

**Path Integral Methods in Physics & Finance**  
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**Lecture – 05**  
**Probability, Gaussian Distribution & Integration**

Welcome back. Let us continue from where we left off in the last lecture, but before that a quick recap of the important points and a correction as well.

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**MOMENT GENERATING FUNCTION**

The moment generating function (MGF) of a random variable  $X$  is a function:

$$M_X(t) = E[\exp(tX)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx} p(x) dx$$

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I define the moment generating function as the expected value of exponential  $t X$ .

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$$M_X(t) = E(e^{tX}) = E\left[\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \frac{(tX)^r}{r!}\right]$$
$$= \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} E(X^r) \frac{t^r}{r!} = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \mu_r \frac{t^r}{r!}$$

- Thus, the  $r^{\text{th}}$  moment of  $X$  is the coefficient of  $\frac{t^r}{r!}$  in the Taylor expansion of the MGF.

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And then we are arrived at the relationship between the moment generating function and the various moments. The by expanding the exponential as the Taylor series, exponential series we arrive at summation of  $\mu_r$ , where  $\mu_r$  is the  $r$ th moment about the origin  $t$  to the power  $r$  upon  $r$  factorial. Therefore,  $t$  to the power  $r$  upon  $r$  factorial gives us the coefficient of  $t$  to the power  $r$  upon  $r$  factorial gives us the  $r$ th moment.

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$$\begin{aligned} \left. \frac{d^r}{dt^r} M_X(t) \right|_{t=0} &= \left. \frac{d^r}{dt^r} \left[ E(e^{tX}) \right] \right|_{t=0} \\ &= \left. \frac{d^r}{dt^r} \left\{ \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} E(X^r) \frac{t^r}{r!} \right\} \right|_{t=0} = E(X^r) \end{aligned}$$


Another approach to that is by taking derivatives. You take the rth derivative of the moment generating function with respect to t and then put t equal to 0 and you simply get the value of x of the rth moment about the origin. So, that is another approach either of the two yield the same result of course.

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**CORRECTION IN LECTURE 03**

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## CHARACTERSTIC FUNCTION

- In cases, where the MGF does not exist, **the characteristic function can be used which is the Fourier transform of  $p(x)$**  defined by:
- $C_X(t) = \tilde{p}(k) = E[\exp(-ikX)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ikx} p(x) dx.$

$$\left. \frac{d^r}{dk^r} C_X(k) \right|_{k=0} = \left. \frac{d^r}{dk^r} [E(e^{-ikX})] \right|_{k=0} = \left. \frac{d^r}{dk^r} \left[ \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} E(-iX)^r \frac{k^r}{r!} \right] \right|_{k=0} = (-i)^r E(X^r)$$

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Then there is a correction that mentioned in lecture 3. I defined the characteristic function as the Fourier transform of the moment generating function. It is not actually the Fourier transform of the moment generating function, it is the Fourier transform of  $p_X$ ; the probability density function.

As you can see from the in this slide in the blue color, the equation in the blue color  $C_X(t)$  is  $\tilde{p}(k)$ , which is the expected value of exponential minus  $i k x$  and which can be written as the Fourier transform of  $p$  of  $X$ .

So, that was the correction and the characteristic function performs a role very similar to the role performed by the moment generating function. And, we can recover the various moments in more or less the similar manner by taking derivatives of appropriate orders.

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- A function of  $k \in (-\infty, \infty)$  has to have some special features in order to qualify as the characteristic function of a probability distribution viz.
- (i)  $\tilde{p}(0) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) dx$  must be equal to unity, to ensure that the random variable  $X$  is a proper random variable, with a normalized probability distribution.




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The two important properties that the characteristic function must satisfy is  $\tilde{p}(0)$  which will be equal to 1 when you put  $k$  equal to 0 there in the definition or expression for the characteristic function that will be equal to the integral of  $p(x) dx$  over the entire range of values of  $x$  and that must be equal to 1.

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- (ii) The **inverse Fourier transform** of  $\tilde{p}(k)$  i.e.
- $p(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \tilde{p}(k) e^{ikx} dk$
- must be a **real, non-negative function of  $x$** , in order to provide an acceptable PDF  $p(x)$ .



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So, we must have  $\tilde{p}(0) = 1$  and secondly, because  $p(x)$  is going to be defined in terms of the inverse Fourier transform of  $\tilde{p}(k)$ , we require that the inverse Fourier transform of the characteristic function must be real non-negative function of  $x$ , so that it defines a probability density function. So, these are two fundamental properties that the characteristic function must satisfy.

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## CUMULANTS

- Cumulants are alternatives to moments. They are defined in terms of CGF.
- The cumulants  $\kappa_r$  are the coefficients in the Taylor expansion of the cumulant generating function (CGF) about the origin:

$$K_X(t) = \ln M_X(t); \quad K_X(t) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \kappa_r \frac{t^r}{r!}$$

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Then we moved over to the cumulants. We defined the cumulants as the coefficients of a power series expansion of the cumulant generating function, where the cumulant generating function is defined as the natural log of the moment generating function that you can see in this particular equation.





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• Doing the Taylor expansion, we get:

$$K_X(t) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \kappa_r \frac{t^r}{r!}; \quad K_X(t) = \ln M_X(t)$$
$$\ln M_X(t) = [M_X(t) - 1] - \frac{1}{2}[M_X(t) - 1]^2 + \frac{1}{3}[M_X(t) - 1]^3 - \dots$$
$$= \left[ \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \mu_r \frac{t^r}{r!} - 1 \right] - \frac{1}{2} \left[ \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \mu_r \frac{t^r}{r!} - 1 \right]^2 + \frac{1}{3} \left[ \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \mu_r \frac{t^r}{r!} - 1 \right]^3 - \dots$$

since  $M_X(t) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} \mu_r \frac{t^r}{r!}$



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Then by using this relationship between cumulant generating function and the moment generating function, the latter the former being the natural logarithm of the latter we can arrive at a relation between the cumulants which are coefficients of the power series in  $t$  and the moments as obtained from the moment generating function which can be recovered through a power series expansion of  $t$ . And, then you equate coefficients of appropriate powers of  $t$  and you arrive a relation between  $\kappa$  and  $\mu$ .

