

Mehler kernel, and the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck operator

Let

$$h_t(x) = \frac{1}{(4\pi t)^{\frac{n}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{4t}|x|^2}, \quad t > 0, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

be the standard heat kernel, fundamental solution of the heat equation

$$\partial_t h_t = \Delta p_t$$

with Δ the standard Laplacian. The convolution semigroup $H_t f(x) = f * h_t(x)$, $t > 0$, solves $\partial_t H_t f = \Delta H_t f = H_t \Delta f$ with initial data f . At $t = \frac{1}{2}$, h_t is just the standard Gaussian density so that $H_{\frac{1}{2}} f(0) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f d\gamma_n$ (while $H_0 f = f$), where $d\gamma_n(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{n}{2}}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}|x|^2} d\lambda_n(x)$ is the standard Gaussian measure on the Borel sets of \mathbb{R}^n .

While the Gaussian density is the central piece of the heat kernel definition, invariance of the heat semigroup $(H_t)_{t \geq 0}$ is still with respect to the Lebesgue measure (in the sense that $\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} h_t(x) d\lambda_n(x) = 1$). There is a related Gaussian kernel, the Mehler kernel,

$$p_t(x, y) = \frac{1}{(1 - e^{-2t})^{\frac{n}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{e^{-2t}}{2(1 - e^{-2t})} [|x|^2 + |y|^2 - 2e^t x \cdot y]\right), \quad (1)$$

$t > 0$, $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, which has the advantage to be invariant with respect to γ_n , i.e.

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} p_t(x, y) d\gamma_n(y) = 1$$

(for every $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$).

The Mehler kernel induces the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck semigroup, with infinitesimal generator the drifted Laplacian $L = \Delta - x \cdot \nabla$. The spectrum of the operator $-L$ is \mathbb{N} , and the eigenvectors are the Hermite polynomials (cf. [1]).

It is the purpose of this post to briefly present some general aspects and results on the Mehler kernel and the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck operator. Standard references include [6, 5, 7, 8, 4]...

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References

1 Mehler kernel and Ornstein-Uhlenbeck operator

The Mehler kernel, as given in (1), satisfies the basic semigroup property with respect to γ_n ,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} p_s(x, z) p_t(z, y) d\gamma_n(z) = p_{s+t}(x, y) \quad (2)$$

for all $s, t > 0$ and $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$. As such, it generates the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck semigroup

$$P_t f(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(z) p_t(x, z) d\gamma_n(z), \quad t > 0, x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad (3)$$

for any suitable measurable function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, with the natural extension $P_0 = \text{Id}$. After the change of variable $e^{-t}x + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}y = z$ in (3), it takes the form

$$P_t f(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(e^{-t}x + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}y) d\gamma_n(y), \quad t \geq 0, x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad (4)$$

known as Mehler's integral formula.

The family $(P_t)_{t \geq 0}$ defines a Markov semigroup, symmetric in $L^2(\gamma_n)$ and invariant with respect to γ_n , that is

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f P_t g d\gamma_n = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} g P_t f d\gamma_n \quad \text{and} \quad \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} P_t f d\gamma_n = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f d\gamma_n.$$

These properties are actually a reformulation of the rotational invariance of Gaussian measures, expressing that under $\gamma_n \otimes \gamma_n$, the couples

$$(x \sin(\theta) + y \cos(\theta), x \cos(\theta) - y \sin(\theta)),$$

with $e^{-t} = \sin(\theta)$, are distributed as (x, y) .

The infinitesimal generator

$$L = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{t} [P_t - P_0]$$

of the Markov semigroup $(P_t)_{t \geq 0}$ is the drifted Laplacian $L = \Delta - x \cdot \nabla$. This can be checked for instance on the Mehler formula (4) since

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} P_t f &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \left(-e^{-t} x + \frac{e^{-2t}}{\sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}}} y \right) \cdot \nabla f(e^{-t} x + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}} y) d\gamma_n(y) \\ &= -e^{-t} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x \cdot \nabla f(e^{-t} x + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}} y) d\gamma_n(y) \\ &\quad + e^{-2t} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \Delta f(e^{-t} x + \sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}} y) d\gamma_n(y) \\ &= L P_t f \end{aligned}$$

where the last steps follows from integration by parts in the y variable.

