# On a Theorem of T. Gneiting on $\alpha$-Symmetric Multivariate Characteristic Functions 

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#### Abstract

T. Gneiting (1998, J. Multivariate Analysis 64, 131-147) proved a relation between the primitives of the classes $\Phi_{d}(2)$ and $\Phi_{d}(1)$ of 2- and 1-symmetric characteristic functions on $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ resnectivelv. We will give a straightforward nroof of


## CORE

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

The characteristic function of a $d$-dimensional distribution is called $\alpha$-symmetric, $\alpha>0$, if it can be written in the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi\left(\left(\left|v_{1}\right|^{\alpha}+\cdots+\left|v_{d}\right|^{\alpha}\right)^{1 / \alpha}\right), \quad v=\left(v_{1}, \ldots, v_{d}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{d}, \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\varphi \in C\left(\overline{\mathbb{R}}_{+}\right)$. The set of all these functions will be denoted by $\Phi_{d}(\alpha)$.
Functions of type (1) are called radial with respect to the $l_{\alpha}$-norm, or $\alpha$-radial for short. Due to Bochner's famous theorem $\alpha$-symmetric characteristic functions can be interpreted as positive definite $\alpha$-radial functions.

A basic notion in this context is the so-called scale mixture of a function $f$ on $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, i.e., a function $g$ on $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ for which there exists a distribution function $G$ on $\overline{\mathbb{R}}_{+}$such that

$$
g(x)=\int_{0}^{\infty} f(x \tau) d G(\tau), \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^{d} .
$$

The classes we are interested in consist of all functions which can be represented as scale mixtures of a specific function, which we will call the primitive generating the class.

In 1938 Schoenberg [9] characterized the class $\Phi_{d}(2)$ as the set of all scale mixtures of the function $\Omega_{d}$; i.e., as the set of all $\varphi$ satisfying

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi(t)=\int_{0}^{\infty} \Omega_{d}(t u) d F(u), \quad t \in \mathbb{R}_{+}, \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the primitive $\Omega_{d}$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Omega_{d}(u)=\Gamma\left(\frac{d}{2}\right)\left(\frac{u}{2}\right)^{-(d-2) / 2} J_{(d-2) / 2}(u), \quad u \in \mathbb{R}_{+} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

$J_{v}(u)$ is the Bessel function of the first kind of order $v, v \in \mathbb{R}$.
For the class $\Phi_{d}(1)$, Cambanis et al. [4] gave a similar characterization: a function $\varphi$ is an element of $\Phi_{d}(1)$ if and only if $\varphi$ can be expressed in the form

$$
\begin{equation*}
\varphi(t)=\int_{0}^{\infty} \omega_{d}(t u) d F(u), \quad t \in \mathbb{R}_{+}, \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

$F$, again, being a distribution function on $\overline{\mathbb{R}}_{+}$. The primitive of the class $\Phi_{d}(1)$ is given as a Hankel transform by

$$
\begin{align*}
\omega_{d}(u)= & \frac{2^{d / 2} \Gamma^{2}\left(\frac{d}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{d-1}{2}\right)} u^{-(d-2) / 2} \int_{1}^{\infty}\left(\tau^{2}-1\right)^{(d-3) / 2} \tau^{-(3 d-4) / 2} \\
& \times J_{(d-2) / 2}(u \tau) d \tau, \quad u \in \mathbb{R}_{+} . \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

In this connection, Gneiting [5] recently proved an interesting relation between the two primitives.

Theorem (Gneiting). For the primitive $\omega_{d}$ of the class $\Phi_{d}(1)$ and the primitive $\Omega_{2 d-1}$ of the class $\Phi_{2 d-1}(2)$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\omega_{d}(t)=\frac{\Gamma^{2}\left(\frac{d}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{2 d-1}{2}\right)} I^{d-1} \Omega_{2 d-1}(t), \quad t \in \mathbb{R}_{+} \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\operatorname{If}(t)=\int_{t}^{\infty} f(u) d u, t \in \mathbb{R}_{+}$, defined for all functions $f: \overline{\mathbb{R}}_{+} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ for which $\operatorname{If}(0)$ exists.

