

TOPIC. Characteristic functions, cont'd. This lecture develops an inversion formula for recovering the density of a smooth random variable X from its characteristic function, and uses that formula to establish the fact that, in general, the characteristic function of X uniquely characterizes the distribution of X . We begin by discussing the characteristic function of sums and products of random variables.

Sums and products. \mathbb{C} -valued random variables $Z_1 = U_1 + iV_1, \dots, Z_n = U_n + iV_n$, all defined on a common probability space, are said to be **independent** if the pairs (U_k, V_k) for $k = 1, \dots, n$ are independent.

Theorem 1. *If Z_1, \dots, Z_n are independent \mathbb{C} -valued integrable random variables, then $\prod_{k=1}^n Z_k$ is integrable and*

$$E(\prod_{k=1}^n Z_k) = \prod_{k=1}^n E(Z_k). \quad (1)$$

Proof The case $n = 2$ follows from the identity $(U_1 + iV_1)(U_2 + iV_2) = U_1U_2 - V_1V_2 + i(U_1V_2 + U_2V_1)$ and the analogue of (1) for integrable real-valued random variables. The general case follows by induction on n . ■

Suppose X and Y are independent real random variables with distributions μ and ν respectively. The distribution of the sum $S := X + Y$ is called the **convolution** of μ and ν , denoted $\mu \star \nu$, and is given by the formula

$$\begin{aligned} (\mu \star \nu)(B) &= P[S \in B] \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P[X + Y \in B \mid X = x] \mu(dx) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P[x + Y \in B] \mu(dx) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \nu(B - x) \mu(dx) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mu(B - y) \nu(dy) \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

for (Borel) subsets B of \mathbb{R} ; here $B - x := \{b - x : b \in B\}$. When X and Y have densities f and g respectively, this calculation can be pushed further (see Exercise 1) to show that S has density $f \star g$ (called

the convolution of f and g) given by

$$(f \star g)(s) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)g(s - x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(s - y)g(y) dy. \quad (3)$$

Since the addition of random variables is associative — $(X + Y) + Z = X + (Y + Z)$ — so is the convolution of probability measures — $(\mu \star \nu) \star \rho = \mu \star (\nu \star \rho)$. In general, the convolution $\mu_1 \star \dots \star \mu_n$ of several measures is difficult to compute; however, the characteristic function of $\mu_1 \star \dots \star \mu_n$ is easily obtained from the characteristic functions of the individual μ_k 's:

Theorem 2. *If X_1, \dots, X_n are independent real random variables, then $S = \sum_{k=1}^n X_k$ has characteristic function $\phi_S = \prod_{k=1}^n \phi_{X_k}$.*

Proof Since e^{itS} is the product of the independent complex-valued integrable random variables e^{itX_k} for $k = 1, \dots, n$, Theorem 1 implies that $E(e^{itS}) = \prod_{k=1}^n E(e^{itX_k})$. ■

Example 1. (A) Suppose X and Y are independent and each is uniformly distributed over $[-1/2, 1/2]$. Using (3) it is easy to check that $S = X + Y$ has the so-called triangular distribution, with density $f_S(s) = (1 - |s|)^+$ (see Exercise 1). Since

$$\phi_X(t) = \int_{-1/2}^{1/2} \cos(tx) dx + i \int_{-1/2}^{1/2} \sin(tx) dx = \frac{\sin(t/2)}{t/2}$$

(this verifies line 10 of Table 12.1) and since $\phi_Y = \phi_X$, we have $\phi_S(t) = \sin^2(t/2)/(t^2/4) = 2(1 - \cos(t))/t^2$; this gives line 11 of the Table.

(B) Suppose X and Z are independent real random variables, with $Z \sim N(0, 1)$. Then $X_\sigma := X + \sigma Z$ has characteristic function $\phi_{X_\sigma}(t) = \phi_X(t)\phi_{\sigma Z}(t) = \phi_X(t)e^{-\sigma^2 t^2/2}$. We're interested in X_σ because its distribution is very smooth (see Lemma 1 and Exercise 3) for any σ , and is almost the same as the distribution of X when σ is small. •

Theorem 3. Let X and Y be independent real random variables with characteristic functions ϕ and ψ respectively. The product XY has characteristic function

$$E(e^{itXY}) = E(\phi(tY)) = E(\psi(tX)). \quad (4)$$

Proof The condition expectation of e^{itXY} given that $X = x$ equals the unconditional expectation of e^{itxY} , namely, $E(e^{itxY}) = \psi(tx)$. Letting μ denote the distribution of X we thus have $E(e^{itXY}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} E(e^{itXY} | X = x) \mu(dx) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi(tx) \mu(dx) = E(\psi(tX))$. ■

An inversion formula. This section shows how some probability densities on \mathbb{R} can be recovered from their characteristic functions by means of a so-called inversion formula. We begin with a special case, which will be used later on in the proof of the general one.