The semigroup $(P_t)_{t \geq 0}$ is invariant with respect to γ_n ($\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} L f d\gamma_n = 0$), and fulfills the basic integration by parts formula by with respect to γ_n

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f(-Lg) d\gamma_n = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \nabla f \cdot \nabla g d\gamma_n \quad (5)$$

for every smooth functions $f, g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

The semigroup $(P_t)_{t \geq 0}$ is a contraction in all $L^p(\mu)$ -spaces with norms $\|\cdot\|_p$, $1 \leq p \leq \infty$. The hypercontractivity property [2] on the other hand expresses that whenever $1 < p < q < \infty$ and $e^{2t} \geq \frac{q-1}{p-1}$,

$$\|P_t f\|_q \leq \|f\|_p. \quad (6)$$

The Ornstein-Uhlenbeck semigroup $(P_t)_{t \geq 0}$ is ergodic, $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} P_t f = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f d\gamma_n$. The convergence in the $L^2(\gamma_n)$ -norm is exponential on mean-zero functions $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ as a consequence of the Gaussian Poincaré inequality (cf. Section 6).

2 Spectrum of the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck operator

The spectrum of the operator $-L$ is \mathbb{N} , with eigenfunctions given by the Hermite polynomials $H_{\underline{k}}, \underline{k} \in \mathbb{N}^n$,

$$LH_{\underline{k}} = -k H_{\underline{k}} \quad (7)$$

with $k = k_1 + \dots + k_n$, $\underline{k} = (k_1, \dots, k_n)$.

This may be seen in various ways. For example, by the Mehler formula (4), the action of P_t on the multi-dimensional generating function $f_\lambda(x) = e^{\lambda \cdot x - \frac{1}{2}|\lambda|^2}$, $x, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n$, of the family of Hermite polynomials, is given by

$$P_t f_\lambda(x) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} e^{\lambda \cdot (e^{-t}x + \sqrt{1-e^{-2t}}y) - \frac{1}{2}|\lambda|^2} d\gamma_n(y) = f_{e^{-t}\lambda}(x).$$

Therefore $P_t H_{\underline{k}} = e^{-kt} H_{\underline{k}}$, $t \geq 0$, where $k = k_1 + \dots + k_n$, $\underline{k} = (k_1, \dots, k_n)$, and hence $LH_{\underline{k}} = -k H_{\underline{k}}$.

As a consequence of the integration by parts formula (7), for any (smooth) function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, and any $\underline{k} \in \mathbb{N}^n$,

$$k \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f H_{\underline{k}} d\gamma_n = - \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f LH_{\underline{k}} d\gamma_n = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \nabla f \cdot \nabla H_{\underline{k}} d\gamma_n,$$

which is a generalized form of the basic integration by parts formula

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} x f d\gamma_n = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \nabla f d\gamma_n$$

(as vector integrals), corresponding to the choice of the first eigenfunctions $H_{\underline{k}}$, $k = 1$.

3 Differential formulas

The following differential formulas on the Mehler kernel are fundamental in Gaussian calculus of variation, and directly follow from the Mehler formula (4).

Whenever $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is smooth enough, $t > 0$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\nabla P_t f(x) = e^{-t} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} \nabla f(e^{-t}x + \sqrt{1-e^{-2t}}y) d\gamma_n(y) = e^{-t} P_t(\nabla f)(x), \quad (8)$$

$$\nabla P_t f(x) = \frac{e^{-t}}{\sqrt{1-e^{-2t}}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} y f(e^{-t}x + \sqrt{1-e^{-2t}}y) d\gamma_n(y), \quad (9)$$

the second resulting from integration by parts.

4 Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process

The Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process $\{X_t^x; t \geq 0, x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$ with associated semigroup

$$P_t f(x) = \mathbb{E}(f(X_t^x)) = \mathbb{E}(f(X_t) | X_0 = x), \quad t \geq 0, x \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

admits the explicit representation

$$X_t^x = e^{-t} \left(x + \sqrt{2} \int_0^t e^s B_s \right)$$

where $(B_s)_{s \geq 0}$ is a standard Brownian motion in \mathbb{R}^n . This process is the solution of the stochastic differential equation

$$dX_t = \sqrt{2} dB_t - X_t dt.$$

The law of X_t given $X_0 = x$ is normal with mean $e^{-t}x$ and covariance $\sqrt{1 - e^{-2t}} \text{Id}$, from which the Mehler formula (4) is recovered, and if X_0 is distributed as $\mathcal{N}(0, \text{Id})$, so is X_t (invariance). For $s, t \geq 0$,