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- Clearly,  $\kappa_0=0$ , since  $\mu_0=1$ . Comparing coefficients of powers of  $t$ , we get:
- $\kappa_1 = \mu_1$ ;  $\kappa_2 = \mu_2 - \mu_1^2$
- $\kappa_3 = \mu_3 - 3\mu_2\mu_1 + 2\mu_1^3$
- $\kappa_4 = \mu_4 - 4\mu_3\mu_1 - 3\mu_1^2 + 12\mu_2\mu_1^2 - 6\mu_1^4$ .
- In the reverse direction:  $\mu_2 = \kappa_2 + \kappa_1^2$
- $\mu_3 = \kappa_3 + 3\kappa_2\kappa_1 + 2\kappa_1^3$
- $\mu_4 = \kappa_4 + 4\kappa_3\kappa_1 + 3\kappa_2^2 + 6\kappa_2\kappa_1^2 + \kappa_1^4$ .

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## ADVANTAGE OF CUMULANTS

- Working with cumulants can have an advantage over using moments because for statistically independent random variables  $X$  and  $Y$ :
- $K_{X+Y}(t) = \log\{E[e^{t(X+Y)}]\}$
- $= \log\{E[e^{tX}]E[e^{tY}]\} = \log E[e^{tX}] + \log E[e^{tY}]$
- $\log M_X(t) + \log M_Y(t) = K_X(t) + K_Y(t)$

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These are some instances of how the relations turn out to be. Advantages of cumulants over the moment generating function: well, if you have two random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  and they both are statistically independent of each other. Then it turns out that the cumulant generating function of the sum of those two variables is equal to the sum of the cumulant generating functions of the two variables that is  $K$  of  $X$  plus  $Y$  is equal to  $K$  of  $X$  plus  $k$  of  $Y$ .

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$$\begin{aligned} \text{PGF } G_X(z) &= E(z^X) = \sum p(x)z^x \\ \text{MGF } M_X(t) &= E(e^{tX}) = \int dx p(x)e^{tx} \\ \text{CGF } K_X(t) &= \ln M_X(t) \\ \text{Characteristic Function} \\ \tilde{p}(k) &= E(e^{-ikX}) = \int dx p(x)e^{-ikx} \\ \tilde{p}(k) &= E(e^{-ikX}) = M_X(-ik) = G(e^{-ik}) \end{aligned}$$

So, this is a summary of all the important generating functions that we have talked about: the probability generating function, the moment generating functions, cumulant generating functions and the characteristic functions.

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**THE BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION**

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## BERNOULLI TRIALS

- Exactly two possible outcomes e.g. success & failure;
- Outcomes are mutually exclusive;
- Trials are independent of each other;
- Probability of success ( $p$ ) & failure ( $q=1-p$ ) constant & same in every trial.


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

- Let  $n$ : total no of Bernoulli trials;
- $p$ : probability of success in each trial;
- $q=1-p$ : probability of failure in each trial;
- We define the random variable  $X$  as the number of successes in these  $n$  Bernoulli trials.
- The distribution of  $r = 1, 1, 2, \dots, n$  successes in  $n$  identical Bernoulli trials is a binomial distribution. We have:
- $P(X = r) = nC_r p^r q^{n-r}$

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## PGF OF BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION

- $G(z) = E(z^X) = \sum_{x=0}^n p(x)z^x$
- $= \sum_{r=0}^n nC_r p^r q^{n-r} z^r = \sum_{r=0}^n nC_r (pz)^r q^{n-r}$
- $G(z) = (pz + q)^n$  so that  $p(0)=q^n$ ;  $p(1)=npq^{(n-1)}$   
etc.



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Then we talked briefly about binomial distributions. Binomial distributions is defined by the probability mass function  $P(X = r) = nC_r p^r q^{n-r}$ . The probability generating function  $G(z)$  is given by  $(pz + q)^n$ .



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### MGF OF BINOMIAL DISTRIBUTION

$$\begin{aligned} M_X(t) &= E(e^{tX}) = \sum_{r=0}^n e^{tr} P_r = \sum_{r=0}^n e^{tr} \binom{n}{r} p^r q^{n-r} \\ &= \sum_{r=0}^n \left[ \binom{n}{r} (pe^t)^r q^{n-r} \right] = (pe^t + q)^n \end{aligned}$$

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The moment generating function turns out to be  $pe^t + q$  to the power  $n$ .

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$$\begin{aligned}\mu_0 &= (pe^t + q)^n \Big|_{t=0} = (p + q)^n = 1 \\ \mu_1 &= \frac{d}{dt}(pe^t + q)^n \Big|_{t=0} = npe^t (pe^t + q)^{n-1} \Big|_{t=0} = np \\ \mu_2 &= \frac{d^2}{dt^2}(pe^t + q)^n \Big|_{t=0} \\ &= \left[ n(n-1)p^2 e^{2t} (pe^t + q)^{n-2} + npe^t (pe^t + q)^{n-1} \right] \Big|_{t=0} \\ &= n(n-1)p^2 + np = np[(n-1)p + 1] = n^2 p^2 + npq \\ \text{Variance} &= \mu_2 - \mu_1^2 = npq\end{aligned}$$

And the various moments can be obtained as I mentioned earlier by taking derivatives and putting  $t$  equal to 0.

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**THE NORMAL (GAUSSIAN)  
DISTRIBUTION**

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## BINOMIAL → GAUSSIAN

- Let  $X$  be a binomial variate with
- mean  $np$  and variance  $npq$ .
- **If  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $np$  is finite**
- the probability distribution of the standardized binomial variable
- **$Z = \frac{X - np}{\sqrt{npq}}$  tends to that of a unit gaussian variable.**

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Then we moved over to the normal distribution. The normal distribution as I mentioned is the limiting case of binomial distributions, where  $n$  the number of Bernoulli trials tends to infinity; however,  $np$  and  $npq$  both remain finite.



So, that these are the 3 conditions under which the binomial distribution progresses to a continuous distribution which is also called the Gaussian distribution over the normal distribution.