Lemma 1. Let X be a real random variable with characteristic function ϕ . Let $Z \sim N(0,1)$ be independent of X . For each $\sigma > 0$, the random variable $X_\sigma := X + \sigma Z$ has density f_σ (with respect to Lebesgue measure) given by

$$f_\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-itx} \phi(t) e^{-\sigma^2 t^2/2} dt \quad (5)$$

for $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof For $\xi \in \mathbb{R}$, the random variable $X_\xi := X - \xi$ has characteristic function $\phi_{X_\xi}(y) = \phi(y)e^{-i\xi y}$. Taking $X = X_\xi$ and $t = 1$ in (4) gives

$$E(\phi(Y)e^{-i\xi Y}) = E(\psi(X - \xi)) \quad (6)$$

for any random variable Y with characteristic function ψ . Applying this to $Y \sim N(0, 1/\sigma^2)$ with density $f_Y(y) = e^{-\sigma^2 y^2/2}/\sqrt{2\pi/\sigma^2}$ and characteristic function $\psi(t) = e^{-t^2/(2\sigma^2)}$, we get

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(y) e^{-i\xi y} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\sigma^2 y^2/2} dy = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(x-\xi)^2/(2\sigma^2)} \mu(dx),$$

$$(5): X_\sigma = X + \sigma Z \text{ has density } f_\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-itx} \phi(t) e^{-\sigma^2 t^2/2} dt.$$

where μ is the distribution of X . Rearranging terms gives

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-(\xi-x)^2/(2\sigma^2)}}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \mu(dx) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-i\xi y} \phi(y) e^{-\sigma^2 y^2/2} dy. \quad (7)$$

To interpret the left-hand side, note that conditional on $X = x$, one has $X_\sigma = x + \sigma Z \sim N(x, \sigma^2)$, with density

$$g_x(\xi) = \frac{e^{-(\xi-x)^2/(2\sigma^2)}}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}}$$

at ξ . The left-hand side of (7), to wit $\int g_x(\xi) \mu(dx)$, is thus the unconditional density of X_σ , evaluated at ξ . This proves (5). ■

Theorem 4 (The inversion formula for densities). Let X be a real random variable whose characteristic function ϕ is integrable over \mathbb{R} , so $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(t)| dt < \infty$. Then X has a bounded continuous density f on \mathbb{R} given by

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-itx} \phi(t) dt. \quad (8)$$

Proof We need to show that

- (A) the integral in (8) exists,
- (B) f is bounded,
- (C) f is continuous,
- (D) $f(x)$ is real and nonnegative, and
- (E) $P[a < X \leq b] = \int_a^b f(x) dx$ for all $-\infty < a < b < \infty$.

(A) $f(x)$ exists since $|e^{-itx} \phi(t)| = |\phi(t)|$ and $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(t)| dt < \infty$.

(B) f is bounded since $2\pi|f(x)| = |\int e^{-itx} \phi(t) dt| \leq \int |\phi(t)| dt < \infty$.

X has cf ϕ with $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(t)| dt < \infty$. $f(x) := \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-itx} \phi(t) dt$.
 (C) f is continuous. (D) $f(x)$ is real and nonnegative.

(C) We need to show that $x_n \rightarrow x \in \mathbb{R}$ entails $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x)$, i.e.,

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

This follows from the DCT, since

$$\begin{aligned} g_n(t) &:= e^{-itx_n} \phi(t) \rightarrow e^{-itx} \phi(t) \text{ for all } t \in \mathbb{R}, \\ |g_n(t)| &\leq D(t) := |\phi(t)| \text{ for all } t \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and all } n \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ and} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} D(t) dt &< \infty. \end{aligned}$$

(D) Let Z be a standard normal random variable independent of X and let $\sigma > 0$. Lemma 1 asserts that $X_\sigma := X + \sigma Z$ has density