Gneiting proved the theorem by using arguments similar to those of Cambanis. His proof seems to hide the simple structure of the relation (6). Therefore, Gneiting himself asked in [6] on page 24 for a more direct verification just using integration and/or differentiation arguments.

In [2] Berens and the current author gave a representation of the primitives of both classes in terms of generalized hypergeometric functions. The advantage of using special functions lies in the fact that there is a powerful calculus available to handle operations like integration and differentiation, as well as integral transforms. We want to use this calculus to give a straightforward proof of the theorem.

## 2. SOME SPECIAL FUNCTION THEORY

In connection with summability of the inverse Fourier integral on $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, Berens and Xu [1] reestablished among others Cambanis' characterization of $\Phi_{d}(1)$ (cf. [4, Theorem 3.1]); except for the factor $2^{d} \Gamma^{2}(d / 2)$ they identified the primitive $\omega_{d}$ as the Fourier integral of the $(d-1)$ st B-spline $M_{d-1}\left(u \mid x_{1}^{2}, \ldots, x_{d}^{2}\right)$, where $x=\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{d}\right)$ is a point in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ and $u$ is a parameter in $\mathbb{R}_{+}$. To be precise, independent of Cambanis they proved

$$
\begin{equation*}
M_{d-1}\left(u \mid(\cdot)_{1}^{2}, \ldots,(\cdot)_{d}^{2}\right)^{\wedge}(v)=\frac{(\sqrt{u})^{d-2}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \Gamma^{2}\left(\frac{d}{2}\right)} \omega_{d}\left(\sqrt{u}|v|_{1}\right), \quad v \in \mathbb{R}^{d} . \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

In [2] the authors picked up the paper [1] and reformulated and reproved the basic results using the calculus of generalized hypergeometric functions. Indeed, the primitives $\Omega_{d}$ and $\omega_{d}$ can be represented as ${ }_{p} F_{q}$-symbols. We postpone a detailed discussion of formula (7) for the appendix, since it is not of immediate relevance for the understanding of the following proof.

Using the Pochhammer symbol $(a)_{v}=a \cdot(a+1) \cdots(a+v-1), v \in \mathbb{N}$, $(a)_{0}:=1, a \in \mathbb{C}$, the ${ }_{p} F_{q}$-functions are defined for some non-negative integers $p$ and $q$ as

$$
{ }_{p} F_{q}\left[\begin{array}{l}
\left.\left.a_{1}, \ldots, a_{p} \mid z\right] \left.=\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{\left(a_{1}\right)_{k} \cdots\left(a_{p}\right)_{k}}{b_{1}, \ldots, b_{q}} \right\rvert\, b_{1}\right)_{k} \cdots\left(b_{q}\right)_{k}
\end{array} \frac{z^{k}}{k!}, \quad z \in \mathbb{C},\right.
$$

where $p$ denotes the number of numerator parameters and $q$ the number of denominator parameters; both groups of parameters can be chosen in the complex plane. In this context the notion symbol is used if the hypergeometric series is handled in a formal sense. For a general treatment of the
theory, especially for questions of convergence, asymptotic behavior, etc., the reader is referred to the book by Luke [7].

One example, which will be needed in the following proof, is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
J_{v}(z)=\frac{\left(\frac{z}{2}\right)^{v}}{\Gamma(v+1)}{ }_{0} F_{1}\left(v+1 \left\lvert\,-\frac{z^{2}}{4}\right.\right) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

[7, Eq. 6.2.7(1)].
To verify Eq. (6) we need two more formulae. The $n$th derivative of the symbol ${ }_{p} F_{q}$ is again a hypergeometric ${ }_{p} F_{q}$-series (cf. [7, 3.4.(1)]) and is given by