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## GAUSSIAN DISTRIBUTION

- $P(z < Z, z + dz) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}z^2\right) dz$
- $p(x)dx = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2} dx$
- $M_X(t) = \exp\left(\mu t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2\right)$
- $C_X(t) = \exp\left(-ik\mu - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 k^2\right)$
- $C_X(t) = \ln M_X(t) = \left(\mu t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2\right)$

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To arrive at the probability density function of the Gaussian distribution we made use of the Stirling formula for large factorials because  $n$  is tending to infinity. So, when you talk about  $nCr$  and so on, we are talking about large factorials which case have to be approximated and that is done through this Stirling approximation.

The probability density function of the standard Gaussian distribution is given by this first expression which is  $1$  upon root  $2\pi$  exponential of minus  $1$  upon  $2$   $z$  square. This is the probability density function of the standard normal variate. What is the standard normal variate? This standard normal variate is a normal variate having mean of  $0$  and a variance of  $1$ .

The general normal variate has slightly more involved pdf which is given by this second expression. The moment generating function, we worked out last time for the normal


distribution. The Gaussian distribution turns out to be the exponential  $\mu t + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 t^2$ .

The characteristic function is simply read, replace  $t$  by  $it$  you get the characteristic function. And the cumulant function is the log of the moment generating function which is equal to  $\mu t + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 t^2$ .

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$$E(Z^m) = \begin{cases} 0 & m \text{ odd} \\ \frac{m!}{2^{m/2} (m/2)!} & m \text{ even} \end{cases}$$

*Proceeding similarly, we can show that for even  $m$ :*

$$E(X - \mu)^m = \frac{m! \sigma^m}{2^{m/2} (m/2)!}$$


Then we worked out the various other moments of the normal distribution, the standard normal distribution. We found that because of the symmetry of the normal distribution about the origin and in fact, the  $Y$  axis we find that we find that the odd moments when they vanish and the even moments are given by this formula of  $m$  factorial divided by  $2$  to the power  $m$  by  $2$  into  $m$  by  $2$  factorial. The odd moments all the odd moments of the Gaussian distribution

vanish even moments are given by this expression. This is for the standard normal distribution standard Gaussian distribution.

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$$\begin{aligned}
 M_X(t) &= E(e^{tX}) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{tx - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2} dx \\
 \text{Now, } tx - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2}(x-\mu)^2 &= \frac{2\sigma^2 tx - (x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2} \\
 &= \frac{2\sigma^2 tx - x^2 - \mu^2 + 2\mu x}{2\sigma^2} = \frac{-x^2 - \mu^2 + 2x(\mu + \sigma^2 t)}{2\sigma^2} \\
 &= -\frac{[x - (\mu + \sigma^2 t)]^2 + 2\mu\sigma^2 t + \sigma^4 t^2}{2\sigma^2} \\
 &= \mu t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2 - \frac{[x - (\mu + \sigma^2 t)]^2}{2\sigma^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

How we arrived at these expressions? For example, the moment generating function we arrived at by working out this integral, in working out this integral we made converted the exponent of the exponent appearing in the integral as a perfect square.

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$$\begin{aligned} M_X(t) &= E(e^{tX}) \\ &= \exp\left(\mu t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2\right) \left\{ \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{[x-(\mu+\sigma^2 t)]^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx \right. \\ &= \exp\left(\mu t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2\right) \left. \vphantom{\int} \right\} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

And then if you look at this carefully, if you look at this expression within the box this is a shifted normal distribution. You are simply shifted the origin by a certain length certain distance. Otherwise the normal distribution remains unchanged, the limits remains unchanged and therefore, this whole expression is the value of pdf integrated over minus infinity to infinity which has to be equal to 1.



So, this whole expression within the green box works out to 1 and we are left with exponential  $\mu t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 t^2$  which is the moment generating function of the normal distribution with a mean of  $\mu$  and a variance of  $\sigma^2$ .



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## PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTION OF $X^2$

- Let the random variable  $X$  have a distribution  $\mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$ , so that its normalized PDF is  $p(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}x^2}$ .
- Let  $\rho(\xi)$  be the probability distribution of  $X^2$ .
- The sample space of  $X^2$  is, of course, just the half-line  $0 \leq \xi < \infty$ .

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Then let it know now let us take a problem. Let us work out the probability distribution of  $X$  square, where  $X$  square is has a normal distribution with a mean of 0 and a variance of sigma square. Then its probability density function is given by this expression:  $p(x)$  is equal to  $\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}x^2}$ .

Let us assume we need to work out the probability distribution of  $X$  squared. Let us say assume that  $\xi$  is equal to  $X$  square,  $\xi$  is equal to  $X$  square;  $\xi$  is the random variable which represents  $X$  square then we need to work out the probability density function of  $\xi$ . Let us call it  $\rho$  of  $\xi$ .

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• Now, both  $-x$  and  $+x$  correspond to the same  $\xi=x^2$ . Hence there is a two-fold contribution to  $\rho(\xi)$ . This gives an extra factor of 2 and we have:

$$\rho(\xi) = 2p(\sqrt{\xi}) \left| \frac{dx}{d\xi} \right| = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi\xi}} e^{-\frac{\xi}{2\sigma^2}}.$$

$\xi = x^2$

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Clearly the sample space of  $\xi$  will lie from 0 to plus infinity because being a square and being a real number it will not have any values, it will not take any values between minus infinity and 0. It will have values all values of  $\xi$  will lie in the interval 0 to infinity which constitutes its sample space.

Now, both you know the important thing is you see what are we saying? We are saying  $\xi$  is equal to  $x$  squared; that means, minus  $x$  and plus  $x$  both are going to yield the same value of  $\xi$ . So, naturally whatever the probability of  $\xi$  is going to be is going to be and it is symmetric. It is symmetric for minus  $x$  and plus  $x$ .

Therefore, if I select a particular value of  $\xi$  then that value can be achieved by  $x$  taking the value of minus  $x$  and  $x$  taking the value of plus  $x$ . For example, if I want a certain specific

value of xi then the ways in which that value of xi can be achieved is by taking the value x taking the value minus x and x taking the value plus x.