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

Note that

$$\begin{aligned} \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} |f(x) - f_\sigma(x)| &= \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \left| \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-itx} \phi(t) (1 - e^{-\sigma^2 t^2/2}) dt \right| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(t)| (1 - e^{-\sigma^2 t^2/2}) dt. \end{aligned}$$

The DCT implies that the right-hand side here tends to 0 as $\sigma \rightarrow 0$, since

$$\begin{aligned} g_\sigma(t) &:= |\phi(t)| (1 - e^{-\sigma^2 t^2/2}) \rightarrow 0 \text{ for all } t \in \mathbb{R}, \\ |g_\sigma(t)| &\leq D(t) := |\phi(t)| \text{ for all } t \in \mathbb{R} \text{ and all } n \in \mathbb{N}, \text{ and} \\ \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} D(t) dt &< \infty. \end{aligned}$$

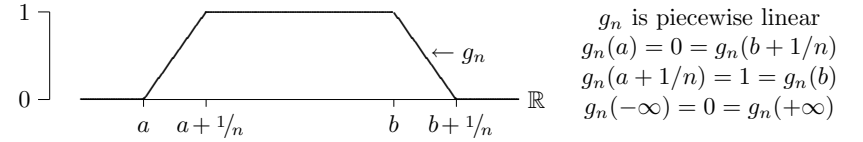
This proves that $f_\sigma(x)$ tends uniformly to $f(x)$ as $\sigma \rightarrow 0$; in particular, since $f_\sigma(x)$ is real and nonnegative, so is $f(x)$.

X has cf ϕ with $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(t)| dt < \infty$. $f(x) := \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-itx} \phi(t) dt$.
 (D*): the density f_σ of $X_\sigma = X + \sigma Z$ converges uniformly to f

(E) Let $-\infty < a < b < \infty$ be given. We need to show that

$$P[a < X \leq b] = \int_a^b f(x) dx. \quad (9)$$

To this end, let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and let $g_n: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be the function graphed below:



As in the proof of (D), let $X_\sigma = X + \sigma Z$ with $\sigma > 0$ and $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ independently of X . Since X_σ has density f_σ , we have

$$E(g_n(X_\sigma)) := \int_{\Omega} g_n(X_\sigma(\omega)) P(d\omega) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g_n(x) f_\sigma(x) dx. \quad (10)$$

Take limits in (10) as $\sigma \downarrow 0$. In the middle term $g_n(X_\sigma(\omega))$ converges to $g_n(X(\omega))$ for each sample point ω ; since the convergence is dominated by 1 and $E(1) = 1 < \infty$, the DCT implies that $E(g_n(X_\sigma)) \rightarrow E(g_n(X))$. On the right-hand side, $g_n(x) f_\sigma(x)$ converges pointwise to $g_n(x) f(x)$, with the convergence dominated by $(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(t)| dt) I_{(a, b+1]}$; since $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} I_{(a, b+1]}(x) dx < \infty$, another application of the DCT shows that the right-hand side converges to $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g_n(x) f(x) dx$. The upshot is

$$E(g_n(X)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g_n(x) f(x) dx. \quad (11)$$

Now take limits in (11) as $n \rightarrow \infty$. Since $g_n \rightarrow g := I_{(a, b]}$ pointwise and boundedly, two more applications of the DCT (give the details!) yield

$$E(g(X)) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(x) f(x) dx.$$

This is the same as (9). ■

X has cf ϕ with $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\phi(t)| dt < \infty$. $f(x) := \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-itx} \phi(t) dt$.

Example 2. (A) Suppose X has the standard exponential distribution, with density $f(x) = e^{-x} I_{[0, \infty)}(x)$ and characteristic function $\phi(t) = 1/(1-it)$. ϕ is not integrable because $|\phi(t)| \sim 1/|t|$ as $|t| \rightarrow \infty$. This is consistent with Theorem 4 because X doesn't admit a continuous density.