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{d^{n}}{d z^{n}}{ }_{p} F_{q}\left[\left.\begin{array}{l}
a_{1}, \ldots, a_{p} \\
b_{1}, \ldots, b_{q}
\end{array} \right\rvert\, z\right] \\
& \quad=\frac{\left(a_{1}\right)_{n} \cdots\left(a_{p}\right)_{n}}{\left(b_{1}\right)_{n} \cdots\left(b_{q}\right)_{n}}{ }_{p} F_{q}\left[\left.\begin{array}{l}
a_{1}+n, \ldots, a_{p}+n \\
b_{1}+n, \ldots, b_{q}+n
\end{array} \right\rvert\, z\right] . \tag{9}
\end{align*}
$$

A second formula gives the derivative of a product of a ${ }_{p} F_{q}$-symbol and a power of the argument (cf. [7, 3.4(2)]):

$$
\begin{align*}
& \frac{d^{n}}{d z^{n}}\left\{z^{\delta}{ }_{p} F_{q}\left[\left.\begin{array}{l}
a_{1}, \ldots, a_{p} \\
b_{1}, \ldots, b_{q}
\end{array} \right\rvert\, z\right]\right\} \\
& \quad=(\delta-n+1)_{n} z^{\delta-n}{ }_{p+1} F_{q+1}\left[\left.\begin{array}{l}
\delta+1, a_{1}, \ldots, a_{p} \\
\delta+1-n, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{q}
\end{array} \right\rvert\, z\right] . \tag{10}
\end{align*}
$$

Finally, we need the representation of the primitive $\omega_{d}$ in terms of hypergeometric functions as given in [2]

$$
\begin{align*}
& \omega_{d}(\xi)={ }_{1} F_{2}\left[\begin{array}{c|c}
-\frac{d-2}{2} & -\xi^{2} \\
\frac{1}{2}, \frac{d}{2} & 0
\end{array}\right] \\
&-\frac{\Gamma^{2}\left(\frac{d}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{d+1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{d-1}{2}\right)} \xi_{\cdot} F_{2}\left[\left.\begin{array}{c}
-\frac{d-3}{2} \\
\frac{3}{2}, \frac{d+1}{2}
\end{array} \right\rvert\,-\frac{\xi^{2}}{4}\right], \quad \xi \in \mathbb{R}_{+} . \tag{11}
\end{align*}
$$

## 3. PROOF OF THE THEOREM

As stated in [5] the operator $I$ can be inverted using differentiation. Instead of Eq. (6) we will therefore verify the equivalent statement

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Omega_{2 d-1}(t)=(-1)^{d-1} \frac{\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{2 d-1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma^{2}\left(\frac{d}{2}\right)} \omega_{d}^{(d-1)}(t), \quad t \in \mathbb{R}_{+} . \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

One of the two terms in (11) is a polynomial of degree $d-2$; for $d$ even it's the first term, for $d$ odd it's the second one. The $(d-1)$ th derivative of the polynomial term therefore vanishes.

Let us first consider the case when $d$ is odd. Just for brevity we will use the notation

$$
h(\xi)={ }_{1} F_{2}\left[\begin{array}{c|c}
-\frac{d-2}{2} & -\frac{\xi^{2}}{4} \\
\frac{1}{2}, \frac{d}{2} &
\end{array}\right]
$$

for the nonpolynomial term of the function $\omega_{d}$. The case $d=1$ is quickly verified and omitted. For $d>1$ formula (9) gives

$$
\frac{d}{d \xi} h(\xi)=\frac{d-2}{d} \cdot 2(-1) i \cdot\left(-\frac{\xi^{2}}{4}\right)^{1 / 2} \cdot{ }_{1} F_{2}\left[\begin{array}{c|c}
-\frac{d-2}{2}+1 & -\xi^{2} \\
\frac{3}{2}, \frac{d}{2}+1 & -\frac{1}{4}
\end{array}\right],
$$

$i$ being the complex unit. Using (10) we continue differentiating to get

$$
\frac{d^{2}}{d \xi^{2}} h(\xi)=\frac{d-2}{d}\left(\frac{\xi}{2}\right)^{-1} \frac{\xi}{2} \cdot{ }_{1} F_{2}\left[\begin{array}{c|c}
-\frac{d-2}{2}+1 & -\frac{\xi^{2}}{4} \\
\frac{1}{2}, \frac{d}{2}+1 &
\end{array}\right] .
$$

We remark that the resulting series has a numerator and a denominator parameter in common. The series therefore reduces in order to the above ${ }_{1} F_{2}$-function.