Therefore, the probability will have to be doubled because the same xi can be achieved in two ways and therefore, we have this factor of 2. Then the rest is quite simple. We need to work out p xi; xi is nothing, but under root of xi is nothing, but x square. Therefore, x is nothing, but xi under root say xi. So, instead of x we substitute under root xi and we introduced this dx upo d dz to change the variables from x to xi and we end up with this simple probability density function for xi right.

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Alternatively, we have:  $\rho(\xi) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx p(x) \delta(x^2 - \xi)$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx p(x) \delta\left[(x + \sqrt{\xi})(x - \sqrt{\xi})\right]$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx p(x) \left[ \frac{\delta(x + \sqrt{\xi}) + \delta(x - \sqrt{\xi})}{2\sqrt{\xi}} \right] = \frac{p(-\sqrt{\xi}) + p(\sqrt{\xi})}{2\sqrt{\xi}}$$

where  $\delta[f(x)] = \sum_i \frac{\delta(x - x_i)}{|f'(x_i)|}$

$$\delta(x^2 - a^2) = \frac{1}{2|a|} [\delta(x + a) + \delta(x - a)]$$

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Now, and this can be achieved in a different way in a more explicit manner. The probability density function of xi rho of xi will be you see now xi is equal to x square, but we want a

certain value of  $x_i$  which is represented by this particular value  $x_i$  and this  $x_i$  we need all those values of  $x$  such that we get this value of  $x_i$  weighted by the respective probabilities.

All the values of  $x$  that end up with giving a value of  $x_i$ , but weighted with the respective probabilities subject to the condition subject to the condition that  $x^2$  must be equal to  $x_i$ . That is our requiring we cannot take any arbitrary value of  $x$  and try to find out the combine it with another value of  $x$  to find to arrive at the value of  $x_i$ . The combination rule is that  $x^2$  must be equal to  $x_i$ .



How to incorporate this  $x^2 = x_i$  condition? This constraint in determining the probability density function is by introducing the Dirac delta function;  $\delta(x^2 - x_i)$ . This automatically will ensure that only those values of  $x$  are selected only those values are  $x$  are selected when we do this integral only those values of  $x$  are selected such that  $x^2$  is equal to  $x_i$ .

So, we incorporate this condition by the delta function and this delta function can be written in this form.  $\delta(x^2 - x_i) = \delta(x - \sqrt{x_i})\delta(x + \sqrt{x_i})$  and using the this property of delta functions I can write them in the form of 2 summed upto 2 delta functions.  $\delta(x - \sqrt{x_i}) + \delta(x + \sqrt{x_i})$  divided by  $2\sqrt{x_i}$ .

So, when I do the integration due to the delta function and we end up with this particular expression;  $p(\sqrt{x_i}) + p(-\sqrt{x_i})$  divided by  $2\sqrt{x_i}$ .

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*Due to symmetry of the distribution, we have*

$$p(-\sqrt{\xi}) = p(\sqrt{\xi}) \text{ so}$$
$$\rho(\xi) = \frac{p(-\sqrt{\xi}) + p(\sqrt{\xi})}{2\sqrt{\xi}}$$
$$= \frac{p(\sqrt{\xi})}{\sqrt{\xi}} = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi\xi}} e^{-\frac{\xi}{2\sigma^2}}$$


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Because  $p$  of minus root  $\xi$  and  $p$  of plus root  $\xi$  are the same because of the symmetry of the distribution, this can be written as  $2 p$  of root  $\xi$  which is and this 2 and 2 cancel out, we are left with  $p$  of root  $\xi$  upon root  $\xi$  which when we substitute the value in the pdf of  $x$  equal to root  $\xi$  we put then we get this expression for the probability density function of  $\xi$ , which is exactly the same as we got earlier by a more intuitive and a shorter reasoning.

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### EXAMPLE 2

- Consider the reciprocal of the square of a Gaussian random variable  $X$  with zero mean and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Let  $\xi = X^{-2}$ . Its PDF is given by:
- $$\rho(\xi) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \delta(\xi - x^{-2})$$

This is a Levy distribution with  $c=1/\sigma^2$  as shown below:

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Let us there is another example that I have put here. In this case we were we worked out with the procedure is more or same. In this case we are talking about a variable  $X$  which is again a randomly distributed has a Gaussian distribution with a mean of 0 and a variance of sigma square. We try to work out the pdf of  $\xi$ .  $\xi$  is given by  $X$  to the power minus 2. We have just done an expression where  $\xi$  was equal to  $X$  squared, now we work out the distribution of  $\xi$  equal to 1 upon  $X$  square.


So, again we apply the same approach.  $\rho$  of  $\xi$  will be equal to this expression. Now in this case again we introduced a delta function to ensure that this constraint is met.  $\xi$  is equal to  $X$  to the power minus 2 that constraint, we have incorporated by feeding in a delta function  $\xi$  minus  $x$  to the power minus 2 and integrating over  $x$  the rest is the pdf of the of the variable  $x$  which is a normal distribution with a mean of 0 and a variance of sigma square.

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$$\rho(\xi) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) \delta(\xi - x^{-2});$$

Writing  $u = x^{-1}$ ,  $\left|\frac{du}{dx}\right| = x^{-2} = u^2$

*The mod has been introduced to retain positive integration volume.*

$$\rho(\xi) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{du}{u^2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2 u^2}\right) \delta(\xi - u^2)$$


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Again we simplify in the same way. We write  $u$  is equal to  $x$  to the power minus 1  $x$  inverse and we have mode of  $du$  upon  $dx$  is equal to  $x$  to the power minus 2 that is equal to  $u$  square. We use mode here because we want to retain the positivity of the integration volume. So, we use the mode of  $du$  by  $dx$  rather than the expression for  $du$  by  $dx$  with this sign.

The rest is once you incorporate change the variable from  $x$  to  $u$ , you get this expression  $du$  upon  $u$  square exponential of this whole thing into; now the delta function in terms of  $u$  becomes delta  $\xi$  minus  $u$  square which is precisely of the form that we had in the earlier problem.

