### Characteristic functions

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#### Introduction

- Our next few lectures will focus on transformations and their distributions
- This is of constant practical use in statistics, as many complex estimators can be written as functions of simpler statistics with known convergence properties
- Before we do that, our main goal for today is to introduce a very useful tool known as the characteristic function that in many cases, greatly simplifies proofs of convergence

# Helly-Bray Theorem

- Previously, we discussed the general conditions in which convergence in distribution implies convergence in mean (the dominated convergence theorem)
- We're going to start today by taking another look at that question, and specifically, at the question of when this is an "if and only if" situation
- The main result is summarized in the following theorem, which we will state without proof:
- Theorem (Helly-Bray):  $\mathbf{x}_n \xrightarrow{d} \mathbf{x}$  if and only if  $\mathbb{E}g(\mathbf{x}_n) \to \mathbb{E}g(\mathbf{x})$  for all continuous bounded functions  $g: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ .
- Remark: Traditionally, "Helly-Bray Theorem" refers only to the forward part of the theorem

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### Almost everywhere

- The theorem can be extended in a few ways
- First, it doesn't have to be continuous everywhere; it can have discontinuities so long as they happen with probability zero
- **Definition:** Let  $C(g) = {\mathbf{x} : g \text{ is continuous at } \mathbf{x}}$  denote the continuity set of a function  $g : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ . Then g is said to be *continuous almost everywhere* if  $\mathbb{P}{\{\mathbf{x} \in C(g)\}} = 1$ .
- This idea of something happening "almost everywhere" (i.e., with probability 1) is common in statistics: for example, we might refer to convergence of  $f_n(x) \rightarrow f(x)$  almost everywhere, or a function being differentiable almost everywhere

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#### Helly-Bray theorem, version 2

- We can now offer an alternate version of the Helly-Bray theorem
- Theorem: x<sub>n</sub> → x if and only if Eg(x<sub>n</sub>) → Eg(x) for all bounded measurable functions g : R<sup>d</sup> → R such that P{x ∈ C(g)} = 1.
- Note that the reverse direction of this proof now follows directly from the definition of convergence in distribution

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### Closed sets

- Another way the theorem can be extended is by bounding the domain of *g*, as opposed to the range
- The technical condition we require is called compactness, which has an extremely abstract definition, but reduces to a very simple idea in  $\mathbb{R}^d$
- First, we need to define the concepts of closed and open sets:
  - $\mathbf{x}$  is a *limit point* of a set A if for all  $\epsilon$ ,  $N_{\epsilon}(\mathbf{x})$  contains at least one point in A other than  $\mathbf{x}$ .
  - A set A is *closed* if it contains all its limit points.
  - A set A is open if, for all  $\mathbf{x} \in A$ , there exists  $N_{\epsilon}(\mathbf{x}) \subset A$ .
- For example,  $\{x : 0 < x < 1\}$  is open (and not closed) and  $\{x : 0 \le x \le 1\}$  is closed (and not open)

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### Compact sets

- Now, for the abstract topological definition of compact:
- Definition: A collection {G<sub>α</sub>} of open sets is said to be an open cover of the set A if A ⊂ ∪<sub>α</sub>G<sub>α</sub>. A set A is said to be compact if every open cover of A contains a finite subcover.
- Fortunately, in R<sup>d</sup>, we have the much simpler result that a set A is compact if and only if A is closed and bounded (in the sense that there exist L, U : L ≺ x ≺ U for all x ∈ A)
- For example, the set  $\{\mathbf{x} : a_i \leq x_i \leq b_i \text{ for all } i\}$ , where  $a_i < b_i$ , is compact
- Lastly, a function g : ℝ<sup>d</sup> → ℝ has compact support if there exists a compact set C such that g(x) = 0 for all x ∉ C

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#### Why is compactness important?

Compactness is important because many important properties of continuous functions only hold when the domain is a compact set:

- $g \text{ continuous } \implies g \text{ bounded}$
- g continuous  $\implies$  there exist  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} : g(\mathbf{a}) = \inf g(\mathbf{x}),$  $g(\mathbf{b}) = \sup g(\mathbf{x})$  (extreme value theorem)
- g continuous  $\implies g$  uniformly continuous

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## Portmanteau theorem

To conclude, let's combine these statements (this is usually called the Portmanteau theorem, and can include several more equivalence conditions)

**Theorem (Portmanteau):** Let  $g : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ . The following conditions are equivalent:

- $\mathbf{x}_n \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{\longrightarrow} \mathbf{x}$ .
- $\mathbb{E}g(\mathbf{x}_n) \to \mathbb{E}g(\mathbf{x})$  for all continuous functions g with compact support.
- $\mathbb{E}g(\mathbf{x}_n) \to \mathbb{E}g(\mathbf{x})$  for all continuous bounded functions g.
- $\mathbb{E}g(\mathbf{x}_n) \to \mathbb{E}g(\mathbf{x})$  for all bounded measurable functions g such that g is continuous almost everywhere.