(B) Consider the two-sided exponential distribution, with density $f(x) = e^{-|x|}/2$ for $-\infty < x < \infty$. f has characteristic function

$$\begin{aligned} \phi(t) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{itx} f(x) dx = \frac{1}{2} \left[\int_{-\infty}^0 e^{itx} e^x dx + \int_0^{\infty} e^{itx} e^{-x} dx \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{1+it} + \frac{1}{1-it} \right] = \frac{1}{1+t^2}. \end{aligned}$$

This ϕ is integrable, so Theorem 4 implies that

$$\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-itx} \frac{1}{1+t^2} dt = \frac{1}{2} e^{-|x|}.$$

Thus the standard Cauchy distribution, with density $1/(\pi(1+x^2))$ for $-\infty < x < \infty$, has characteristic function $e^{-|t|}$. This gives line 9 of Table 12.1. •

The uniqueness theorem. Here we establish the important fact that a probability measure on \mathbb{R} is uniquely determined by its characteristic function.

Theorem 5 (The uniqueness theorem for characteristic functions). Let X be a real random variable with distribution function F and characteristic function ϕ . Similarly, let Y have distribution function G and characteristic function ψ . If $\phi(t) = \psi(t)$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$, then $F(x) = G(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof Let $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ independently of both X and Y . Set $X_\sigma = X + \sigma Z$ and $Y_\sigma = Y + \sigma Z$ for $\sigma > 0$. Since X_σ and Y_σ have the same

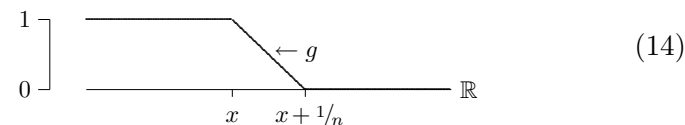
integrable characteristic function, to wit $\phi(t)e^{-\sigma^2 t^2/2} = \psi(t)e^{-\sigma^2 t^2/2}$, Theorem 4 implies that they have same density, and hence that

$$E(g(X_\sigma)) = E(g(Y_\sigma)) \tag{12}$$

for any continuous bounded function $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Letting $\sigma \rightarrow 0$ in (12) gives (how?)

$$E(g(X)) = E(g(Y)) \tag{13}$$

Taking g to be the function with graph



in (13) and letting $n \rightarrow \infty$ gives (how?)

$$E(I_{(-\infty, x]}(X)) = E(I_{(-\infty, x]}(Y));$$

but this is the same as $F(x) = G(x)$. (There is an inversion formula for cdfs implicit in this argument; see Exercise 6.) ■

Example 3. According to the uniqueness theorem, a random variable X is normally distributed with mean μ and variance σ^2 if and only if $E(e^{itX}) = \exp(i\mu t - \sigma^2 t^2/2)$ for all real t . It follows easily from this that the sum of two independent normally distributed random variables is itself normally distributed. In other words, the family $\{N(\mu, \sigma^2) : \mu \in \mathbb{R}, \sigma^2 \geq 0\}$ of normal distributions on \mathbb{R} is closed under convolution. •

Example 4. Suppose X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are iid standard Cauchy random variables. By Example 2, each X_i has characteristic function $\phi(t) = e^{-|t|}$. The sum $S_n = X_1 + \dots + X_n$ thus has characteristic function $\phi_{S_n}(t) = e^{-n|t|}$, and the sample average $\bar{X}_n = S_n/n$ has characteristic function $\phi_{\bar{X}_n}(t) = \phi_{S_n}(t/n) = e^{-|t|}$. Thus \bar{X}_n is itself standard Cauchy. What does this say about using the sample mean to estimate the center of a distribution? •

Theorem 6 (The uniqueness theorem for MGFs). *Let X and Y be real random variables with respective real moment generating functions M and N and distribution functions F and G . If $M(u) = N(u) < \infty$ for all u in some nonempty open interval, then $F(x) = G(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.*

Proof Call the interval (a, b) and put $\mathcal{D} = \{z \in \mathbb{C} : a < \Re(z) < b\}$. We will consider two cases: $0 \in (a, b)$, and $0 \notin (a, b)$.

• *Case 1: $0 \in (a, b)$.* In this case the imaginary axis $I := \{it : t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is contained in \mathcal{D} . The complex generating functions G_X and G_Y of X and Y exist and are differentiable on \mathcal{D} and agree on $\{u + i0 : u \in (a, b)\}$ by assumption. By Theorem 13.4, G_X and G_Y agree on all of \mathcal{D} , and in particular on I . In other words, $E(e^{itX}) = G_X(it) = G_Y(it) = E(e^{itY})$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}$. Thus X and Y have the same characteristic function, and hence the same distribution.