(Refer Slide Time: 17:46)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \rho(\xi) &= \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{du}{u^2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2 u^2}\right) \delta(\xi - u^2) \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{du}{u^2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2 u^2}\right) \delta\left[(\sqrt{\xi} - u)(\sqrt{\xi} + u)\right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(\frac{1}{2\xi^{1/2}}\right) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{du}{u^2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2 u^2}\right) \delta\left[(\xi^{1/2} - u) + (\xi^{1/2} + u)\right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(\frac{1}{2\xi^{1/2}}\right) \left[\frac{2}{\xi} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2 \xi}\right)\right] = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(\frac{1}{\xi^{3/2}}\right) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2 \xi}\right)
 \end{aligned}$$

So, we simplify this delta function xi minus u square. Put it as a product of xi minus under root xi minus u into a under root xi plus u and then we split it up into a sum of 2 delta functions delta of xi under root xi minus u plus delta of under root xi plus u. Of course, there will be an additional factor coming in the denominator; 1 upon 2 xi to the power 1 by 2, that is under root xi.

We carry out the integration making use of these delta functions. It becomes quite simple. Simply replace the u by xi under root xi plus minus as the case may be in the case of the 2 delta functions.



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### EXAMPLE 3

- The ratio of two Gaussian random variables, each with a mean equal to zero, is Cauchy-distributed.
- Let  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  be two Gaussian random variables with respective PDFs  $p_i(x_i) = \frac{1}{\sigma_i\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x_i^2}{2\sigma_i^2}\right)$  where  $i=1,2$ . Let  $\xi = \frac{X_1}{X_2}$ , then

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And again we end up with a result which is again because of the symmetry we end up with this result:  $\frac{1}{\sigma_i\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x_i^2}{2\sigma_i^2}\right)$ . So, this is the probability distribution of  $x_i$  equal to  $\frac{1}{\sigma_i\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x_i^2}{2\sigma_i^2}\right)$  and this is a level distribution.

(Refer Slide Time: 19:11)

$$\begin{aligned}\rho(\xi) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx_1 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx_2 p_1(x_1, t) p_2(x_2, t) \delta\left(\xi - \frac{x_1}{x_2}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi \sigma_1 \sigma_2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx_1 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx_2 e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x_1^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{x_2^2}{\sigma_2^2}\right)} \delta\left(\xi - \frac{x_1}{x_2}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi \sigma_1 \sigma_2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx_1 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx_2 e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x_1^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{x_2^2}{\sigma_2^2}\right)} \delta\left[x_1 \left(\frac{\xi}{x_1} - \frac{1}{x_2}\right)\right] \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi \sigma_1 \sigma_2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{|x_1|} dx_1 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx_2 e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x_1^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{x_2^2}{\sigma_2^2}\right)} \delta\left(\frac{\xi}{x_1} - \frac{1}{x_2}\right)\end{aligned}$$

(Refer Slide Time: 19:12)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Setting } u &= \frac{1}{x_2} \text{ so that } du = -\frac{1}{x_2^2} dx_2 = -u^2 dx_2 \\ \rho(\xi) &= -\frac{1}{2\pi \sigma_1 \sigma_2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{|x_1|} dx_1 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{du}{u^2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x_1^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2 u^2}\right)} \delta\left(\frac{\xi}{x_1} - u\right) \\ &= -\frac{1}{2\pi \sigma_1 \sigma_2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{|x_1|} \frac{x_1^2}{\xi^2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{x_1^2}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{x_1^2}{\sigma_2^2 \xi^2}\right)} dx_1 = -\frac{1}{2\pi \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \xi^2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x_1| e^{-\frac{1}{2}(ax_1)^2} dx_1 \\ \text{where } a^2 &= \left(\frac{1}{\sigma_1^2} + \frac{1}{\sigma_2^2 \xi^2}\right). \end{aligned}$$



(Refer Slide Time: 19:14)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Setting } ax_1 &= z, dz = a dx_1, \rho(\xi) = -\frac{1}{2\pi \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \xi^2 |a| a} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |z| e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2} dz \\ &= -\frac{2}{2\pi \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \xi^2 |a| a} \int_0^{\infty} z e^{-\frac{1}{2}z^2} dz = -\frac{2}{2\pi \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \xi^2 |a| a} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-t} dt \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi \sigma_1 \sigma_2 \xi^2 |a| a} = \frac{\sigma_1 \sigma_2}{\pi (\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2 \xi^2)} = \frac{\sigma_1 / \sigma_2}{\pi (\sigma_1^2 / \sigma_2^2 + \xi^2)} = \frac{\lambda}{\pi (\lambda^2 + \xi^2)} \end{aligned}$$

(Refer Slide Time: 19:15)

**LINEAR COMBINATION OF GAUSSIAN RANDOM VARIABLES**

- Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be  $n$  independent Gaussian random variables with respective distributions  $N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$  then the expression:

$$\left\{ \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i - \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mu_i}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \sigma_i^2}} \right\} \sim N(0, 1)$$

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Then we have another example here. Ratio of two Gaussian random variables; I leave it as an exercise. The procedure is more or less the same as you have done in the case of the two examples. It is solved in the presentation and those interested can work it out for themselves that will give more practice work absolutely on similar lines to the two examples that I have discussed just now.

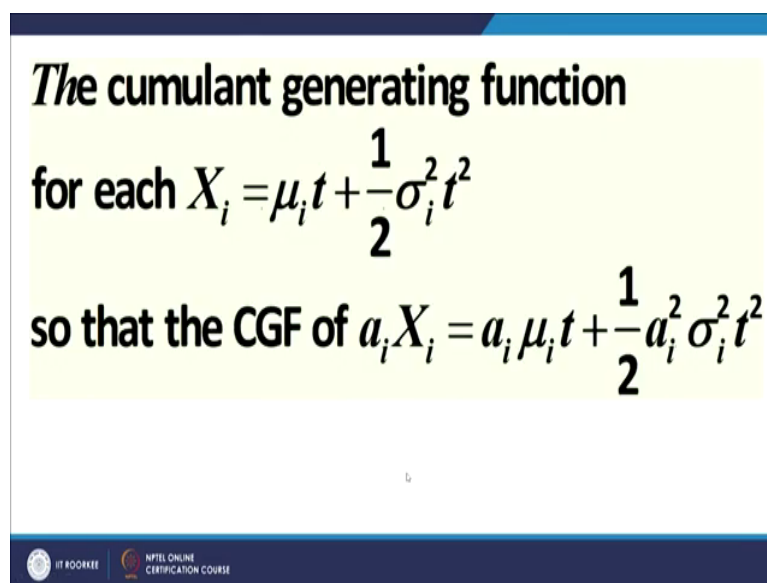
Now, we talk about a linear combination of Gaussian random variables or let us start with a finite case. A finite linear combination of Gaussian random variables  $X_1, X_2, X_3, \dots, X_n$  each of them is independent of the other.

