# Distribution of $\sum a_n/n$ , $a_n$ Randomly Equal to $\pm 1$

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When  $a_1, a_2, \cdots$  are independent random variables, each equal to  $\pm 1$  with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$ , the sum  $\sum_{1}^{\infty} a_n/n$  is a random variable whose distribution is difficult to determine theoretically. This sum is of interest in the study of intersymbol interference in digital communication systems. Here the distribution of the sum is computed by numerical integration and the results tabulated. Asymptotic expressions are given for the tails of the distribution.

# I. INTRODUCTION

The distribution of the random variable

$$x = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n/n, \tag{1}$$

where  $a_1, a_2, \cdots$  are independent random variables equal to +1 or -1 with probability  $\frac{1}{2}$ , is of some interest in the study of intersymbol interference in a digital communication system. For example, the sum of two independent expressions of the form (1) occurs when the pulse train  $\sum_{-\infty}^{\infty} a_n \sin(t - n\pi)/(t - n\pi)$ ,  $a_n$  randomly equal to  $\pm 1$ , is sampled at regularly spaced instants which are slightly out of step with the zeros of  $\sin t$ . The theory of random variables of type (1) (in particular with  $a_n\beta^n$  in place of  $a_n/n$ ) has been studied by a number of investigators. A survey of the field has been made recently by Hill and Blanco. Here we evaluate the distribution of x numerically and give expressions for its behavior when x is large. Questions of continuity and convergence are put aside.

Since the distribution is even about x = 0, only values for  $x \ge 0$  need be considered. From the characteristic function

$$f(u) = \operatorname{avg} \left[ \exp \left( ixu \right) \right] = \prod_{n=1}^{\infty} \left[ \cos \left( u/n \right) \right]$$
 (2)

we get an expression for the probability density p(x) of x:

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \cos(xu) f(u) du, \tag{3}$$

Prob 
$$(x > x_1) = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \frac{\sin (x_1 u)}{u} f(u) du.$$
 (4)

The values of p(x) and Prob  $(x > x_1)$  shown in Table I were obtained by evaluating these integrals by the trapezoidal rule2,3 which works well for (3) and (4).

The asymptotic expressions (8) and (18) for p(x) follow from a saddle point analysis of (3). Both p(x) and Prob  $(x > x_1)$  decrease rapidly when x (or  $x_1$ ) > 3, the decrease being dominated by the factor  $\exp \left[-\exp(x-A)\right]$  where  $A=1.39\cdots$ .

The rapid decrease of p(x) is interesting because the divergence of  $\sum 1/n$  might lead one to expect that p(x) would decrease slowly as  $x\to\infty$ . Instead, p(x) actually decreases much faster than a Gaussian probability density. I am indebted to a referee for the observation that the second, fourth, and sixth moments of p(x) are, respectively,  $\pi^2/6$ ,  $11\pi^4/180$ , and  $233\pi^6/7560$ .

The reader may wonder why as many as six decimal places are given in Table I. There are several reasons. One is that the cost was low. About 3 seconds were required by a Honeywell 6000 Processor to compute the values shown in Table I, and about 40 terms were required in each trapezoidal sum. This illustrates the fact (apparently not well known) that when integrals like (3) and (4) are to be evaluated numerically, the trapezoidal rule often performs better than most of the other conventional quadrature methods (better than Simpson's rule, for instance).2 The six-figure accuracy is also used to gain an idea of the values of x for which the asymptotic expansion (18) for p(x)begins to be valid. This degree of accuracy also shows that p(0) is equal to 0.249 994  $\cdots$  and not to  $\frac{1}{4}$ , as might be inferred from a fourfigure tabulation.

## II. TRAPEZOIDAL RULE CALCULATION

Preliminary computations showed that  $|f(u)| < 10^{-10}$  when u > 15. Furthermore, it was found that (3) and (4) could be evaluated to within the desired accuracy by using a trapezoidal-rule spacing of  $\Delta u = h = 0.4$ . In line with these values the trapezoidal sum was truncated at the 40th term  $(15/0.4 \approx 40)$ .