• *Case 2: $0 \notin (a, b)$.* We treat this by exponential tilting, as follows. For simplicity of exposition, suppose that X and Y have densities f and g respectively. Put $\theta = (a + b)/2$ and set

$$f_\theta(x) = e^{\theta x} f(x)/M(\theta) \quad \text{and} \quad g_\theta(x) = e^{\theta x} g(x)/N(\theta). \quad (15)$$

f_θ and g_θ are probability densities; the corresponding MGFs are

$$M_\theta(u) = M(u + \theta)/M(\theta) \quad \text{and} \quad N_\theta(u) = N(u + \theta)/N(\theta).$$

M_θ and N_θ coincide and are finite on the interval $(a - \theta, b - \theta)$. Since this interval contains 0, the preceding argument shows that the distributions with densities f_θ and g_θ coincide. It follows from (15) that the distributions with densities f and g coincide. ■

Theorem 7 (The uniqueness theorem for moments). *Let X and Y be real random variables with respective distribution functions F and G . If (i) X and Y each have (finite) moments of all orders,*

(ii) $E(X^k) = E(Y^k) := \alpha_k$ for all $k \in \mathbb{N}$, and (iii) the radius R of convergence of the power series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k u^k/k!$ is nonzero, then $F(x) = G(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$.

Proof Let M and N be the MGFs of X and Y , respectively. By Theorem 12.5, $M(u) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k u^k/k! = N(u)$ for all u 's in the nonempty open interval $(-R, R)$. Theorem 6 thus implies $F = G$. ■

Example 5. (A) Suppose X is a random variable such that

$$\alpha_k := E(X^k) = \begin{cases} (k-1) \cdot (k-3) \cdots 5 \cdot 3 \cdot 1, & \text{if } k \text{ is even,} \\ 0, & \text{if } k \text{ is odd.} \end{cases}$$

Then $X \sim N(0, 1)$, because a standard normal random variable has these moments and the series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k u^k/k!$ has an infinite radius of convergence.

(B) It is possible for two random variables to have the same moments, but yet to have different distributions. For example, suppose $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ and set

$$X = e^Z. \quad (16)$$

X is said to have a **log-normal distribution**, even though it would be more accurate to say that the log of X is normally distributed. By the change of variables formula, X has density

$$f_X(x) = f_Z(z) \frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-(\log(x))^2/2} \frac{1}{x} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{1}{x^{1+\log(x)/2}} \quad (17)$$

for $x > 0$, and 0 otherwise. The k^{th} moment of X is

$$E(X^k) = E(e^{kZ}) = e^{k^2/2},$$

this is finite, but increases so rapidly with k that the power series $\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} E(X^k) u^k/k!$ converges only for $u = 0$ (check this!). For real numbers α put

$$g_\alpha(x) = f_X(x) [1 + \sin(\alpha \log(x))]$$

$$X = e^Z \text{ for } Z \sim N(0, 1). \quad g_\alpha(x) = f_X(x) [1 + \sin(\alpha \log(x))]$$

for $x > 0$, and $= 0$ otherwise. I am going to show that one can pick an $\alpha \neq 0$ such that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^k g_\alpha(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^k f_X(x) dx \quad (18)$$

for $k = 0, 1, \dots$. For $k = 0$, (18) says that the nonnegative function g_α integrates to 1, and thus is a probability density. Let Y be a random variable with this density. Then by (18) we have $E(Y^k) = E(X^k)$ for $k = 1, 2, \dots$, even though X and Y have different densities, and therefore different distributions.

It remains to show that there is a nonzero α such that (18) holds, or, equivalently, such that

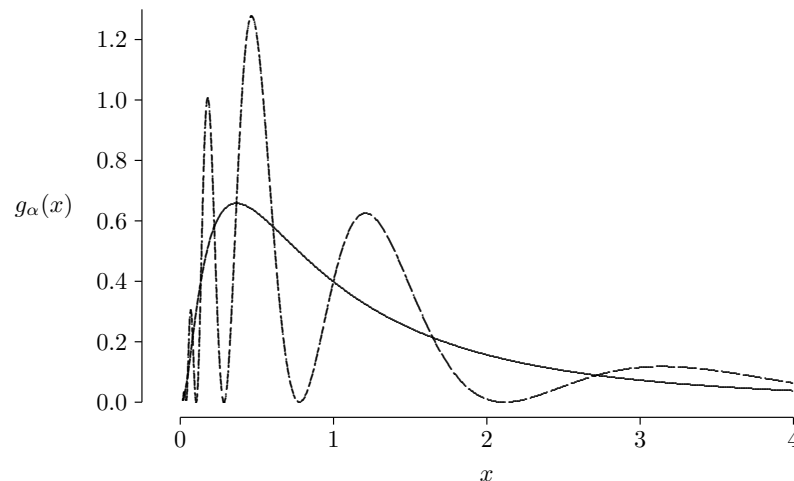
$$\nu_k := \int_0^\infty x^k f_X(x) \sin(\alpha \log(x)) dx = 0$$

