

Summary of Normal Distribution¹

Normal (Gaussian) random variables

1. We write $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ and say that the random variable X is normal, or Gaussian, with mean μ and variance σ^2 , if X is an absolutely continuous random variable with pdf $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/(2\sigma^2)}$, $x \in \mathbb{R}$. In this case,

$$Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$$

is called **standard normal**.

2. If $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$, and $a > 0$, then

- $P(-a < Z < 0) = P(0 < Z < a)$;
- $P(Z > a) = P(Z < -a) = 0.5 - P(0 < Z < a)$;
- $P(|Z| > a) = 2P(Z > a)$;
- $P(Z < a) = P(Z > -a) = 0.5 + P(0 < Z < a)$.

Note: $P(Z < a) > 0.5$ if and only if $a > 0$; $P(Z > b) > 0.5$ if and only if $b < 0$. For example,

- $P(Z < 1.1) = 0.5 + P(0 < Z < 1.1) = 0.8643$;
- If you know that $P(Z > c) = 0.6179$, then $c < 0$ and $P(0 < Z < |c|) = 0.1179$, which means that $|c| = 0.3$ and $c = -0.3$.

Drawing a picture of the “Bell Curve” is very helpful

3. If Y_1, \dots, Y_n are independent so that $Y_k \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \sigma_k^2)$ and a_1, \dots, a_n are real numbers, then $a_1 Y_1 + \dots + a_n Y_n \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, where

$$\mu = a_1 \mu_1 + \dots + a_n \mu_n, \quad \sigma^2 = a_1^2 \sigma_1^2 + \dots + a_n^2 \sigma_n^2.$$

In particular,

- If Y_k , $k = 1, \dots, n$, are iid² $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, then $Y_1 + \dots + Y_n \sim \mathcal{N}(n\mu, n\sigma^2)$.
- If $Y_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$ and $Y_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$ are independent, then $Y_1 - Y_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1 - \mu_2, \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)$.
- In general, if Y_k , $k = 1, \dots, n$, are independent $\mathcal{N}(\mu_k, \sigma_k^2)$ and a_k , $k = 1, \dots, n$, are real numbers, then $\sum_{k=1}^n a_k Y_k$ is $\mathcal{N}(\sum_{k=1}^n a_k \mu_k, \sum_{k=1}^n a_k^2 \sigma_k^2)$.

The Central Limit Theorem (CLT)

1. **Basic result:** if X_1, \dots, X_n are iid with mean μ and standard deviation σ , and $n > 30$, then $X_1 + \dots + X_n$ is approximately normal with mean $n\mu$ and standard deviation $\sqrt{n}\sigma$, while the sample mean $\bar{X}_n = (X_1 + \dots + X_n)/n$ is approximately normal with mean μ and standard deviation σ/\sqrt{n} . Equivalently,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{X_1 + \dots + X_n - n\mu}{\sigma\sqrt{n}} = \mathcal{N}(0, 1) \quad (\text{in distribution}).$$

2. **CLT for Binomial distribution:** if $np(1-p) > 5$, then $\mathcal{B}(n, p) \approx \mathcal{N}(np, np(1-p))$.

In the problems:

- (1) Identify the “success” event.
- (2) Compute the probability of success p .
- (3) Check that $np(1-p) > 5$.
- (4) Use continuity correction by enlarging *closed* intervals. For example, $P(X > m) = P(X \geq m + 1) = P(X > m + 0.5)$.
- (5) Normalize to get standard normal: $\frac{X - np}{\sqrt{np(1-p)}} \approx \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$.

3. **CLT for general distributions:**

- (1) Compute the expected value and standard deviation for the distribution. If the distribution is continuous, you *might* need integration.

¹Sergey Lototsky, USC

²independent and identically distributed

- (2) Check whether the question is asking for the sum, or for the sample mean, or for something else, and then use appropriate normalization.
- (3) If the distribution is discrete, use continuity correction, by enlarging *closed* intervals.

Normal (Gaussian) Vectors

Below, $\mathbf{i} = \sqrt{-1}$, (\cdot, \cdot) is inner product in Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n ; C^{-1} means inverse of the matrix C ; C^T means the transpose of C . Vectors written in bold face and are thought of as matrices with one column.

The following **three definitions** of a Gaussian vector $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ are equivalent:

- (1) $\mathbb{E}e^{i(\mathbf{X}, \boldsymbol{\lambda})} = e^{i(\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\mu}) - (1/2)(C\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\lambda})}$, $\boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, for some vector $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and a symmetric non-negative definite matrix C [that is, $C = C^T$ and $(C\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{a}) \geq 0$ for all $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$]; with this characterization, $\boldsymbol{\mu} = \mathbb{E}\mathbf{X}$ and $C = C_{XX}$ is the covariance matrix of X :

$$C_{XX} = \mathbb{E}\left((\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T\right).$$

THE MAIN CONSEQUENCE OF THIS DEFINITION: *if the entry in column i and row j of the matrix C_{XX} is zero [that is, the random variables X_i and X_j are uncorrelated], then the random variables X_i and X_j are independent.* Also, if the matrix C_{XX} is invertible, with inverse C^{-1} , then, and only then, the vector \mathbf{X} has a density (pdf) in \mathbb{R}^n :

$$f_X(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} \sqrt{\det(C_{XX})}} e^{-(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu}, C^{-1}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})) / 2}.$$