$$\text{Cov}(X_s, X_t) = e^{-|s-t|} (1 - e^{-2(s \wedge t)}).$$

5 Harmonic oscillator

The Ornstein-Uhlenbeck operator is closely related to another famous and well-studied operator, the harmonic oscillator in \mathbb{R}^n , given on smooth functions f by

$$\mathbb{H}f = \Delta f - \frac{1}{4} |x|^2 f. \tag{10}$$

The harmonic oscillator \mathbb{H} is thus adding a potential to the Laplace operator. It is still symmetric with respect to the Lebesgue measure, and represents the simplest model of quantum mechanics. Denoting by $U_0 = e^{-\frac{1}{4}|x|^2}$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the ground state function for which $\mathbb{H}U_0 = -\frac{n}{2}U_0$, the (ground state) transformation

$$f \mapsto \frac{n}{2} f + \frac{1}{U_0} \mathbb{H}(U_0 f)$$

yields the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck operator \mathbb{L} since

$$\mathbb{H}(U_0 f) = -\frac{n}{2} U_0 f + U_0 \Delta f + 2 \nabla U_0 \cdot \nabla f.$$

The transformation $f \mapsto U_0 f$ therefore carries over the analysis of the harmonic oscillator \mathbb{H} into the analysis of the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck operator \mathbb{L} in terms of Hermite polynomials.

6 A proof of the Gaussian Poincaré inequality

The Gaussian Poincaré inequality

$$\text{Var}_{\gamma_n}(f) \leq \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |\nabla f|^2 d\gamma_n, \quad (11)$$

for functions f in $L^2(\gamma_n)$ as well as their gradients, is presented in the post [3]. A quick proof may be provided by interpolation along the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck semigroup. Namely, for a smooth function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,

$$\text{Var}_{\gamma_n}(f) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f^2 d\gamma_n - \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} f d\gamma_n \right)^2 = \int_0^\infty \left(\frac{d}{dt} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (P_t f)^2 d\gamma_n \right) dt.$$

Now, by the integration by parts formula (5),

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (P_t f)^2 d\gamma_n = 2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} P_t f \mathbb{L} P_t f d\gamma_n = 2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |\nabla P_t f|^2 d\gamma_n.$$

Using that $\nabla P_t f = e^{-t} P_t(\nabla f)$, $t \geq 0$ (8), and that P_t is a contraction in $L^2(\gamma_n)$, it follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var}_{\gamma_n}(f) &= 2 \int_0^\infty e^{-2t} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |P_t(\nabla f)|^2 d\gamma_n \right) dt \\ &\leq 2 \int_0^\infty e^{-2t} \left(\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |\nabla f|^2 d\gamma_n \right) dt \\ &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |\nabla f|^2 d\gamma_n. \end{aligned}$$

The Gaussian Poincaré inequality induces (is actually equivalent to) the exponential decay for mean-zero functions f in $L^2(\gamma_n)$,

$$\|P_t f\|_2 \leq e^{-t} \|f\|_2, \quad t \geq 0. \quad (12)$$

Namely,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt} e^{2t} \|P_t f\|_2^2 &= e^{2t} \left(2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (P_t f)^2 d\gamma_n + 2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} P_t f \mathbb{L} P_t f d\gamma_n \right) \\ &= e^{2t} \left(2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} (P_t f)^2 d\gamma_n - 2 \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} |\nabla P_t f|^2 d\gamma_n \right) \end{aligned}$$

where integration by parts has been used. Hence the Poincaré inequality (11) applied to $P_t f$ ensures that $e^{2t} \|P_t f\|_2^2$, $t \geq 0$, is decreasing, which amounts to (12).

This exponential decay may also be viewed spectrally, as a spectral gap. Namely, in dimension one for simplicity, if a mean-zero function f is Fourier-Hermite expanded as $f = \sum_{k \geq 1} a_k h_k$, then, for every $t \geq 0$,

$$P_t f = \sum_{k \geq 1} e^{-kt} a_k h_k.$$

Taking the $L^2(\gamma_1)$ -norm,

$$\|P_t f\|_2^2 = \sum_{k \geq 1} e^{-2kt} a_k^2 \leq e^{-2t} \sum_{k \geq 1} a_k^2 = e^{-2t} \|f\|_2^2.$$

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