In the next step we use (9) again and continue differentiating. Let us remark that in each odd step the derivative of the argument $\left\{-(\cdot)^{2} / 4\right\}$ of the hypergeometric function yields the complex factor which is needed to use formula (10). The negative sign is obtained by inserting the complex unit; this factor vanishes again in the even steps. Because of $d$ being odd, differentiation ends in an even step, which yields, after another reduction of order,

$$
\begin{aligned}
&\left(\frac{d}{d \xi}\right)^{d-1} h(\xi)=C \cdot{ }_{1} F_{2}\left[\begin{array}{r|r}
-\frac{d-2}{2}+\frac{d-1}{2} & -\frac{\xi^{2}}{4} \\
\frac{1}{2}, \frac{d}{2}+\frac{d-1}{2} &
\end{array}\right] \\
&=C \cdot{ }_{0} F_{1}\left[\begin{array}{r|r} 
\\
\left.d-\frac{1}{2} \right\rvert\, & \left.-\frac{\xi^{2}}{4}\right],
\end{array}\right. \\
& \xi \in \mathbb{R}_{+}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $C$ denotes a constant which will be determined in the following paragraph. Setting $v=d-\frac{3}{2}$ in the representation (8) of the Bessel function, the ${ }_{0} F_{1}$-series turns out to be the function $\Omega_{2 d-1}$.

It remains to take a closer look at the constant $C$. After $d-1$ differentiations we have

$$
C=\frac{(d-2)(d-4) \cdots(d-(d-1))}{d \cdot(d+2) \cdots(d+(d-3))}=\frac{2^{(d-1) / 2} \Gamma\left(\frac{d}{2}\right) \cdot \Gamma\left(\frac{d}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \cdot 2^{(d-1) / 2} \Gamma\left(\frac{2 d-1}{2}\right)} .
$$

Observing that $(-1)^{d-1}=1, C$ will be the right constant in (12).
The case of $d$ being even is done analogously. Using both differentiation formulae alternatively, the derivatives can again be expressed in terms of hypergeometric functions. Abbreviating again the nonpolynomial term of the function $\omega_{d}$ by

$$
h(\xi)=\frac{(-1) \Gamma^{2}\left(\frac{d}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{d+1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{d-1}{2}\right)} \xi \cdot{ }_{1} F_{2}\left[\left.\begin{array}{c|c}
-\frac{d-3}{2} & -\frac{\xi^{2}}{2}, \frac{d+1}{2}
\end{array} \right\rvert\,\right.
$$

we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left(\frac{d}{d \xi}\right)^{d-1} h(\xi) \\
& \quad=C \cdot \frac{(-1) \Gamma^{2}\left(\frac{d}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{d+1}{2}\right) \Gamma\left(\frac{d-1}{2}\right)}{ }_{1} F_{2}\left[\begin{array}{c}
-\frac{d-3}{2}+\frac{d-2}{2} \\
\frac{1}{2}, \left.\frac{d+1}{2}+\frac{d-2}{2} \right\rvert\,-\frac{\xi^{2}}{4}
\end{array}\right], \quad \xi \in \mathbb{R}_{+} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Reduction of order then yields the function $\Omega_{2 d-1}$. Here, the constant $C$ has the form

$$
C=\frac{(d-3)(d-5) \cdots(d-(d-2)-1)}{(d+1)(d+3) \cdots(d+(d-2)-1)}=\frac{2^{(d-2) / 2} \Gamma\left(\frac{d-1}{2}\right) \cdot \Gamma\left(\frac{d+1}{2}\right)}{\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \cdot 2^{(d-2) / 2} \Gamma\left(\frac{2 d-1}{2}\right)}
$$

Since $(-1)^{d-1}=-1$, this too leads to the constant in formula (12).

