## Gaussian Processes

## 1. Basic Notions

Let $T$ be a set, and $X:=\left\{X_{t}\right\}_{t \in T}$ a stochastic process, defined on a suitable probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, that is indexed by $T$.

Definition 1.1. We say that $X$ is a Gaussian process indexed by $T$ when $\left(X_{t_{1}}, \ldots, X_{t_{n}}\right)$ is a Gaussian random vector for every $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n} \in T$ and $n \geqslant 1$. The distribution of $X$-that is the Bore measure $\mathbb{R}^{T} \ni A \mapsto \mu(A):=$ $\mathbb{P}\{X \in A\}$-is called a Gaussian measure.
Lemma 1.2. Suppose $X:=\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ is a Gaussian random vector. If we set $T:=\{1, \ldots, n\}$, then the stochastic process $\left\{X_{t}\right\}_{t \in T}$ is a Gaussian process. Conversely, if $\left\{X_{t}\right\}_{t \in T}$ is a Gaussian process, then $\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ is a Gaussian random vector.

The proof is left as exercise.
Definition 1.3. If $X$ is a Gaussian process indexed by $T$, then we define $\mu(t):=\mathbb{E}\left(X_{t}\right)[t \in T]$ and $C(s, t):=\operatorname{Cov}\left(X_{s}, X_{t}\right)$ for all $s, t \in T$. The functions $\mu$ and $C$ are called the mean and covariance functions of $X$ respectively.

Lemma 1.4. A symmetric $n \times n$ real matrix $C$ is the covariance of some Gaussian random vector if and only if $C$ is positive semidefinite. The latter property means that

$$
z^{\prime} C z=\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} z_{i} z_{j} C_{i, j} \geqslant 0 \quad \text { for all } z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n} \in \mathbb{R}
$$

Proof. Consult any textbook on multivariate normal distributions.

Corollary 1.5. A function $C: T \times T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is the covariance function of some $T$-indexed Gaussian process if and only if $\left(C\left(t_{i}, t_{j}\right)\right)_{1 \leqslant i, j \leqslant n}$ is a positive semidefinite matrix for all $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n} \in T$.

Definition 1.6. From now on we will say that a function $C: T \times T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is positive semidefinite when $\left(C\left(t_{i}, t_{j}\right)\right)_{1 \leqslant i, j \leqslant n}$ is a positive semidefinite matrix for all $t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n} \in T$.

Note that we understand the structure of every Gaussian process by looking only at finitely-many Gaussian random variables at a time. As a result, the theory of Gaussian processes does not depend a priori on the topological structure of the indexing set $T$. In this sense, the theory of Gaussian processes is quite different from Markov processes, martingales, etc. In those theories, it is essential that $T$ is a totally-ordered set [such as $\mathbb{R}$ or $\left.\mathbb{R}_{+}\right]$, for example. Here, $T$ can in principle be any set. Still, it can happen that $X$ has particularly-nice structure when $T$ is Euclidean, or more generally, has some nice group structure. We anticipate this possibility and introduce the following.

Definition 1.7. Suppose $T$ is an abelian group and $\left\{X_{t}\right\}_{t \in T}$ a Gaussian process indexed by $T$. Then we use the additive notation for $T$, and say that $X$ is stationary when $\left(X_{t_{1}}, \ldots, X_{t_{k}}\right)$ and $\left(X_{s+t_{1}}, \ldots, X_{s+t_{k}}\right)$ have the same law for all $s, t_{1}, \ldots, t_{k} \in T$.

Lemma 1.8. Let $T$ be an abelian group and let $X:=\left\{X_{t}\right\}_{t \in T}$ denote a T-indexed Gaussian process with mean function $m$ and covariance function C. Then $X$ is stationary if and only if $m$ and $C$ are "translation invariant." That means that

$$
m(s+t)=m(t) \quad \text { and } C\left(t_{1}, t_{2}\right)=C\left(s+t_{1}, s+t_{2}\right) \text { for all } s, t_{1}, t_{2} \in \mathbb{R}^{M}
$$

The proof is left as exercise.