$x$ or $x_1$	p(x)	Prob $(x > x_1)$	$x \text{ or } x_1$	p(x)	Prob $(x > x_1)$
0.0	0.249 994	0.500 000	2.0	0.125 000	0.056 599
0.2	0.249 970	$0.450\ 003$	2.2	0.091 768	0.034 949
0.4	$0.249\ 802$	$0.400\ 021$	2.4	0.061 647	0.019 683
0.6	0.249 073	0.350 118	2.6	0.037 148	0.009912
0.8	0.246 778	0.300494	2.8	0.019 592	$0.004\ 357$
1.0	0.241 222	0.251 623	3.0	0.008 777	0.001 623
1.2	0.230 408	0.204 357	3.2	0.003 222	0.000 494
1.4	$0.212\ 852$	0.159912	3.4	0.000 927	0.000 118
1.6	0.188 353	0.119 683	3.6	0.000 198	$0.000\ 021$
1.8	0.158 232	0.084 949	3.8	0.000 029	0.000 003
2.0	0.125 000	0.056 599	4.0	0.000 003	0.000 000

Table I—Values of p(x) and Prob  $(x > x_1)$ 

The infinite product (2) for f(u) was computed by using

$$f(u) = \left(\prod_{n=1}^{N-1} \left[\cos \left(u/n\right)\right]\right) \exp \left[\sum_{n=N}^{\infty} \ln \cos \left(u/n\right)\right], \tag{5}$$

where N is a large number such that  $u/N \ll 1$  for all values of u used in the computation  $(0 \le u \le 16)$ . The product  $\prod_{1}^{N-1}$  in (5) was computed by straightforward multiplication. The sum in (5) was computed by setting  $g(n) = \ln [\cos (u/n)]$  in the Euler-Maclaurin sum formula:

$$\sum_{n=N}^{\infty} g(n) = \int_{N}^{\infty} g(t)dt + \frac{1}{2}g(N) - \frac{B_{2}}{2!}g^{(1)}(N) - \frac{B_{4}}{4!}g^{(3)}(N) - \dots - \frac{B_{2k}}{(2k)!}g^{(2k-1)}(N) + R_{k}.$$
 (6)

Here the B's denote Bernoulli's numbers,  $B_2 = 1/6$ ,  $B_4 = -1/30$ ,  $B_6 = 1/42$  [we stopped at  $B_6$  in our use of (6)],  $g^{(k)}(N)$  denotes the value of  $(d/dt)^k g(t)$  at t = N, and the remainder  $R_k$  is the integral of  $g^{(2k+1)}(t)$  times the Bernoulli "polynomial" of degree 2k + 1 and period 1 (see pages 520–540 of Ref. 4).

The integral in (6) can be evaluated to within the desired accuracy by setting u/t = y,  $dt = -udy/y^2$ , expanding  $\ln(\cos y)$  in powers of y with the help of

$$-\ln(\cos y) = \int_0^y \tan v dv = \int_0^y \left[ v + \frac{v^3}{3} + \frac{2v^5}{15} + \frac{17v^7}{315} + \cdots \right] dv,$$

and integrating termwise:

$$\int_{N}^{\infty} g(t)dt = u \int_{0}^{u/N} y^{-2} \ln(\cos y) dy$$

$$= \frac{u^{2}}{2N} + \frac{u^{4}}{36N^{3}} + \frac{u^{6}}{225N^{5}} + \frac{17u^{8}}{17640N^{7}} + \cdots$$
 (7)

Expressions for the higher derivatives of g(N) in (6) can be obtained by differentiating the series in (7) with respect to N.

In using (6) we stopped at k = 3 and neglected  $R_3$ .

Three separate trapezoidal-rule evaluations of p(x) and Prob  $(x > x_1)$  were made using eqs. (3) to (7) with h = 0.4, N = 201; h = 0.38, N = 201; and h = 0.36, N = 301, respectively. Here h is the spacing used in the trapezoidal-rule evaluations of (3) and (4). The three sets of computed values differed only in the 7th or 8th decimal places, i.e., all agreed with the values shown in the table. The values 201 and 301 of N are so large that terms beyond k = 3 in (6) and those shown in (7) are not needed. To check the computations, the integrals of p(x) amd  $x^2p(x)$  from x = 0 to  $x = \infty$  (the upper limit used was actually x = 5) were computed by the trapezoidal rule with a spacing of  $\Delta x = 0.1$ . The trapezoidal values agreed with the known values, respectively  $\frac{1}{2}$  and  $\pi^2/12$ , to within 6 significant figures or better.