- (2) $(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{X}) = \sum_{k=1}^n a_k X_k$ is a Gaussian random variable for every *fixed* $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. THE MAIN PURPOSE OF THIS DEFINITION is *extension to infinite dimensions*.
- (3) $\mathbf{X} = \boldsymbol{\mu} + A\mathbf{Z}$, where \mathbf{Z} is a vector with iid standard normal [mean zero variance one] components and A is a square matrix. In this case, $C_{XX} = AA^T$. THE MAIN CONSEQUENCE OF THIS DEFINITION is *different representations of the normal vector*.

Representations of the normal vector \mathbf{X} , with mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and covariance C_{XX} , using a vector \mathbf{Z} with iid standard normal [mean zero variance one] components.

- (1) The Karhunen-Loève, or KL, expansion (finite-dimensional version) of \mathbf{X} is

$$\mathbf{X} = \boldsymbol{\mu} + QR^{1/2}\mathbf{Z},$$

where the *orthogonal* matrix Q and the non-negative diagonal matrix R satisfy $QRQ^T = C_{XX}$.

- (2) The **canonical** representation of vector \mathbf{X} is

$$\mathbf{X} = \boldsymbol{\mu} + L\mathbf{Z},$$

where L is the lower-triangular matrix in the **Cholesky decomposition** of C_{XX} : $LL^T = C_{XX}$. If C_{XX} is not invertible, then additional conditions are imposed to ensure uniqueness of L .

The multi-dimensional Normal Correlation Theorem (NCT). Let \mathbf{X} be a Gaussian vector in \mathbb{R}^n , let \mathbf{Y} be a Gaussian vector in \mathbb{R}^m . Assume that the combined vector \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} is Gaussian in \mathbb{R}^{m+n} and the covariance matrix C_{YY} of Y is invertible. Then

$$\mathbb{E}(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y}) = \mathbb{E}\mathbf{X} + C_{XY}C_{YY}^{-1}(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbb{E}\mathbf{Y}), \quad \mathbb{E}\left(\mathbf{X} - \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y})\right)\left(\mathbf{X} - \mathbb{E}(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{Y})\right)^T = C_{XX} - C_{XY}C_{YY}^{-1}C_{YX}.$$

Note that $C_{YX} = C_{XY}^T$.

For the proof, start by finding a matrix A such that the vector $\mathbf{X} - \mathbb{E}\mathbf{X} - A(\mathbf{Y} - \mathbb{E}\mathbf{Y})$ and the vector $\mathbf{Y} - \mathbb{E}\mathbf{Y}$ are uncorrelated. The result: $A = C_{XY}C_{YY}^{-1}$.

If the matrix C_{YY} is not invertible, then the result still holds with the **generalized** or **Moore-Penrose** inverse C_{YY}^+ of C_{YY} .

If $m = n = 1$ and $\rho = \frac{\mathbb{E}(XY) - \mu_X\mu_Y}{\sigma_X\sigma_Y}$ is the correlation coefficient, then the conditional expectation is the equation of the regression line, with X as a function of Y :

$$\mathbb{E}(X|Y) = \mu_X + \rho \frac{\sigma_X}{\sigma_Y} (Y - \mu_Y).$$

For the conditional variance, $\mathbb{E}\left(X - \mathbb{E}(X|Y)\right)\left(X - \mathbb{E}(X|Y)\right) = \sigma_X^2(1 - \rho^2)$. In particular, we have

$$Y = \mu_Y + \sigma_Y Z_1, \quad X = \mu_X + \rho\sigma_X Z_1 + \sigma_X\sqrt{1 - \rho^2} Z_2,$$

where Z_1 and Z_2 are iid standard normal (and the equalities are in distribution).

Normal Approximation: Advanced topics

The delta method. If

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sqrt{n}(Z_n - \mu) = \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2), \quad \text{in distribution,}$$

and $f = f(x)$ is a continuously differentiable function with $f'(\mu) \neq 0$, then, using Taylor expansion,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \sqrt{n}(f(Z_n) - f(\mu)) = \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 |f'(\mu)|^2), \quad \text{in distribution.}$$

The result extends to higher dimensions.

Normal approximation of common distributions

- (1) For fixed p , Binomial $\mathcal{B}(n, p)$, being a sum of iid $\mathcal{B}(1, p)$ is approximately $\mathcal{N}(np, np(1-p))$.
- (2) For fixed $\lambda > 0$, Poisson $\mathcal{P}(n\lambda)$ with mean $n\lambda$, being a sum of iid $\mathcal{P}(\lambda)$, is approximately $\mathcal{N}(n\lambda, n\lambda)$. More generally,

$$\lim_{\gamma \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{\mathcal{P}(\gamma) - \gamma}{\sqrt{\gamma}} = \mathcal{N}(0, 1), \quad \text{in distribution.}$$