## 2. Examples of Gaussian Processes

§1. Brownian Motion. By Brownian motion X, we mean a Gaussian process, indexed by $\mathbb{R}_{+}:=[0, \infty)$, with mean function 0 and covariance function

$$
C(s, t):=\min (s, t) \quad[s, t \geqslant 0] .
$$

In order to justify this definition, it suffices to prove that $C$ is a positive semidefinite function on $T \times T=\mathbb{R}_{+}^{2}$. Suppose $z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n} \in \mathbb{R}$ and
$t_{1}, \ldots, t_{n} \geqslant 0$. Then,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} z_{i} \overline{z_{j}} C\left(t_{i}, t_{j}\right) & =\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} z_{i} \overline{z_{j}} \int_{0}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{\left[0, t_{i}\right]}(s) \mathbb{1}_{\left[0, t_{j}\right]}(s) \mathrm{d} s \\
& =\int_{0}^{\infty}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} z_{i} \mathbb{1}_{\left[0, t_{i}\right]}(s)\right) \overline{\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} z_{j} \mathbb{1}_{\left[0, t_{j}\right]}(s)\right)} \mathrm{d} s \\
& =\int_{0}^{\infty}\left|\sum_{i=1}^{n} z_{i} \mathbb{1}_{\left[0, t_{i}\right]}(s) \mathrm{d} s\right|^{2} \geqslant 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore, Brownian motion exists.
§2. The Brownian Bridge. A Brownian bridge is a mean-zero Gaussian process, indexed by $[0,1]$, and with covariance

$$
\begin{equation*}
C(s, t)=\min (s, t)-s t \quad[0 \leqslant s, t \leqslant 1] . \tag{6.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Cov: BB
The most elegant proof of existence, that I am aware of, is due to J. L. Doob: Let $B$ be a Brownian motion, and define

$$
X_{t}:=B_{t}-t B_{1} \quad[0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1] .
$$

Then, $X:=\left\{X_{t}\right\}_{0 \leqslant t \leqslant 1}$ is a mean-zero Gaussian process that is indexed by $[0,1]$ and has the covariance function of (6.1).
§3. The Ornstein-Uhlenbeck Process. An Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process is a stationary Gaussian process $X$ indexed by $\mathbb{R}_{+}$with mean function 0 and covariance

$$
C(s, t)=\mathrm{e}^{-|t-s|} \quad[s, t \geqslant 0] .
$$

It remains to prove that $C$ is a positive semidefinite function. The proof rests on the following well-known formula: ${ }^{1}$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathrm{e}^{-|x|}=\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\mathrm{e}^{i x a}}{1+a^{2}} \mathrm{~d} a \quad[x \in \mathbb{R}] . \tag{6.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

FT:Cauchy
Thanks to (6.2),

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} z_{j} \overline{z_{k}} C\left(t_{j}, t_{k}\right) & =\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\mathrm{d} a}{1+a^{2}} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} z_{j} \overline{\bar{k}_{k}} \mathrm{e}^{i a\left(t_{j}-t_{k}\right)} \\
& =\frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\mathrm{d} a}{1+a^{2}}\left|\sum_{j=1}^{n} z_{j} \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i} a t_{j}}\right|^{2} \geqslant 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

[^0]§4. Brownian Sheet. An $N$-parameter Brownian sheet $X$ is a Gaussian process, indexed by $\mathbb{R}_{+}^{N}:=[0, \infty)^{N}$, whose mean function is zero and covariance function is
$$
C(\boldsymbol{s}, \boldsymbol{t})=\prod_{j=1}^{n} \min \left(s^{j}, t^{j}\right) \quad\left[\mathbf{s}:=\left(s^{1}, \ldots, s^{N}\right), \boldsymbol{t}:=\left(t^{1}, \ldots, t^{N}\right) \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{N}\right] .
$$