for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$. Letting $\Im(z)$ denote the imaginary part v of the complex number $z = u + iv$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \nu_k &= E[X^k \sin(\alpha \log(X))] = E(e^{kZ} \sin(\alpha Z)) \\ &= \Im[E(e^{kZ} e^{i\alpha Z})] = \Im[E(e^{(k+i\alpha)Z})] = \Im[e^{(k+i\alpha)^2/2}] \\ &= \Im[e^{(k^2-\alpha^2)/2} e^{ik\alpha}] = e^{(k^2-\alpha^2)/2} \sin(k\alpha). \end{aligned}$$

Consequently we can make $\nu_k = 0$ for all k by taking $\alpha = \pi$, or 2π , or $3\pi, \dots$. We have not only produced two distinct densities with the same moments, but in fact an infinite sequence $g_0 = f_X, g_\pi, g_{2\pi}, g_{3\pi}, \dots$ of such densities! The plot on the next page exhibits g_0 and $g_{2\pi}$. •

Graphs of $g_\alpha(x) = [1 + \sin(\alpha \log(x))] / (\sqrt{2\pi} x^{1+\log(x)/2})$ versus $x \in (0, 4)$, for $\alpha = 0$ and 2π . g_0 is the log-normal density. $g_{2\pi}$ has the same moments as g_0 .



Exercise 1. (a) Suppose that μ and ν are probability measures on \mathbb{R} with densities f and g respectively. Show that the convolution $\mu \star \nu$ has density $f \star g$ given by (3). (b) Verify the claim made in Example 1 (A), that the sum S of two independent random variables, each uniformly distributed over $[-1/2, 1/2]$, has density $f_S(s) = (1 - |s|)^+$ with respect to Lebesgue measure. [Hint for (a): Continue (2) by writing $\nu(B - x) = \int_B g(s - x) ds$ (why?) and then use Fubini's theorem to get $P[S \in B] = \int_B (f \star g)(s) ds$.] ♦

Exercise 2. Show that the function f_σ defined by (5) is infinitely differentiable. [Hint: replace the real argument x by $-iz$ with $z \in \mathbb{C}$ and show that the resulting integral is a linear combination of complex generating functions.] ♦

Exercise 3. The function g_n in (10) may be replaced by $g := I_{(a,b]}$, to get $P[a < X_\sigma \leq b] = \int_a^b f_\sigma(x) dx$. Show how (9) may be deduced from this. ♦

Exercise 4. Use line 11 of Table 12.1 and the inversion formula (8) for densities to get line 12 (for simplicity take $\alpha = 1$). Show that $f(x) := (1 - \cos(x))/(\pi x^2)$ is in fact a probability density on \mathbb{R} and deduce that $\int_0^\infty (1 - \cos(x))/x^2 dx = \pi/2$. \diamond

Exercise 5 (*An inversion formula for point masses*). Let X be a random variable with characteristic function ϕ . Show that for each $x \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$P[X = x] = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2T} \int_{-T}^T e^{-itx} \phi(t) dt. \quad (19)$$

Deduce that if $\phi(t) \rightarrow 0$ as $|t| \rightarrow \infty$, then $P[X = x] = 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. [Hint for (19): write $\phi(t)$ as $E(e^{itX})$, use Fubini's Theorem, and the DCT (with justifications). \diamond