## APPENDIX

The Fourier transform $\hat{f}$ of a function $f$ in $L\left(\mathbb{R}^{d}\right)$ is defined as $\hat{f}(v)=$ $1 /(2 \pi)^{d} \cdot \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} e^{-i v \cdot x} f(x) d x, v \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$. Starting with a function $\varphi$ in $C_{0}\left(\overline{\mathbb{R}}_{+}\right)$, we want to study nonnegative functions $f \in L\left(\mathbb{R}^{d}\right)$, the Fourier transform of which are positive definite and $\alpha$-radial; i.e., $\hat{f}(v)=\varphi\left(\left(\left|v_{1}\right|^{\alpha}+\cdots+\right.\right.$ $\left.\left.\left|v_{d}\right|^{\alpha}\right)^{1 / \alpha}\right)=\varphi\left(|v|_{\alpha}\right), v \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$.

Following Richards [8] we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=\int_{0}^{\infty} \varphi(\rho) E_{\rho ; d}^{(\alpha)}(x) d \rho, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}, \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the kernel $E_{\rho ; d}^{(\alpha)}(x)$ is defined as

$$
\begin{aligned}
E_{\rho ; d}^{(\alpha)}(x) & =\rho^{d-1} \int_{|v|_{\alpha}=1} e^{i \rho x \cdot v} \omega(v) \\
\omega(v) & =\sum_{j=1}^{d}(-1)^{j-1} v_{j} d v_{1} \cdots d v_{j-1} d v_{j+1} \cdots d v_{d}
\end{aligned}
$$

Note that Richards called the kernels $E_{\rho ; d}^{(\alpha)}$ generalized Bessel functions.

At the first glance, the representation (13) is just a formal one, but for $\alpha=2$ we get the well-known representation

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{\rho ; d}^{(2)}(x)=(\sqrt{2 \pi})^{d}|x|_{2}^{-(d-2) / 2} \rho^{d / 2} J_{(d-2) / 2}\left(|x|_{2} \rho\right), \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

while for $\alpha=1$

$$
\begin{equation*}
E_{\rho ; d}^{(1)}(x)=\left[x_{1}^{2}, \ldots, x_{d}^{2}\right] H_{\rho ; d}(\cdot) . \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

The function $H_{\rho ; d}$ is defined as
$H_{p ; d}(u)=(-1)^{[(d-1) / 2]} 2^{d}(\sqrt{u})^{d-1}\left\{\begin{array}{ll}\sin \rho \sqrt{u}, & \text { for } d \text { even, } \\ \cos \rho \sqrt{u}, & \text { for } d \text { odd, }\end{array} \quad u \in \mathbb{R}_{+}\right.$.
The representation (15) for $\alpha=1$ was given by Berens and Xu [1], while formula (14) goes back to Schoenberg [9].

Using the formula of Curry and Schoenberg for the $n$th divided difference of a sufficiently smooth function $g$ on $\mathbb{R}$ with knots $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}, n \in \mathbb{N}$, not all equal, i.e.,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right] g=\int_{\mathbb{R}} g^{(n)}(u) M_{n}\left(u \mid x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) d u \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

we get a second representation of the kernel $E_{\rho ; d}^{(1)}$ which enables us to hide the multidimensional structure of $E_{\rho ; d}$ into the B-spline kernel,

$$
E_{\rho ; d}^{(1)}(x)=\int_{0}^{\infty} H_{\rho ; d}^{(d-1)}(u) M_{d-1}\left(u \mid x_{1}^{2}, \ldots, x_{d}^{2}\right) d u, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}
$$

Compare this with formula (3.6) of [4].
The $B$-spline of order $n, n \in \mathbb{N}$, with knots $x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}$ on $\mathbb{R}$ hereby is defined as

$$
M_{n}\left(u \mid x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)=\left[x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right]\left\{\frac{(\cdot-u)_{+}^{n-1}}{(n-1)!}\right\}, \quad u \in \mathbb{R}
$$

where $(u)_{+}=u$, for $u>0$, and is 0 otherwise. The spline vanishes outside the largest interval spanned by the knots, is strictly positive inside the interval, and satisfies $\int_{\mathbb{R}} M_{n}\left(u \mid x_{0}, \ldots, x_{n}\right) d u=1 / n!$. Note that formula (16) can also be seen as a definition of the B-spline; cf. deBoor's survey [3] for details.

