proof of the Theorem.

For some random measures  $M$  the space  $\mathcal{L}(M)$  is even a Banach space. For instance, if  $M$  is a stable symmetric measure with the characteristic function  $\varphi_{M(E)}(t) = \exp(-|E||t|^p)$  ( $1 \leq p \leq 2$ ), then  $\mathcal{L}(M)$  is an  $L^p$ -space. It is known that an Orlicz space  $L(\Phi)$  is a Banach space if and only if the function  $\Phi$  is equivalent to a convex function from  $\mathbf{K}$ . Moreover,  $\Phi$  is equivalent to a convex function from  $\mathbf{K}$  if and only if for some constants  $a, b > 0$  and  $x_0 \geq 0$  the inequality  $\frac{\Phi(y)}{y} \geq a \frac{\Phi(bx)}{x}$  ( $y \geq x \geq x_0$ ) holds ([6], [7]). Hence and from Theorem 4.1 we get the following

COROLLARY. Let  $M$  be a symmetric homogeneous random measure with the Lévy-Khinchine function  $G$ . The space  $\mathcal{L}(M)$  is a Banach space if and only if for some positive constants  $c$  and  $y_0$  the inequality

$$x \int_x^{\infty} \frac{G(u)}{u^3} du \geq cy \int_y^{\infty} \frac{G(u)}{u^3} du \quad (0 < x \leq y \leq y_0) \text{ holds.}$$

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