- (3) For fixed $a > 0$ and $b > 0$, the Gamma distribution $\text{Gamma}(na, 1/b)$ with shape parameter na and mean value nab , being a sum of iid $\text{Gamma}(a, 1/b)$, is $\mathcal{N}(nab, nab^2)$
- (4) For fixed $a > 0$ and $b > 0$, the Beta distribution $\text{Beta}(na, nb)$ is approximately

$$\mathcal{N}\left(\frac{a}{a+b}, \frac{ab}{n(a+b)^3}\right).$$

One way to see it is to write

$$\text{Beta}(na, nb) = \frac{\text{Gamma}(na, 1)}{\text{Gamma}(na, 1) + \text{Gamma}(nb, 1)},$$

with independent $\text{Gamma}(na, 1)$ and $\text{Gamma}(nb, 1)$, and then apply the two-dimensional delta method.

Gaussian Processes and Fields

Definition. Given a set \mathbb{T} , a collection of random variables $\mathbf{X} = \{X(t), t \in \mathbb{T}\}$, is called a **Gaussian process** if, for every finite collection $\{t_1, \dots, t_n\} \subset \mathbb{T}$, the random vector $(X(t_1), \dots, X(t_n))$ is Gaussian.

The term “process” is generic. By convention, if $\mathbb{T} \subseteq \mathbb{R}$, then \mathbf{X} is the (proper) process, and can also be called a sequence if \mathbb{T} is countable. If $\mathbb{T} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $n > 1$, then \mathbf{X} is the field.

The distribution of \mathbf{X} , as a random object with values in $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{T}}$, is defined by

$$\mathbf{P}_X(A) = \mathbb{P}(\mathbf{X} \in A), \quad A \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{T}}),$$

and is completely determined by two functions: mean value $\mu(t) = \mathbb{E}X(t)$, $t \in \mathbb{T}$, and covariance $R(t, s) = \mathbb{E}(X(t)X(s)) - \mu(t)\mu(s)$, $t, s \in \mathbb{T}$. The function R is necessarily **non-negative definite**: for all finite collections $\{t_1, \dots, t_n\} \subset \mathbb{T}$, $\{a_1, \dots, a_n\} \subset \mathbb{R}$,

$$\sum_{k,m=1}^n a_k a_m R(t_k, t_m) \geq 0.$$

The reason is simple: $\sum_{k,m=1}^n a_k a_m R(t_k, t_m) = \mathbb{E} \left(\sum_{k=1}^n a_k (X(t_k) - \mu(t_k)) \right)^2$.

Kolmogorov's Continuity Criterion (Gaussian case, informal statement) If $\mathbb{T} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $\mathbb{E}X(t) = 0$, and $\mathbb{E}(X(t) - X(s))^2 \leq C|t - s|^\delta$ for some $C, \delta > 0$, then the function $t \mapsto X(t)$ is continuous (in fact, Hölder continuous of every order less than $\delta/2$.)

A list of zero mean Gaussian processes

Process	Covariance function
Brownian motion (BM)	$\min(t, s), t, s \geq 0$
Brownian bridge	$\min(t, s) - ts, t, s \in [0, 1]$
Stationary OU	$e^{- t-s }, t, s \in \mathbb{R}$
fractional Brownian motion (fBM)	$\frac{1}{2}(t ^{2H} + s ^{2H} - t - s ^{2H}), t, s \in \mathbb{R}, H \in (0, 1)$
sub-fractional Brownian motion	$t^{2H} + s^{2H} - \frac{1}{2}((t + s)^{2H} + t - s ^{2H}), t, s \geq 0, H \in (0, 1)$
bi-fractional Brownian motion	$\frac{1}{2^k}((t^{2H} + s^{2H})^k - t - s ^{2Hk}), t, s \geq 0, H \in (0, 1), 0 < k \leq 2, Hk \leq 1$
Brownian sheet	$\prod_{k=1}^n \min(x_k, y_k), x_k, y_k \geq 0$
Lévy's Brownian motion	$\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}), \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
Gaussian free field (GFF)	Green's function of the Laplacian

“General ideas for generalizations” Given a continuous Gaussian process $X = X(t), t \geq 0$, with mean zero, $X(0) = 0$, and covariance function $R = R(t, s)$, one can construct

- the X -bridge $X_b = X_b(t), t \in [0, T]$ from $(0, 0)$ to $(T, 0)$ by defining

$$X_b(t) = X(t) - \frac{R(T, t)}{R(T, T)} X(T),$$

which, by NCT, is conditioning X to hit 0 at time T .

- The X -OU process $Y = Y(t), t \geq 0$, as the solution of

$$dY(t) = aY(t)dt + dX(t), t \geq 0, a \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Note that, solving the equation and integrating by parts,

$$Y(t) = Y(0)e^{at} + \int_0^t e^{a(t-s)} dX(s) = Y(0)e^{at} + X(t) + a \int_0^t X(s)e^{a(t-s)} ds.$$

- The X -sheet, as a Gaussian random field with covariance function $\prod_{k=1}^n R(x_k, y_k)$.
- The Volterra X -process with a suitable kernel $K = K(t, s), 0 \leq s \leq t$, by $\int_0^t K(t, s) dX(s)$.