

# CHAPTER 6

## COMPLEX INTEGRATION

### Introduction

In this section, in order to illustrate the power of Lebesgue integration, we collect a few results, which often appear with uncomplete proofs at the undergraduate level.

### 6.1. Complex Integrand

So far we have only treated integration of functions with their values in  $\mathbf{R}$  or  $[0, \infty]$  and it is the purpose of this section to discuss integration of complex valued functions.

Suppose  $(X, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$  is a positive measure. Let  $f, g \in L^1(\mu)$ . We define

$$\int_X (f + ig)d\mu = \int_X f d\mu + i \int_X g d\mu.$$

If  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  are real numbers,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_X (\alpha + i\beta)(f + ig)d\mu &= \int_X ((\alpha f - \beta g) + i(\alpha g + \beta f))d\mu \\ &= \int_X (\alpha f - \beta g)d\mu + i \int_X (\alpha g + \beta f)d\mu \\ &= \alpha \int_X f d\mu - \beta \int_X g d\mu + i\alpha \int_X g d\mu + i\beta \int_X f d\mu \\ &= (\alpha + i\beta) \left( \int_X f d\mu + i \int_X g d\mu \right) \\ &= (\alpha + i\beta) \int_X (f + ig)d\mu. \end{aligned}$$

We write  $f \in L^1(\mu; \mathbf{C})$  if  $\operatorname{Re} f, \operatorname{Im} f \in L^1(\mu)$  and have, for every  $f \in L^1(\mu; \mathbf{C})$  and complex  $\alpha$ ,

$$\int_X \alpha f d\mu = \alpha \int_X f d\mu.$$

Clearly, if  $f, g \in L^1(\mu; \mathbf{C})$ , then

$$\int_X (f + g) d\mu = \int_X f d\mu + \int_X g d\mu.$$

Now suppose  $\mu$  is a complex measure on  $\mathcal{M}$ . If

$$f \in L^1(\mu; \mathbf{C}) =_{\text{def}} L^1(\mu_{\operatorname{Re}}; \mathbf{C}) \cap L^1(\mu_{\operatorname{Im}}; \mathbf{C})$$

we define

$$\int_X f d\mu = \int_X f d\mu_{\operatorname{Re}} + i \int_X f d\mu_{\operatorname{Im}}.$$

It follows for every  $f, g \in L^1(\mu; \mathbf{C})$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbf{C}$  that

$$\int_X \alpha f d\mu = \alpha \int_X f d\mu.$$

and

$$\int_X (f + g) d\mu = \int_X f d\mu + \int_X g d\mu.$$

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## 6.2. The Fourier Transform

Below, if  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  and  $y = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbf{R}^n$ , we let

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^n x_k y_k.$$

and

$$|x| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}.$$

If  $\mu$  is a complex measure on  $\mathcal{R}_n$  (or  $\mathcal{R}_n^-$ ) the Fourier transform  $\hat{\mu}$  of  $\mu$  is defined by

$$\hat{\mu}(y) = \int_{\mathbf{R}^n} e^{-i\langle x, y \rangle} d\mu(x), \quad y \in \mathbf{R}^n.$$

Note that

$$\hat{\mu}(0) = \mu(\mathbf{R}^n).$$

The Fourier transform of a function  $f \in L^1(m_n; \mathbf{C})$  is defined by

$$\hat{f}(y) = \hat{\mu}(y) \text{ where } d\mu = f dm_n.$$

**Theorem 6.2.1.** *The canonical Gaussian measure  $\gamma_n$  in  $\mathbf{R}^n$  has the Fourier transform*

$$\hat{\gamma}_n(y) = e^{-\frac{|y|^2}{2}}.$$

PROOF. Since

$$\gamma_n = \gamma_1 \otimes \dots \otimes \gamma_1 \text{ (} n \text{ factors)}$$

it is enough to consider the special case  $n = 1$ . Set

$$g(y) = \hat{\gamma}_1(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\mathbf{R}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \cos xy dx.$$

Note that  $g(0) = 1$ . Since

$$\left| \frac{\cos x(y+h) - \cos xy}{h} \right| \leq |x|$$

the Lebesgue Dominated Convergence Theorem yields

$$g'(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\mathbf{R}} -xe^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \sin xy dx$$