To simplify notation the authors of [1] introduced the functions

$$
\begin{aligned}
H_{d}(u) & =(-1)^{[(d-1) / 2]} u^{d-1}\left\{\begin{array}{ll}
\sin u, & \text { for } d \text { even, } \\
\cos u, & \text { for } d \text { odd, }
\end{array} \quad\right. \text { and } \\
h_{d}(u) & =\left(\frac{1}{u} \frac{d}{d u}\right)^{d-1} H_{d}(u) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Then

$$
H_{\rho ; d}(u)=\frac{2^{d}}{\rho^{d-1}} H_{d}(\rho \sqrt{u}) \quad \text { and } \quad H_{\rho ; d}^{(d-1)}(u)=2 \rho^{d-1} h_{d}(\rho \sqrt{u}) .
$$

An obvious transformation of variables then gives

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x)=\int_{0}^{\infty} \psi(\sqrt{u}) M_{d-1}\left(u \mid x_{1}^{2}, \ldots, x_{d}^{2}\right) d u, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}, \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\psi(u)=2 \int_{0}^{\infty} \rho^{d-1} \varphi(\rho) h_{d}(u \rho) d \rho, \quad u \in \mathbb{R}_{+} . \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

In [2] the authors studied the integral transform (18) from the point of view of special functions. They derived a representation of the kernel $h_{d}$ in terms of generalized hypergeometric functions and determined the kernel, say $m_{d}$, of the inverse transform

$$
\varphi(\rho)=2 \int_{0}^{\infty} u^{d-1} \psi(u) m_{d}(\rho u) d u, \quad \rho \in \mathbb{R}_{+} .
$$

Formally taking the Fourier transform on both sides of Eq. (17) and changing the order of integration yields (7); i.e.,

$$
\begin{array}{r}
\varphi\left(|v|_{1}\right)=\int_{0}^{\infty} \psi(\sqrt{u})\left(\frac{1}{(2 \pi)^{d}} \int_{\mathbb{R}^{d}} e^{-i v \cdot x} M_{d-1}\left(u \mid x_{1}^{2}, \ldots, x_{d}^{2}\right) d x\right) d u, \\
v \in \mathbb{R}^{d} ;
\end{array}
$$

see [1] and [2] for details.
For $\alpha=2$ the situation is more transparent. The reason lies in the fact that the Fourier transform of a 2 -radial function is itself 2 -radial and vice versa. This is not the case for 1-radial functions, as is shown above. Using $\Omega_{d}\left(\rho|x|_{2}\right)$ instead of $E_{\rho ; d}^{(2)}(x),(13)$ reduces to the classical Fourier-Bessel
transform which is self-inverse. To separate the one-dimensional radial part from the multidimensional component we just have to observe that

$$
f(x)=\frac{2 \pi^{d / 2}}{\Gamma\left(\frac{d}{2}\right)} \int_{0}^{\infty} \rho^{d-1} \varphi(\rho) \Omega_{d}\left(|x|_{2} \rho\right) d \rho, \quad x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}
$$

It follows that the transform (17) reduces to the identification $f(x)=$ $\psi\left(|x|_{2}\right), x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$.

Theorem 3.1 of Cambanis et al. [4] has three equivalent formulations, one in terms of characteristic functions, a second giving a statistical interpretation, and a third using distribution functions. Their central technical lemma (Proposition 3.1) and its proof are purely statistical, but whenever they deal with characteristic functions and/or distribution functions their arguments and the one of Berens and Xu [1] are quite similar.

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