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### Portmanteau vs DCT

- Let's compare the Portmanteau and Dominated Convergence Theorems in terms of what we can conclude about expected values if we know that  $\mathbf{x}_n \stackrel{d}{\longrightarrow} \mathbf{x}$ 
  - Portmanteau:  $\mathbb{E}g(\mathbf{x}_n) \to \mathbb{E}g(\mathbf{x})$  for g continuous, bounded
  - DCT: If  $\|\mathbf{x}_n\| \leq Z$  and  $\mathbb{E}Z < \infty$ , then  $\mathbb{E}\mathbf{x}_n \to \mathbb{E}\mathbf{x}$
- Students often ask whether one of these theorems is just a consequence of the other the answer is no, they each say something different:
  - Portmanteau: Applies to any continuous function, but it has to be bounded
  - DCT: Applies only to  $g(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}$ , but works in unbounded cases

Definition and properties Applying these techniques

### Characteristic functions

- In other words, with some qualifications, the argument that "moments converge, so distributions converge" is valid
- This fact is important for, say, moment generating functions; however, moment generating functions are unsatisfying because they do not always exist
- **Definition:** The characteristic function  $\varphi : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  of a random variable  $\mathbf{x}$  is  $\varphi(\mathbf{t}) = \mathbb{E} \exp(i\mathbf{t}^\top \mathbf{x})$ , where  $i = \sqrt{-1}$ .
- Remark: The characteristic function is the Fourier transform of the probability density (if you know what that is)

### Continuity theorem

- We'll list helpful properties of characteristic functions in a moment, but let's begin by recognizing two critical ones:
  - $\circ~$  For any random vector  ${\bf x},~\varphi({\bf t})$  exists and is continuous for all  ${\bf t}\in \mathbb{R}^d$
  - $\circ~$  Two random vectors  ${\bf x}$  and  ${\bf y}$  have the same distribution if and only if  $\varphi_{\bf x}({\bf t})=\varphi_{\bf y}({\bf t})$
- Furthermore, since  $\exp(i\mathbf{t}^{\top}\mathbf{x}) = \cos(\mathbf{t}^{\top}\mathbf{x}) + i\sin(\mathbf{t}^{\top}\mathbf{x})$ , we can immediately see the forward half of the following theorem (the other direction is much longer, so we're skipping it)
- Theorem (Continuity):  $\mathbf{x}_n \xrightarrow{d} \mathbf{x}$  if and only if  $\varphi_n(\mathbf{t}) \to \varphi(\mathbf{t})$  for all  $\mathbf{t} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .

#### Properties of characteristic functions

We will now list, without proof, a bunch of helpful properties of characteristic functions (b, c constants,  $\mu = \mathbb{E}\mathbf{X}$ )

(1) 
$$\varphi(\mathbf{0}) = 1$$
 and  $|\varphi(\mathbf{t})| \leq 1$  for all  $\mathbf{t}$ 

(2) 
$$\varphi_{\mathbf{x}/b}(\mathbf{t}) = \varphi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{t}/b)$$
 for  $b \neq 0$ 

(3) 
$$\varphi_{\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{c}}(\mathbf{t}) = \exp(i\mathbf{t}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{c})\varphi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{t})$$

(4) 
$$\varphi_{\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{t}) = \varphi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{t})\varphi_{\mathbf{y}}(\mathbf{t})$$
 if  $\mathbf{x} \perp\!\!\!\perp \mathbf{y}$ 

(5) 
$$\nabla \varphi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{t})$$
 exists, is continuous, and  $\nabla \varphi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{0}) = i \boldsymbol{\mu}$  if  $\mathbb{E} \| \mathbf{x} \| < \infty$ 

(6) 
$$\nabla^2 \varphi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{t})$$
 exists, is continuous, and  $\nabla^2 \varphi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{0}) = -\mathbb{E}(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^{\top})$  if  $\mathbb{E}\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 < \infty$ 

(7) 
$$\varphi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{t}) = \exp(i\mathbf{t}^{\top}\mathbf{c})$$
 if  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{c}$  with probability 1

(8) 
$$\varphi_{\mathbf{x}}(\mathbf{t}) = \exp(i\mathbf{t}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\mu} - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{t}^{\top}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}\mathbf{t})$$
 if  $\mathbf{x} \sim N(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$ 

Definition and properties Applying these techniques

### Weak law of large numbers

- As mentioned, the main reason it helps to be familiar with characteristic functions is that they often provide a very convenient way to prove otherwise difficult theorems
- For example, let's return to the weak law of large numbers, which we stated without proof in the last set of notes
- Theorem (Weak law of large numbers): Let  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \ldots$ be independently and identically distributed random vectors such that  $\mathbb{E} \|\mathbf{x}\| < \infty$ . Then  $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_n \xrightarrow{P} \mu$ , where  $\mu = \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{x})$ .

# Central limit theorem

- Similarly, proving the central limit theorem is equally straightforward
- Theorem (Central limit): Let  $x_1, x_2, \ldots$  be iid random vectors with mean  $\mu$  and variance  $\Sigma$ . Then

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_n - \boldsymbol{\mu}) \stackrel{\mathrm{d}}{\longrightarrow} \mathrm{N}(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$$

- In other words,
  - A first-order Taylor series expansion of the characteristic function gives us the WLLN
  - A second-order Taylor series expansion of the characteristic function gives us the CLT
- Perhaps the two most important theorems in statistics, each with a simple four- or five-line proof!