(Exercise: Prove this by using Example 2.2.1). Now, by partial integration,

$$g'(y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left[ e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \sin xy \right]_{x=-\infty}^{x=\infty} - \frac{y}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{\mathbf{R}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} \cos xy dx$$

that is

$$g'(y) + yg(y) = 0$$

and we get

$$g(y) = e^{-\frac{y^2}{2}}.$$

If  $\xi = (\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n)$  is an  $\mathbf{R}^n$ -valued random variable with  $\xi_k \in L^1(P)$ ,  $k = 1, \dots, n$ , the characteristic function  $c_\xi$  of  $\xi$  is defined by

$$c_\xi(y) = E [e^{i\langle \xi, y \rangle}] = \hat{P}_\xi(-y), \quad y \in \mathbf{R}^n.$$

For example, if  $\xi \in N(0, \sigma)$ , then  $\xi = \sigma G$ , where  $G \in N(0, 1)$ , and we get

$$\begin{aligned} c_\xi(y) &= E [e^{i\langle G, \sigma y \rangle}] = \hat{\gamma}_1(-\sigma y) \\ &= e^{-\frac{\sigma^2 y^2}{2}}. \end{aligned}$$

Choosing  $y = 1$  results in

$$E [e^{i\xi}] = e^{-\frac{1}{2}E[\xi^2]} \text{ if } \xi \in N(0, \sigma).$$

Thus if  $(\xi_k)_{k=1}^n$  is a centred real-valued Gaussian process

$$\begin{aligned} E [e^{i\sum_{k=1}^n y_k \xi_k}] &= \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}E [(\sum_{k=1}^n y_k \xi_k)^2]\right) \\ &= \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{k=1}^n y_k^2 E [\xi_k^2] - \sum_{1 \leq j < k \leq n} y_j y_k E [\xi_j \xi_k]\right). \end{aligned}$$

In particular, if

$$E [\xi_j \xi_k] = 0, \quad j \neq k$$

we see that

$$E [e^{i\sum_{k=1}^n y_k \xi_k}] = \prod_{k=1}^n e^{-\frac{y_k^2}{2} E [\xi_k^2]}$$

or

$$E [e^{i\sum_{k=1}^n y_k \xi_k}] = \prod_{k=1}^n E [e^{iy_k \xi_k}].$$

Stated otherwise, the Fourier transforms of the measures  $P_{(\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n)}$  and  $\times_{k=1}^n P_{\xi_k}$  agree. Below we will show that complex measures in  $\mathbf{R}^n$  with the same Fourier transforms are equal and we get the following

**Theorem 6.2.2.** *Let  $(\xi_k)_{k=1}^n$  be a centred real-valued Gaussian process with uncorrelated components, that is*

$$E [\xi_j \xi_k] = 0, \quad j \neq k.$$

Then the random variables  $\xi_1, \dots, \xi_n$  are independent.

### 6.3 Fourier Inversion

**Theorem 6.3.1.** Suppose  $f \in L^1(m_n)$ . If  $\hat{f} \in L^1(m_n)$  and  $f$  is bounded and continuous

$$f(x) = \int_{\mathbf{R}^d} e^{i\langle y, x \rangle} \hat{f}(y) \frac{dy}{(2\pi)^n}, \quad x \in \mathbf{R}^n.$$

PROOF. Choose  $\varepsilon > 0$ . We have

$$\int_{\mathbf{R}^n} e^{i\langle y, x \rangle} e^{-\frac{\varepsilon^2}{2}|y|^2} \hat{f}(y) \frac{dy}{(2\pi)^n} = \int_{\mathbf{R}^n} f(u) \left\{ \int_{\mathbf{R}^n} e^{i\langle y, x-u \rangle} e^{-\frac{\varepsilon^2}{2}|y|^2} \frac{dy}{(2\pi)^n} \right\} du$$