# III. DISCUSSION OF TABLE I

Table I shows that p(x) remains nearly equal to p(0) = 0.249994 for  $0 \le x \le 1$ , passes through p(2) = 0.125000 (is it exactly  $\frac{1}{8}$ ?), and then decreases rapidly. The question as to whether p(2) is exactly  $\frac{1}{8}$  remains unanswered, but p(0) = 0.249994 does not seem to be an erroneous calculation of  $\frac{1}{4}$ . For if  $p_2(u)$  is the probability density of  $u = \sum_{2}^{\infty} a_n/n$ , then

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{2}p_2(x-1) + \frac{1}{2}p_2(x+1).$$

Setting x equal to 0 and 2 and combining the results give a result I owe to J. E. Mazo,

$$p(2) = \frac{1}{2}p(0) + \frac{1}{2}p_2(3) > \frac{1}{2}p(0).$$

Furthermore, replacing  $\frac{1}{2}p_2(3)$  by  $p(4) - \frac{1}{2}p_2(5)$  gives

$$p(2) = \frac{1}{2}p(0) + p(4) - \frac{1}{2}p_2(5)$$
  
0.125000 = 0.124997 + 0.000003 - \frac{1}{2}p\_2(5)

which is satisfied by the tabulated values when  $p_2(5)$  is assumed to be negligibly small.

# IV. ASYMPTOTIC EXPRESSIONS FOR LARGE x

We shall show that the rapid decrease of p(x) for x > 3 is described by

$$p(x) \sim (y_0/\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}}e^{-y_0},$$

$$y_0 = \exp\left[x - 2\gamma + \ln(\pi/4)\right] = \exp\left[x - 1.39599 \dots\right],$$
(8)

where  $\gamma$  denotes Euler's constant, 0.577215 · · · . Integrating (8) gives

Prob 
$$(x > x_1) \sim \text{erfc } (y_0^{\frac{1}{0}}) \sim p(x_1)/y_0,$$
 (9)

where  $y_0$  is computed from the second of equations (8) with  $x_1$  in place of x. Bounds for the distribution involving exponential functions of  $e^x$  have been obtained by L. A. Shepp in unpublished work.

To obtain (8) we rewrite the integral (3) for p(x) as

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{ixu} f(u) du.$$
 (10)

As is often the case for such integrals, the asymptotic value of p(x) is given by the contribution of a saddle point,  $u_0 = iy_0$ , lying far out on the positive imaginary u-axis (the path of integration being deformed so as to pass through the saddle point). For u = iy the integrand in (10) becomes

$$\exp\left[-xy + \varphi(y)\right], \qquad \varphi(y) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \ln\left[\cosh\left(y/n\right)\right].$$
 (11)

When y is large we can show that

$$\varphi(y) = y \ln y - y + Ay + \frac{1}{2} \ln 2 + r(y),$$
  

$$A = 2\gamma - \ln (\pi/4) = 1.39599 \cdots,$$
(12)

where r(y) has roughly the same magnitude as exp (-2y).

We first outline the derivation of the expression (12) for  $\varphi(y)$ , and then apply (12) to obtain the asymptotic expression (8) for p(x).

The derivation of (12) is based upon the Euler-Maclaurin sum formula (6) with N = 1 and  $g(t) = \ln [\cosh (y/t)]$ . The integral in the sum formula is

$$\int_{1}^{\infty} \ln\left[\cosh\left(y/t\right)\right] dt$$

$$= y \int_{0}^{y} v^{-2} \ln\left(\cosh v\right) dv$$

$$= -\ln\left(\cosh y\right) + y(\ln y) \tanh y - y \int_{0}^{y} (\ln v) \operatorname{sech}^{2} v dv$$

$$= \ln 2 - y + y \ln y - y \int_{0}^{\infty} (\ln v) \operatorname{sech}^{2} v dv + 0 \left[ye^{-2y} \ln y\right], \quad (13)$$

where we have integrated by parts twice. The last integral in (13) has the value

$$\int_0^\infty (\ln v) \operatorname{sech}^2 v dv = -\gamma + \ln (\pi/4)$$
 (14)

