STATS 310A: Theory of Probability I

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Lecture 20: December 7

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## 20.1 Characteristic Functions

### 20.1.1 Inversion and Uniqueness

Let  $\mu$  be a probability on  $\mathbb{R}$  with characteristic function  $\phi(t)$ .

**Theorem 20.1 (Inversion Formula)** If a < b with  $\mu\{a\} = \mu\{b\} = 0$  (i.e. not atoms of the measure), then

$$\mu(a,b] = \lim_{T \to \infty} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-T}^{T} \frac{e^{-ita} - e^{itb}}{it} \phi(t) dt.$$

**Proof:** Let  $I_T := \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-T}^T \frac{e^{-ita} - e^{itb}}{it} \phi(t) dt$ . Define  $\operatorname{sinc}(T) := \int_0^T \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$ . Observe that

• (by change of variables)

$$\int_0^T \frac{\sin(\theta x)}{x} dx = \operatorname{sgn}(\theta) \operatorname{sinc}(T|\theta|).$$

•  $\lim_{T \to \infty} \text{sinc}(T) = \frac{\pi}{2}$ . (Aside: Note that  $\int_0^\infty \frac{\sin x}{x} dx$  doesn't exist as a Lebesgue integral.)

Thus, writing out the characteristic function and using Fubini,

$$\begin{split} I_T &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-T}^{T} \frac{e^{it(x-a)} - e^{it(x-b)}}{it} dt \mu(dx) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-T}^{T} \frac{\sin[t(x-a)] - \sin[t(x-b)]}{t} dt \mu(dx) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\operatorname{sgn}(x-a) \operatorname{sinc}(T|x-a|) - \operatorname{sgn}(x-b) \operatorname{sinc}(T|x-b|)}{\pi} \mu(dx) \\ &=: \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_{a,b}^T(x) \mu(dx). \end{split}$$

Note that

$$\lim_{T \to \infty} \psi_{a,b}^{T}(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < a \\ \frac{1}{2} & x = a \\ 1 & a < x < b \\ \frac{1}{2} & x = b \\ 0 & x > b. \end{cases}$$

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Hence, by the Dominated Convergence Theorem,

$$\lim_{T \to \infty} I_T = \lim_{T \to \infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_{a,b}^T(x) \mu(dx)$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \lim_{T \to \infty} \psi_{a,b}^T(x) \mu(dx)$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 1_{(a,b]}(x) \mu(dx)$$

$$= \mu(a,b].$$

Corollary 20.2 If  $\phi_{\mu}(t) = \phi_{\nu}(t)$  for all t, then  $\mu = \nu$ .

**Proof:** The family  $\mathcal{P} = \{(a,b] : \mu\{a\} = \mu\{b\} = \nu\{a\} = \nu\{b\} = 0\}$  is  $\pi$ -system which generates the Borel sets on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

By Theorem 20.1,  $\mu$  and  $\nu$  agree on  $\mathcal{P}$ , thus they also agree on  $\sigma(\mathcal{P}) \supseteq \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ .

#### Remarks:

1. If  $\phi(t)$  is integrable, and if F is the corresponding distribution function, then

$$\frac{F(x+h)-F(x)}{h} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{itx}-e^{it(x+h)}}{ith} \phi(t) dt.$$

Taking limits on both sides and switching limit and integral by the Dominated Covergence Theorem, F has density

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-itx} \phi(t) dt.$$

This is known as the **Fourier Transform**.

2. World of questions: What can we deduce about a measure from its transform? Best source is Feller, "Introduction to Probability & Applications Vol II," 2nd ed, Chapter 15.

### 20.1.2 Examples of Fourier Transforms

Here are some examples of Fourier transforms:

	Density	Fourier Transform
Normal	$\frac{e^{-x^2/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$	$e^{-x^2/2}$
Uniform	$\frac{1}{2a} \text{ for } -a < x < a$	$\frac{\sin(ax)}{ax}$
"Tent"	1 -  x   for   x  < 1	$\frac{4\sin^2(x/2)}{x^2}$
"Tent" Converse	$\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\sin^2(x)}{x^2}$	1 -  x   for   x  < 1

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Note that if  $\{\phi_i\}_{i=1}^k$  are characteristic functions and we have weights  $p_j \geq 0$  such that  $\sum p_j = 1$ , then  $\sum_{j=1}^k p_j \phi_j$  is also a characteristic function.

Apply this to the family of "tent" functions: for every  $a_j > 0$  and  $\{p_j\}$  with  $\sum p_j = 1$ ,  $\sum_{j=1}^k p_j \phi\left(\frac{t}{a_j}\right)$  is a characteristic function, where  $\phi$  is the "tent" function. We use this fact to prove the following:

Corollary 20.3 (Pólya's Criteria) If  $\phi$  is a continuous function such that:

- 1.  $\phi(t) \geq 0$  for all t,
- 2.  $\phi(0) = 1$ ,
- 3.  $\phi(t) = \phi(-t)$  (i.e.  $\phi$  is even), and
- 4.  $\phi$  is convex on  $(0,\infty)$  and  $(-\infty,0)$ ,

then  $\phi$  is a characteristic function.

**Proof:** If  $\phi$  is given, we can make a finite approximation to it by picking points on  $y = \phi(t)$  symmetric about the y-axis and drawing straight lines between them. This finite approximation is a characteristic function of the form  $\sum_{j=1}^{k} p_j \phi\left(\frac{t}{a_j}\right)$ . By taking increasingly fine approximations and using the continuity theorem,  $\phi$  is also a characteristic function.

We state the following fact without proof:

**Proposition 20.4** If  $\phi$  is a characteristic function with compact support, then the periodic repetition of  $\phi$  is the characteristic function of a lattice distribution.

This fact allows us to prove the following theorem, which is useful in finding counterexamples:

**Theorem 20.5** Two characteristic functions can agree in a neighborhood of 0 without having the same measure.

**Proof:** Just consider a characteristic function  $\phi$  with compact support and its periodic repetition.

Some notes:

• It is possible to have  $\mu_1, \mu_2, \mu_3$  probabilities on  $\mathbb{R}$  such that  $\mu_1 * \mu_2 = \mu_1 * \mu_3$  but  $\mu_2 \neq \mu_3$  (i.e. cannot "cancel"  $\mu_1$  from both sides).

(Take 
$$\mu_1 = \text{tent}$$
,  $\mu_2 = \mu_1$ ,  $\mu_3 = \text{periodic continution of } \mu_1$ .)

- $\mu$  corresponding to the "tent" function has density  $\propto \frac{\sin^2 x}{x^2}$ , and so does not have a mean. We can make a characteristic function  $\phi$  with compact support and as many moments as we want by convolving  $\mu$  with itself (and renormalizing).
- However, we can't have a characteristic function with compact support and is analytic near 0.

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# 20.1.3 Characteristic functions in $\mathbb{R}^d$

Characteristic functions also make sense in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . If  $\mu$  is a probability on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , then for each vector  $t \in \mathbb{R}^d$  we define

$$\phi_{\mu}(t) := \mathbb{E}_{\mu}[e^{it \cdot X}].$$

All theorems for characteristic functions in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  are essentially the same as the  $\mathbb{R}^1$  case.

**Proposition 20.6 (Cramer-Wold Device)** If  $X \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is a random vector and if we know the law of  $\sum_{i=1}^d a_i X_i$  for all  $a_i$ , then we know the law of X.

**Proof:** Since we know that law of  $t \cdot X$  for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , we know  $\mathbb{E}[e^{it \cdot X}]$  for all t.