where the right side equals

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{\mathbf{R}^n} f(u) \left\{ \int_{\mathbf{R}^n} e^{i\langle v, \frac{x-u}{\varepsilon} \rangle} e^{-\frac{1}{2}|v|^2} \frac{dv}{\sqrt{2\pi}^n} \right\} \frac{du}{\sqrt{2\pi}^n \varepsilon^n} &= \int_{\mathbf{R}^n} f(u) e^{-\frac{1}{2\varepsilon^2}|u-x|^2} \frac{du}{\sqrt{2\pi}^n \varepsilon^n} \\ &= \int_{\mathbf{R}^n} f(x + \varepsilon z) e^{-\frac{1}{2}|z|^2} \frac{dz}{\sqrt{2\pi}^n}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\int_{\mathbf{R}^n} e^{i\langle y, x \rangle} e^{-\frac{\varepsilon^2}{2}|y|^2} \hat{f}(y) \frac{dy}{(2\pi)^n} = \int_{\mathbf{R}^n} f(x + \varepsilon z) e^{-\frac{1}{2}|z|^2} \frac{dz}{\sqrt{2\pi}^n}.$$

By letting  $\varepsilon \rightarrow 0$  and using the Lebesgue Dominated Convergence Theorem, Theorem 6.3.1 follows at once.

Recall that  $C_c^\infty(\mathbf{R}^n)$  denotes the class of all functions  $f : \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$  with compact support which are infinitely many times differentiable. If  $f \in C_c^\infty(\mathbf{R}^n)$  then  $\hat{f} \in L^1(m_n)$ . To see this, suppose  $y_k \neq 0$  and use partial integration to obtain

$$\hat{f}(y) = \int_{\mathbf{R}^d} e^{-i\langle x, y \rangle} f(x) dx = \frac{1}{iy_k} \int_{\mathbf{R}^d} e^{-i\langle x, y \rangle} f'_{x_k}(x) dx$$

and

$$\hat{f}(y) = \frac{1}{(iy_k)^l} \int_{\mathbf{R}^d} e^{-i\langle x, y \rangle} f_{x_k}^{(l)}(x) dx, \quad l \in \mathbf{N}.$$

Thus

$$|y_k|^l |\hat{f}(y)| \leq \int_{\mathbf{R}^n} |f_{x_k}^{(l)}(x)| dx, l \in \mathbf{N}$$

and we conclude that

$$\sup_{y \in \mathbf{R}^n} (1 + |y|)^{n+1} |\hat{f}(y)| < \infty.$$

and, hence,  $\hat{f} \in L^1(m_n)$ .

**Corollary 6.3.1.** *If  $f \in C_c^\infty(\mathbf{R}^n)$ , then  $\hat{f} \in L^1(m_n)$  and*

$$f(x) = \int_{\mathbf{R}^n} e^{i\langle y, x \rangle} \hat{f}(y) \frac{dy}{(2\pi)^n}, x \in \mathbf{R}^n.$$

**Corollary 6.3.2** *If  $\mu$  is a complex Borel measure in  $\mathbf{R}^n$  and  $\hat{\mu} = 0$ , then  $\mu = 0$ .*

PROOF. Choose  $f \in C_c^\infty(\mathbf{R}^n)$ . We multiply the equation  $\hat{\mu}(-y) = 0$  by  $\frac{\hat{f}(y)}{(2\pi)^n}$  and integrate over  $\mathbf{R}^n$  with respect to Lebesgue measure to obtain

$$\int_{\mathbf{R}^n} f(x) d\mu(x) = 0.$$

Since  $f \in C_c^\infty(\mathbf{R}^n)$  is arbitrary it follows that  $\mu = 0$ . The theorem is proved.

#### 6.4. Non-Differentiability of Brownian Paths

Let  $ND$  denote the set of all real-valued continuous function defined on the unit interval which are not differentiable at any point. It is well known that  $ND$  is non-empty. In fact, if  $\nu$  is Wiener measure on  $C[0, 1]$ ,  $x \in ND$  a.e.  $[\nu]$ . The purpose of this section is to prove this important property of Brownian motion.

Let  $W = (W(t))_{0 \leq t \leq 1}$  be a real-valued Brownian motion in the time interval  $[0, 1]$  such that every path  $t \rightarrow W(t)$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 1$  is continuous. Recall that

$$E[W(t)] = 0$$

and

$$E[W(s)W(t)] = \min(s, t).$$

If

$$0 \leq t_0 \leq \dots \leq t_n \leq 1$$

and  $1 \leq j < k \leq n$

$$\begin{aligned} & E[(W(t_k) - W(t_{k-1}))(W(t_j) - W(t_{j-1}))] \\ = & E[(W(t_k)W(t_j)) - E[W(t_k)W(t_{j-1})] - E[W(t_{k-1})W(t_j)] + E[W(t_{k-1})W(t_{j-1})]] \\ = & t_j - t_{j-1} - t_j + t_{j-1} = 0. \end{aligned}$$

From the previous section we now infer that the random variables

$$W(t_1) - W(t_0), \dots, W(t_n) - W(t_{n-1})$$

are independent.