Clearly, a 1-parameter Brownian sheet is Brownian motion; in that case, the existence problem has been addressed. In general, we may argue as follows: For all $z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\boldsymbol{t}_{1}, \ldots, \boldsymbol{t}_{n} \in \mathbb{R}_{+}^{N}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} z_{j} z_{k} \prod_{\ell=1}^{N} \min \left(s_{j}^{\ell}, s_{k}^{\ell}\right) & =\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} z_{j} z_{k} \prod_{\ell=1}^{N} \int_{0}^{\infty} \mathbb{1}_{\left[0, s_{j}^{\ell}\right]}(r) \mathbb{1}_{\left[0, s_{k}^{\ell}\right]}(r) \mathrm{d} r \\
& =\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} z_{j} \overline{z_{k}} \int_{\mathbb{R}_{+}^{N}} \prod_{\ell=1}^{N} \mathbb{1}_{\left[0, s_{j}^{\prime}\right]}\left(r^{\ell}\right) \mathbb{1}_{\left[0, s_{k}^{\ell}\right]}\left(r^{\ell}\right) \mathrm{d} r .
\end{aligned}
$$

It is harmless to take the complex conjugate of $z_{k}$ since $z_{k}$ is real valued. But now $z_{k}^{1 / N}={\overline{z_{k}}}^{1 / N}$ is in general complex-valued, and we may write

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} z_{j} z_{k} \prod_{\ell=1}^{N} \min \left(s_{j}^{\ell}, s_{k}^{\ell}\right) & =\int_{\mathbb{R}_{+}^{N}} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \prod_{\ell=1}^{N}\left(z_{j} \overline{Z_{k}}\right)^{1 / N} \mathbb{1}_{\left[0, s_{j}^{\ell}\right]}\left(r^{\ell}\right) \mathbb{1}_{\left[0, s_{k}^{\ell}\right]}\left(r^{\ell}\right) \mathrm{d} r \\
& =\int_{\mathbb{R}_{+}^{N}}\left|\sum_{j=1}^{n} \prod_{\ell=1}^{N} z_{j}^{1 / N} \mathbb{1}_{\left[0, s_{j}^{\ell}\right]}\left(r^{\ell}\right)\right|^{2} \mathrm{~d} r \geqslant 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

This proves that the Brownian sheet exists.
§5. Fractional Brownian Motion. A fractional Brownian motion [or fBm] is a Gaussian process indexed by $\mathbb{R}_{+}$that has mean function $0, X_{0}:=0$, and covariance function given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{E}\left(\left|X_{t}-X_{s}\right|^{2}\right)=|t-s|^{2 \alpha} \quad[s, t \geqslant 0] \tag{6.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

> Var:fBm
for some constant $\alpha>0$. The constant $\alpha$ is called the Hurst parameter of $X$.

Note that (6.3) indeed yields the covariance function of $X:$ Since $\operatorname{Var}\left(X_{t}\right)=$ $\mathbb{E}\left(\left|X_{t}-X_{0}\right|^{2}\right)=t^{2 \alpha}$,

$$
|t-s|^{2 \alpha}=\mathbb{E}\left(X_{t}^{2}+X_{s}^{2}-2 X_{s} X_{t}\right)=t^{2 \alpha}+s^{2 \alpha}-2 \operatorname{Cov}\left(X_{s}, X_{t}\right)
$$

Therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Cov}\left(X_{s}, X_{t}\right)=\frac{t^{2 \alpha}+s^{2 \alpha}-|t-s|^{2 \alpha}}{2} \quad[s, t \geqslant 0] . \tag{6.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Direct inspection shows that (6.4) does not define a positive-definite function $C$ when $\alpha \leqslant 0$. This is why we have limited ourselves to the case that $\alpha>0$.