This is very important condition. The random variables are Gaussian variables are independent and let us assume that they are respective means and variants are given by  $\mu_i$  and  $\sigma_i^2$

square that is  $x_i$  is normally distributed with a mean of  $\mu_i$  and a variance of  $\sigma_i^2$  and it is independent of all the other  $x_j$ , where  $j$  is not equal to  $i$ .

We need to find the distribution of this expression and establish that this expression is also normally distributed with a mean of 0 and a standard deviation or a variance of 1 which is it is distributed as a standard normal variable this whole expression.

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**The cumulant generating function**  
for each  $X_i = \mu_i t + \frac{1}{2} \sigma_i^2 t^2$   
so that the CGF of  $a_i X_i = a_i \mu_i t + \frac{1}{2} a_i^2 \sigma_i^2 t^2$

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So, let us work it out. It is quite simple. Now, the cumulative we can use the cumulant generating function. In fact, you can use we use that particular property of cumulant generating function that I had eluded to earlier that is the cumulant generating function of a sum of independent random variables is equal to the sum of the cumulant generating functions of various random variable.

So, let us define let us take any of this random variables  $X_i$ , it has the cumulant generating functions  $\mu_i t + \frac{1}{2} \sigma_i^2 t^2$ . And because  $a_i$  is deterministic all the coefficients  $a_i$  are deterministic their real numbers without any randomness and therefore, they do not have any variants what you they do not have any varinats they are constants.

In fact, and therefore, we also the cumulant generating functions of  $a_i X_i$  is given by  $a_i \mu_i t + \frac{1}{2} a_i^2 \sigma_i^2 t^2$  is simply a scaling factor actually. So,  $a_i \mu_i t + \frac{1}{2} a_i^2 \sigma_i^2 t^2$ .

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Consider the sum  $Y = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i$ .

Since all the  $X_i$ 's are independent, the CGF of  $Y = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i$  will be the sum of the CGF of all the  $a_i X_i$ .

Thus,  $K_Y(t) = K_{\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i}(t) = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mu_i \right) t + \frac{1}{2} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \sigma_i^2 \right) t^2$ .

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Now, we consider the sum of the linear combination of the  $n$  random variables that we have  $a_1 X_1 + a_2 X_2 + a_3 X_3 + \dots + a_n X_n$ . Let us call it  $Y$ . Then because all the random variables are independent, the cumulant generating functions of  $Y$  will be equal to the sum of the cumulant generating functions of each of these terms;  $a_1 X_1 + a_2 X_2 + a_3 X_3$  and so on.

In other words, the cumulant generating function of  $Y$  is given by the cumulant generating functions of  $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i X_i$ , where so that will be equal to  $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mu_i t + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \sigma_i^2 t^2$  because this is  $Y$  is given by this expression.

So, because all these terms  $a_1 X_1$  is independent of  $a_2 X_2$  is independent of  $a_3 X_3$ , therefore, the cumulant generating function of  $Y$  is equal to the sum of cumulant generating functions of all these terms.

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Thus,  $Y$  is normal with  $\mu_Y = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mu_i \right)$ ,  $\sigma_Y^2 = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \sigma_i^2 \right)$

Hence,  $Z = \frac{Y - \mu_Y}{\sigma_Y}$  is  $N(0,1)$

But  $\mu_Y = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \mu_i \right)$  and  $\sigma_Y^2 = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^2 \sigma_i^2 \right)$

Hence, the result.

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Now, what does it mean? It means that  $Y$  is normally distributed with a mean of this expression and a variants of this expression right. I repeat.  $Y$  what is  $Y$ ? Recall that.  $Y$  is equal to this expression. This is  $Y$ .



Y is normally distributed with a mean of this and a variance of this and that implies that if I define another variable Z as Y minus mu of Y upon sigma of Y and that would be normally distributed as a standard normal variant standard Gaussian variant and that is precise the what we had to prove. If you substitute Y equal to that expression mu Y equal to this expression sigma Y square equal to this expression you precisely get what we wanted to establish.



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$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi}$$

- Denoting the integral by  $I$ , we can write

$$I^2 = \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \right)^2$$

$$= \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \right) \left( \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-y^2} dy \right) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(x^2+y^2)} dx dy$$

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Now, we talk the Gaussian integration that is a very important that forms the premise of almost all path integrals. You see there are two fundamental ways of solving path integrals in quantum mechanics and quantum field theory.

Either you use a perturbation expansion or where they were possible where you end up with some kind of a Gaussian integral you use this solution by Gaussian integral. So, this form this integration of Gaussian or integrals which can be converted to some form of Gaussian

integration forms the cornerstone of the theory of path integrals in quantum mechanics in quantum field theory.

So, let us look at this particular case very carefully. We start with a very simple case. We start with the integration of exponential of minus x square dx within the limits minus infinity to plus infinity. It is a classic integral. What we do is we write this integral the product of this integral with itself twice over.



So, what we get is let us call this integral as I. Let us call it I. Then we have I squared is equal to this integral square and which can be written as integral of e to the minus x square dx integral of e to the power minus y square dx and which can be written as integral of e to the power minus x square plus y square dx dy.