which can be obtained by (i) replacing  $\ln v$  in (14) by  $v^{\mu-1}$ , (ii) differentiating the known value (formula 3.527-3, page 352 of Ref. 5) of the resulting integral with respect to  $\mu$ , and (iii) setting  $\mu = 1$ . The derivative of g(t) with respect to t,  $g^{(1)}(t)$ , in the sum formula (6) is

$$g^{(1)}(t) = -yt^{-2}\tanh(y/t)$$
  
=  $-yt^{-2}(1 - 2e^{-2y/t} + 2e^{-4y/t} - \cdots),$ 

where the exponential terms become negligible when y becomes large and t=1. In general, for  $l=0, 1, 2, \cdots, g^{(2l+1)}(1)$  is equal to -(2l+1)!y plus negligible terms. Therefore, the right side of the sum formula (6) is the integral plus

$$\frac{1}{2}(y - \ln 2) + \frac{B_2}{2}y + \frac{B_4}{4}y + \dots + yR_k'$$
 (15)

plus terms which are negligible when y is large. The sum of the coefficients of y in (15) is known to be equal to  $\gamma$  (page 529 of Ref. 4). Hence (15) is equal to  $\gamma y - \frac{1}{2} \ln 2$ . Addition of (13) and (15) and use of (14) gives the expression (12) for  $\varphi(y)$ .

Next we use the expression for  $\varphi(y)$ , with the small term r(y)neglected, to obtain the asymptotic form of p(x). The saddle point of interest occurs at  $u_0 = iy_0$  where  $y_0$  is the zero of the derivative of the exponent in (11). The exponent is  $-xy + \varphi(y)$ , and  $y_0$  is the zero of

$$-x + \varphi'(y) = -x + \ln y + A.$$

Thus  $y_0 = \exp(x - A)$ . This  $y_0$  is the same as the  $y_0$  appearing in the asymptotic expression for p(x) stated in (8). The exponent itself has the value  $-xy_0 + \varphi(y_0) = -y_0 + \frac{1}{2} \ln 2$  at  $y_0$ . By making use of  $\varphi''(y) = 1/y$  and the higher derivatives of  $\varphi(y)$ , the exponent can be expanded in a Taylor series about  $y_0$ . From this expansion it follows that near  $u_0$  the integrand in the integral (10) for p(x) can be written as

$$\exp\left[-y_0 + \frac{1}{2}\ln 2 + y_0 \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{(iz/y_0)^k}{(k-1)k}\right],\tag{16}$$

where  $z = u - u_0$ . Setting (16) in (10), changing the variable of integration from u to  $\tau = z/y_0 = (u - u_0)/y_0$ , and assuming that p(x)is given asymptotically (as x and  $y_0$  tend to  $\infty$ ) by the contribution of the saddle point at  $u_0$  give

$$p(x) \sim (2\pi)^{-1} 2^{\frac{1}{2}} y_0 e^{-y_0} \int \exp\left[ y_0 \sum_{k=2}^{\infty} \frac{(i\tau)^k}{(k-1)k} \right] d\tau.$$
 (17)

Here the nominal path of integration is the real  $\tau$ -axis. The classical saddle point asymptotic expansion obtained from (17) is

$$p(x) \sim (y_0/\pi)^{\frac{1}{2}} e^{-y_0} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{24y_0} - \frac{23}{1152y_0^2} + \cdots \right].$$
 (18)

The coefficients of the powers of  $1/y_0$  in the series can be determined by a general procedure described in Appendix D, page 1999, of Ref. 6.

The asymptotic expression stated in (8) is the leading term in (18). An idea of the accuracy of the asymptotic expressions can be obtained by considering the case x = 3. For x = 3,  $y_0$  is 4.973 and Table I gives the "exact" value p(3) = 0.008777. The asymptotic value of p(3)obtained from (8) is 0.008710, the first two terms in (18) give 0.008783, and the first three terms give 0.008776. Table I gives the "exact" value Prob (x > 3) = 0.001623 and eq. (9), namely Prob (x > 3) $\sim$ erfc  $(y_0^{\frac{1}{6}}) = \text{erfc } (2.230), \text{ gives } 0.001612.$ 

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