

## Chapter 4

# Preliminaries

### 4.1 Gaussian Measure and Gaussian Processes

**Definition 4.1.1** A measure  $\mu$  on  $\mathbf{R}^n$  is Gaussian if there exists a non-negative symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix  $K$  and a vector  $m \in \mathbf{R}^n$  such that

$$\int_{\mathbf{R}^n} e^{i\langle \lambda, x \rangle} \mu(dx) = e^{i\langle \lambda, m \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \langle K \lambda, \lambda \rangle}.$$

The Gaussian measure has a density with respect to the Lebesgue measure if and only if  $K$  is non-degenerate in which case the density is

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^n \det(K)}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \langle K^{-1}(x-m), x-m \rangle}.$$

The vector  $m$  is called its mean, and  $K$  is called its covariance operator.

We emphasise that a Gaussian measure is determined by its mean and its covariance operator. A random variable with a Gaussian distribution is called a Gaussian random variable.

**Theorem 4.1.1** If  $X$  is a Gaussian random variable on  $\mathbf{R}^d$  with covariance operator  $K$ , and  $A : \mathbf{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^n$  a linear map, then  $AX$  is a Gaussian random variable with covariance  $AKA^T$ .

**Proof** We only need to identify  $\mathbf{E}[e^{i\langle \lambda, AX \rangle}]$  for any  $\lambda \in \mathbf{R}^n$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}[e^{i\langle \lambda, AX \rangle}] &= \mathbf{E}[e^{i\langle A^T \lambda, X \rangle}] \\ &= e^{i\langle A^T \lambda, m \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \langle K A^T \lambda, A^T \lambda \rangle} \\ &= e^{i\langle \lambda, Am \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \langle AK A^T \lambda, \lambda \rangle}. \end{aligned}$$

This shows that  $X$  is a Gaussian random variable with mean  $Am$  and covariance  $AKA^T$ .  $\square$

Let  $Z$  be a standard Gaussian variable on  $\mathbf{R}^d$ ,  $X = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$ ,  $K$  a matrix and  $C$  a vector, then  $X = KZ + C$  has Gaussian distribution.

One of the nice properties of Gaussian random variables is the following. Let  $(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  be Jointly Gaussian random variables. Then they are independent if and only if they are uncorrelated. Linear combinations of jointly Gaussian random variables are jointly Gaussian.

**Exercise 4.1.1** If  $\{X_1, \dots, X_N\}$  are independent random variables with each  $X_i$  Gaussian on  $\mathbf{R}^d$ , and  $a_i \in \mathbf{R}$ , show that  $\sum_{i=1}^N a_i X_i$  is a Gaussian random variable.

There exists a random variable  $X = (X_1, X_2)$  with both marginals  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  Gaussian, but  $X$  is not Gaussian.

**Definition 4.1.2** A function  $x : \mathbf{R} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^d$  is locally Hölder continuous of exponent  $\alpha$  if

$$\sup_{0 \leq |u-v| \leq 1} \frac{|x_u - x_v|}{|u - v|^\alpha} < \infty,$$

As is customary for stochastic processes, we denote the variable of  $x$  with subscript.

**Definition 4.1.3** A stochastic process  $(X_t)$  is said to be continuous, if for almost surely all  $\omega$ ,  $t \mapsto X_t(\omega)$  is continuous. Similarly, a stochastic process is Hölder continuous if  $t \mapsto X_t(\omega)$  is everywhere Hölder continuous, almost surely.

**Definition 4.1.4** A continuous stochastic process  $W_t$  with initial value  $x$  is a Brownian motion if its finite dimensional distributions are given by:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{P}(x_{t_1} \in A_1, \dots, x_{t_n} \in A_n) \\ &= \int_{A_1} \dots \int_{A_n} p(t_1, x, y_1) p(t_2 - t_1, y_1, y_2) \dots p(t_n - t_{n-1}, y_{n-1}, y_n) dy_1 \dots dy_n. \end{aligned}$$

Here  $p(t, x, y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi t}} e^{-\frac{|x-y|^2}{2t}}$  is the heat kernel on  $\mathbf{R}^d$ .

Recall that for any  $\alpha < \frac{1}{2}$ , a standard Brownian motion has a continuous version which is furthermore locally Hölder continuous of order  $\alpha$ .

## 4.2 A reservoir of stochastic processes