Exercise 6 (*An inversion formula for cdfs*). Let X be a random variable with distribution function F , density f , and characteristic function ϕ . (a) Suppose that ϕ is integrable. Use the inversion formula (8) for densities to show that

$$F(b) - F(a) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-ita} - e^{-itb}}{it} \phi(t) dt \quad (20)$$

for $-\infty < a < b < \infty$. [Hint: $(F(b) - F(a))/(b - a)$ is the density at b for the random variable $X + U$, where U is uniformly distributed over $[0, b - a]$ independently of X .] (b) Now drop the assumption that ϕ is integrable. Show that

$$F(b) - F(a) = \lim_{\sigma \downarrow 0} \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-ita} - e^{-itb}}{it} \phi(t) e^{-\sigma^2 t^2/2} dt \quad (21)$$

provided that F is continuous at a and b . \diamond

Exercise 7 (*The inversion formula for lattice distributions*). Let ϕ be the characteristic function of a random variable X which takes almost all its values in the lattice $L_{a,h} = \{a + kh : k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots\}$. Show that

$$\frac{P[X = x]}{h} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi/h}^{\pi/h} e^{-itx} \phi(t) dt \quad (22)$$

for each $x \in L_{a,h}$. Give an analogous formula for $S_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$, where X_1, \dots, X_n are independent random variables, each distributed like X . [Hint: use Fubini's theorem.] \diamond

Exercise 8. Use the inversion formula (22) to recover the probability mass function of the Binomial(n, p) distribution from its characteristic function $(pe^{it} + q)^n$. \diamond

Exercise 9. Use characteristic functions to show that the following families of distributions in Table 1 are closed under convolution: Degenerate, Binomial (fixed p), Poisson, Negative binomial (fixed p), Gamma (fixed α), and Symmetric Cauchy. \diamond

A random variable X is said to have an **infinitely divisible distribution** if for each positive integer n , there exist iid random variables $X_{n,1}, \dots, X_{n,n}$ whose sum $X_{n,1} + \dots + X_{n,n}$ has the same distribution as X .

Exercise 10. Show that a Normal distribution and all but one (which one?) of the distributions in the preceding exercise is infinitely divisible. \diamond

Exercise 11. (a) Suppose X and Y are independent random variables, with densities f and g respectively. Show that $Z := Y - X$ has density

$$h(z) := \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)g(x + z) dx. \quad (23)$$

(b) Suppose the random variables X and Y in part (a) are each Gamma($r, 1$), for a positive integer r . Use (23) to show that Z has density

$$h_r(z) := e^{-|z|} \sum_{j=0}^{r-1} \left[\frac{1}{\Gamma(r)} \frac{\Gamma(r+j)}{\Gamma(r-j)} \frac{1}{j! 2^{r+j}} \right] |z|^{r-1-j}. \quad (24)$$

(c) Find the characteristic function of the unnormalized t -distribution with ν degrees of freedom, for an odd integer ν . \diamond

Exercise 12. Let $\mathfrak{I}\mathfrak{T}_\alpha$ be the so-called inverse triangular distribution with parameter α , having characteristic function $\phi_\alpha(t) = (1 - |t|/\alpha)^+$ (see line 12 of Table 1). Show that the characteristic function $\phi(t) = ((1 - |t|)^+ + (1 - |t|/2)^+)/2$ of the mixture $\mu = (\mathfrak{I}\mathfrak{T}_1 + \mathfrak{I}\mathfrak{T}_2)/2$ agrees with the characteristic function ψ of $\nu = \mathfrak{I}\mathfrak{T}_{4/3}$ on a nonempty open interval, even though $\mu \neq \nu$. Why doesn't this contradict Theorem 5? \diamond

Let f be a continuous integrable function from the real line \mathbb{R} to the complex plane \mathbb{C} . (Here “integrable” means $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(x)| dx < \infty$.) The **Fourier transform** of f is the function \hat{f} from \mathbb{R} to \mathbb{C} defined by

$$\hat{f}(t) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{itx} f(x) dx \quad (25)$$

for $-\infty < t < \infty$. If f is a probability density, then \hat{f} is its characteristic function; the goal of the next two exercises is to extend some of the things we know about characteristic functions to Fourier transforms.

Exercise 13. Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be continuous and integrable and let $\sigma > 0$. Show that

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x-z) \frac{e^{-z^2/(2\sigma^2)}}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} dz = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-itx} \hat{f}(t) e^{-\sigma^2 t^2/2} dt \quad (26)$$

for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. [Hint: by the inversion formula for densities, (26) is true when f is a probability density (i.e., real, positive, and integrable);

deduce the general case (f complex and integrable) from the special one.] \diamond

Exercise 14. Let $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ be continuous and integrable. Show that if \hat{f} is integrable, then

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-itx} \hat{f}(t) dt \quad (27)$$

for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. [Hint: let σ tend to 0 in (26) — but beware, f need not be bounded.] \diamond