

characteristic equation of that matrix. Since A and B are real and symmetric, the roots under consideration are real. Thus Q_1 and Q_2 have independent Chi-Square distributions with r_1 and r_2 degrees of freedom respectively.

This theorem can likewise be extended to any finite number of these quadratic forms.

Of special interest is the case of, say k , quadratic forms for which the sum of the k matrices is the identity matrix. Thus $A_1 + A_2 + \cdots + A_k = I$. By Theorem 1, it is both necessary and sufficient for the mutual independence of the k forms that $A_u A_v = 0$, $u \neq v$.

Now

$$A_i = I - A_1 - \cdots - A_{i-1} - A_{i+1} - \cdots - A_j - \cdots - A_k$$

and

$$A_i A_j = A_j - A_1 A_j - \cdots - A_{i-1} A_j - A_{i+1} A_j - \cdots - A_j^2 - \cdots - A_k A_j,$$

so that $A_j = A_j^2$. In this particular case it is to be seen that the mutual independence of the forms implies that their several distributions are of the Chi-Square type.

A CHARACTERIZATION OF THE NORMAL DISTRIBUTION

BY IRVING KAPLANSKY

Harvard University

In 1925 R. A. Fisher gave a geometric derivation of the joint distribution of mean and variance in samples from a normal population (*Metron*, Vol. 5, pp. 90-104). On examining the argument however, we find that an (apparently) more general result is actually established: if $f(x_1) \cdots f(x_n)$ is a function $g(m, s)$ of the sample mean m and standard deviation s , then the probability density of m and s in samples of n from the population $f(x)$ is $g(m, s)s^{n-2}$. This condition on $f(x)$ is of course satisfied if $f(x)$ is normal; in this note we shall conversely show that for $n \geq 3$ it characterizes the normal distribution. In the proof it will be assumed that $g(m, s)$ possesses partial derivatives of the first order, although a weaker assumption would probably suffice.

Let us for the moment restrict the variables x_i to values such that $f(x_i) > 0$. After a change of notation we have

$$\phi(x_1) + \cdots + \phi(x_n) = h(u, v),$$

where $\phi = \log f$, $u = x_1 + \cdots + x_n$, $v = \frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2)$. A differentiation yields

$$\phi'(x_i) = h_u + h_v x_i.$$

Solving two of these equations for h_v , we find

$$(1) \quad h_v = \frac{\phi'(x_i) - \phi'(x_j)}{x_i - x_j}, \quad (i \neq j),$$

and, for $n \geq 3$, it follows that the right member of (1) is a constant, say $2A$. Then

$$\phi'(x_i) - 2Ax_i = \phi'(x_j) - 2Ax_j = \text{a constant } B.$$

$$\phi(x) = Ax^2 + Bx + C.$$

We now have $f(x) = e^{\phi(x)}$ whenever $f(x) > 0$; but since $f(x)$ is continuous, this implies $f(x) = e^{\phi(x)}$ everywhere.