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- We transform variables as:
- $x = r \cos \theta, y = r \sin \theta$ .
- The Jacobian of the transformation is:

$$\begin{vmatrix} \frac{\partial x}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial x}{\partial \theta} \\ \frac{\partial y}{\partial r} & \frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta} \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} \cos \theta & -r \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & r \cos \theta \end{vmatrix} = r. \text{ Hence}$$

- $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-(x^2+y^2)} dx dy = \int_0^{\infty} \int_0^{2\pi} r e^{-r^2} dr d\theta$   
 $= 2\pi \int_0^{\infty} r e^{-r^2} dr = 2\pi \times \frac{1}{2} = \pi$  so  $I = \sqrt{\pi}$

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Now, let us do a transformation of variables. We from the Cartesian coordinates to polar coordinates in two dimensional space;  $x$  is equal to  $r \cos \theta$ ,  $y$  is equal to  $r \sin \theta$ . Jacobian as you can see and indeed is very well known the Jacobian turns out to be  $r$  and therefore, our integral that is  $I^2$  remember.  $I^2$  is equal to  $\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^{\infty} r e^{-r^2} dr d\theta$  and then  $\int_0^{\infty} r e^{-r^2} dr$ .

$r e^{-r^2}$  is the component is the part that arises from the Jacobian;  $e^{-r^2}$  is nothing, but  $e^{-x^2 - y^2}$  by substituting  $r \cos \theta = x$  and  $r \sin \theta = y$  and  $dr d\theta$  are expressed in terms of  $dx dy$  by making use of the Jacobian of this transformation.

When you seems now this is elementary simply the integral over  $\theta$  can be carried out to give  $2\pi$  and the integral over  $r$  gives us  $1/2$  and we end up with  $\pi$ . Therefore,  $I^2 = \pi$  therefore,  $I = \sqrt{\pi}$ . So, this is quite a simple integral, but its very very important.

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**D DIMENSIONAL GAUSSIAN  
INTEGRALS**

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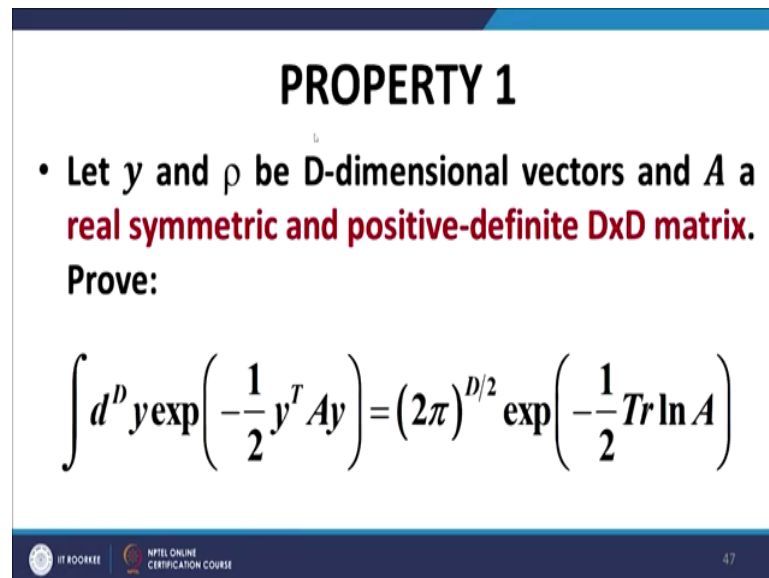
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$$\begin{aligned} (1) \int d^D y \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} y^T A y\right) &= (2\pi)^{D/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \ln A\right) \\ (2) \int d^D y \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} y^T A y + \rho^T y\right) &= (2\pi)^{D/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \ln A} e^{\frac{1}{2} \rho^T A^{-1} \rho} \\ (3) \int d^D y y_{k_1} \dots y_{k_n} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} y^T A y\right) \\ &= (2\pi)^{D/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \ln A} \left(A_{k_1 k_2}^{-1} \dots A_{k_{n-1} k_n}^{-1} + \text{permut.}\right) \end{aligned}$$

This is an integral one dimensional space. Now, we come to integration in D dimensional spaces where we have to deal with matrices. There are three fundamental properties that we need to handle here. The first is the equivalent of the integral that we have just done where we had numbers to contain with here we have matrices to content with, y is the column is a column vector and A is a real symmetric matrix and we need to establish these results, rho is also a column vector.

So, these are 3 results which I proposed to explain because not only as a results important the methodology that is followed also gives us a lot of insights that we are going to use in the future.

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**PROPERTY 1**

- Let  $y$  and  $\rho$  be  $D$ -dimensional vectors and  $A$  a **real symmetric and positive-definite  $D \times D$  matrix**.  
Prove:

$$\int d^D y \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} y^T A y\right) = (2\pi)^{D/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \ln A\right)$$

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So, let us start with property 1. This is property 1. Recall the first one is the equivalence of what we have just done in one dimensions. So,  $y$  and  $\rho$  are  $D$  dimensional vectors and  $A$  is a real symmetric, positive definite three properties; real symmetric each of these will have a certain relevance as you will see gradually. Real symmetric, positive definite,  $D$  cross  $D$  matrix we need to prove this.

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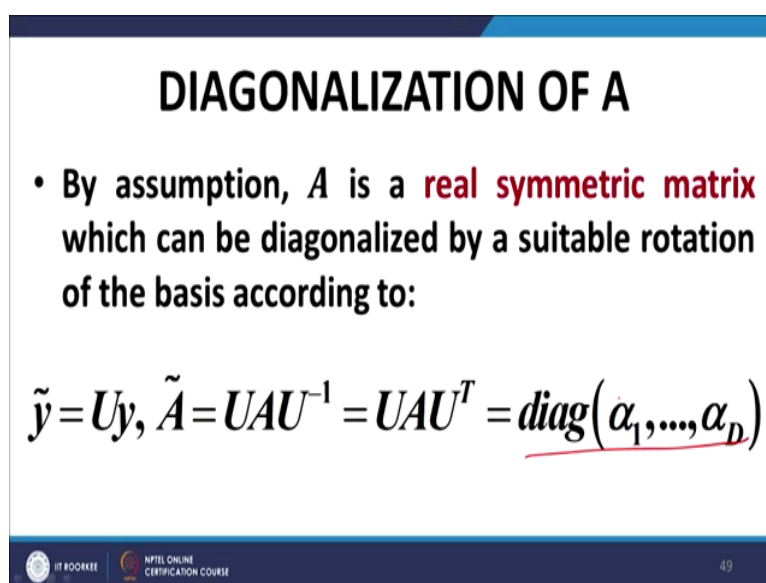
- In one dimension the ordinary Gaussian integral reads: 
$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}ay^2\right) = \left(\frac{2\pi}{a}\right)^{1/2}$$
- where  $a$  is a positive constant.
- This is easily proved from
- $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi}$
- Simply set:  $x = \sqrt{\frac{a}{2}}y; dx = \sqrt{\frac{a}{2}}dy$