**Theorem 7.** *The function  $t \rightarrow W(t)$ ,  $0 \leq t \leq 1$  is not differentiable at any point  $t \in [0, 1]$  a.s.  $[P]$ .*

PROOF. Without loss of generality we assume the underlying probability space is complete. Let  $c, \varepsilon > 0$  and denote by  $B(c, \varepsilon)$  the set of all  $\omega \in \Omega$  such that

$$|W(t) - W(s)| < c |t - s| \text{ if } t \in [s - \varepsilon, s + \varepsilon] \cap [0, 1]$$

for some  $s \in [0, 1]$ . It is enough to prove that the set

$$\bigcup_{j=1}^{\infty} \bigcup_{k=1}^{\infty} B(j, \frac{1}{k}).$$

is of probability zero. From now on let  $c, \varepsilon > 0$  be fixed. It is enough to prove  $P[B(c, \varepsilon)] = 0$ .

Set

$$X_{n,k} = \max_{k \leq j < k+3} \left| W\left(\frac{j+1}{n}\right) - W\left(\frac{j}{n}\right) \right|$$

for each integer  $n > 3$  and  $k \in \{0, \dots, n-3\}$ .

Let  $n > 3$  be so large that

$$\frac{3}{n} \leq \varepsilon.$$

We claim that

$$B(c, \varepsilon) \subseteq \left[ \min_{0 \leq k \leq n-3} X_{n,k} \leq \frac{6c}{n} \right].$$

If  $\omega \in B(c, \varepsilon)$  there exists an  $s \in [0, 1]$  such that

$$|W(t) - W(s)| \leq c |t - s| \text{ if } t \in [s - \varepsilon, s + \varepsilon] \cap [0, 1].$$

Now choose  $k \in \{0, \dots, n-3\}$  such that

$$s \in \left[ \frac{k}{n}, \frac{k}{n} + \frac{3}{n} \right].$$

If  $k \leq j < k+3$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \left| W\left(\frac{j+1}{n}\right) - W\left(\frac{j}{n}\right) \right| &\leq \left| W\left(\frac{j+1}{n}\right) - W(s) \right| + \left| W(s) - W\left(\frac{j}{n}\right) \right| \\ &\leq \frac{6c}{n} \end{aligned}$$

and, hence,  $X_{n,k} \leq \frac{6c}{n}$ . Now

$$B(c, \varepsilon) \subseteq \left[ \min_{0 \leq k \leq n-3} X_{n,k} \leq \frac{6c}{n} \right]$$

and it is enough to prove that

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P \left[ \min_{0 \leq k \leq n-3} X_{n,k} \leq \frac{6c}{n} \right] = 0.$$

But

$$P \left[ \min_{0 \leq k \leq n-3} X_{n,k} \leq \frac{6c}{n} \right] \leq \sum_{k=0}^{n-3} P \left[ X_{n,k} \leq \frac{6c}{n} \right]$$



$$\begin{aligned}
&= (n-2)P\left[X_{n,0} \leq \frac{6c}{n}\right] \leq nP\left[X_{n,0} \leq \frac{6c}{n}\right] \\
&= n\left(P\left[\left|W\left(\frac{1}{n}\right)\right| \leq \frac{6c}{n}\right]\right)^3 = n\left(P\left[\left|W(1)\right| \leq \frac{6c}{\sqrt{n}}\right]\right)^3 \\
&\leq n\left(\frac{12c}{\sqrt{2\pi n}}\right)^3.
\end{aligned}$$

where the right side converges to zero as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ . The theorem is proved.

Recall that a function of bounded variation possesses a derivative a.e. with respect to Lebesgue measure. Therefore, with probability one, a Brownian path is not of bounded variation. In view of this an integral of the type

$$\int_0^1 f(t)dW(t)$$

cannot be interpreted as an ordinary Stieltjes integral. Nevertheless, such an integral can be defined by completely different means and is basic in, for example, financial mathematics.

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