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Now, in one dimension you see what we proved just now? We proved just now that the integral of  $e$  to the power minus  $x$  square is equal to root  $\pi$ ; this is what we have proved just now. If we simply sit if we simply make these changes it a change of variables  $x$  equal to under root  $a$  by 2 into  $y$   $dx$ ; obviously, becomes under root  $a$  by 2  $dy$ . If you make this substitutions you end up with this expression quite straightforward.

It is quite elementary, you simply make a substitute a of variables and you get this result. So, this is as far as the one dimensional case is concerned.

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**DIAGONALIZATION OF A**

- By assumption,  $A$  is a **real symmetric matrix** which can be diagonalized by a suitable rotation of the basis according to:

$$\tilde{y} = Uy, \tilde{A} = UAU^{-1} = UAU^T = \underline{\text{diag}(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_D)}$$

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Now, the now because  $A$  is real symmetric matrix therefore, we can diagonal and diagonalized by a orthogonal by a rotation of the basis. In a by a rotation of the basis we can convert  $A$  to a diagonal matrix and the elements of those diagonal matrices are nothing, but the eigenvalues of the matrix  $A$ .


So, that is how we proceed the first step is to diagonalise our matrix  $A$ , which is done by a orthogonal transformation or rotation transformation of the basis let us call it  $U$ . So, the transformation operates on the various on the matrix and the various column vectors in the following way which is given here.

And we end up with a diagonal matrix which is given by this expression where  $\alpha_1$ ,  $\alpha_2$  and upto  $\alpha_D$  are the eigen values of the matrix  $A$ .



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- $U$  is an orthogonal rotation matrix. We have:
- $UU^T = I$  and thus the determinant is
- $\det U = 1$
- The numbers  $\alpha_i$  are the eigenvalues of the matrix  $A$ .
- Also  $\det A = \prod \alpha_i$



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Now, because  $U$  is an orthogonal rotation matrix  $UU^T$  is equal to  $I$  and immediate corollary of this is the determinant of  $U$  is also equal to  $1$ . And the number  $\alpha_i$  are the eigenvalues and therefore, the determinant of  $A$ , the determinant of  $A$  is the product of these eigenvalues it is the product of  $\alpha_i$ . So, these are fundamental constituents which results which are obtained from matrix theory, very elementary results.

First is you have a rotation matrix. You then  $U$  into  $U^T$  were gives you the identity matrix or the  $U^T$  is the inverse of  $U$  and then that determinant of  $U$  is equal to  $1$ , for every rotation matrix because the length of the vector needs to be unchanged because of a rotation due to a rotation. Then the diagonal matrix as real symmetric matrix can be diagonalized and the diagonal matrix the elements of the diagonal matrix are the eigenvalues. And the product of the eigenvalues is equal to the determinant.

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• The above transformation  $\tilde{A} = UAU^T$  by construction leaves the bilinear form:

•  $y^T A y$  invariant.  $y^T \tilde{A} y = y^T A y$

• Also  $\det U = 1$

• Thus, transformation by  $U$  does not change the volume element.

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So, these are certain properties that we borrow from matrix theory. Now, the important thing is this transformation  $A$  tilde from  $A$  that is obtained through a rotation is does not change the bilinear form  $y$  transpose  $A$   $y$ .

You simply substitute the value of  $y$  tilde transpose, substitute the value of  $A$  and substitute the value of  $y$  tilde. In other words you simply work it out  $y$  tilde transpose  $A$  transpose  $A$  tilde transpose sorry  $A$  tilde and a  $y$  tilde and you find that this is equal to  $y$   $A$   $y$  transpose  $A$   $y$ .

It is quite simple. Just put the values. The  $U$  transpose will cancel out giving you the identity matrix and this is what you will get right.


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Then the integral can be split into a product of simple one-dimensional integrals:

$$\int d^D y \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} y^T A y\right) = \int d^D \tilde{y} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \tilde{y}^T \tilde{A} \tilde{y}\right)$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^D \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} d\tilde{y}_i \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2} \alpha_i \tilde{y}_i^2\right) = \prod_{i=1}^D \left(\frac{2\pi}{\alpha_i}\right)^{1/2} = (2\pi)^{D/2} (\det A)^{-1/2}$$

since the determinant of a matrix is product of eigenvalues.



So, now the important thing comes. Now, let us look at this integral. This expression this bilinear form  $y^T A y$  as I mentioned earlier is not affected is invariant under the transformation which is we are comes under the transformation which is precipitated by  $U$ . And therefore, the and the second thing is; second thing is because determinant  $U$  is equal to 1, therefore, the transformation does not change the volume element either.

So, two things are important.  $y^T A y$  is invariant under the transformation and number 2 that the integration element the integration volume element is also invariant under the transformation. So, we can simply write our given integral in the form of the transposed by linear element  $\tilde{y}^T \tilde{A} \tilde{y}$  and the integration element  $d^D y$  can be written as  $d^D \tilde{y}$ .

Now, the important thing is this is a diagonal matrix.  $A$  tilde is the diagonal matrix and because  $A$  tilde is the diagonal matrix this simplification immediately arises because the only elements of  $A$  tilde are the diagonal elements which are the eigenvalues of the matrix.

So, we can convert this integral to a product of we can separate this integral into  $d$  integrals each corresponding to one eigenvalue of the matrix  $A$  tilde, we will continue from here.

Thank you.