Note that an fBm with Hurst index $\alpha=1 / 2$ is a Brownian motion. The reason is the following elementary identity:

$$
\frac{t+s-|t-s|}{2}=\min (s, t) \quad[s, t \geqslant 0],
$$

which can be verified by considering the cases $s \geqslant t$ and $t \geqslant s$ separately.
The more interesting "if" portion of the following is due to Mandelbrot and Van Ness (1968).

Theorem 2.1. An fBm with Hurst index $\alpha$ exists if and only if $\alpha \leqslant 1$.
Fractional Brownian motion with Hurst index $\alpha=1$ is a trivial process in the following sense: Let $N$ be a standard normal random variable, and define $X_{t}:=t N$. Then, $X:=\left\{X_{t}\right\}_{t \geqslant 0}$ is fBm with index $\alpha=1$. For this reason, many experts do not refer to the $\alpha=1$ case as fractional Brownian motion, and reserve the teminology fBm for the case that $\alpha \in(0,1)$. Also, fractional Brownian motion with Hurst index $\alpha=1 / 2$ is Brownian motion.

Proof. First we examine the case that $\alpha<1$. Our goal is to prove that

$$
C(s, t):=\frac{t^{2 \alpha}+s^{2 \alpha}-|t-s|^{2 \alpha}}{2}
$$

is a covariance function.
Consider the function

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Phi(t, r):=(t-r)_{+}^{\alpha-(1 / 2)}-(-r)_{+}^{\alpha-(1 / 2)}, \tag{6.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

defined for all $t \geqslant 0$ and $r \in \mathbb{R}$, where $a_{+}:=\max (a, 0)$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$. Direct inspection yields that $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}[\Phi(t, r)]^{2} \mathrm{~d} r<\infty$, since $\alpha<1$, and in fact a second computation on the side yields

$$
\begin{equation*}
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Phi(t, r) \Phi(s, r) \mathrm{d} r=\kappa C(s, t) \quad \text { for all } s, t \geqslant 0 \tag{6.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\kappa$ is a positive and finite constant that depends only on $\alpha$. In particular,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=2}^{n} z_{i} z_{j} C\left(t_{i}, t_{j}\right) & =\frac{1}{\kappa} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=2}^{n} z_{i} z_{j} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Phi\left(t_{i}, r\right) \Phi\left(t_{j}, r\right) \mathrm{d} r \\
& =\frac{1}{\kappa} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty}\left[\sum_{i=1}^{n} z_{i} \Phi\left(t_{i}, r\right)\right]^{2} \mathrm{~d} r \geqslant 0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

This proves the Theorem in the case that $\alpha<1$. We have seen already that theorem holds [easily] when $\alpha=1$. Therefore, we now consider $\alpha>1$, and strive to prove that fBm does not exist in this case.

The proof hinges on a technical fact which we state without proof; this and much more will be proved later on in Theorem 2.3 on page 97. Recall that $\bar{Y}$ is a modification of $Y$ when $\mathbb{P}\left\{Y_{t}=\bar{Y}_{t}\right\}=1$ for all $t$.

## pr:KCT:Gauss

Proposition 2.2. Let $Y:=\left\{Y_{t}\right\}_{t \in[0, \tau]}$ denote $a$ Gaussian process indexed by $T:=[0, \tau]$, where $\tau>0$ is a fixed constant. Suppose there exists a finite constant $C$ and a constant $\eta>0$ such that

$$
\mathbb{E}\left(\left|Y_{t}-Y_{s}\right|^{2}\right) \leqslant C|t-s|^{\eta} \quad \text { for all } 0 \leqslant s, t \leqslant \tau
$$

Then $Y$ has a Hölder-continuous modification $\bar{Y}$. Moreover, for every non-random constant $\rho \in(0, \eta / 2)$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sup _{0 \leqslant s \neq t \leqslant \tau} \frac{\left|\bar{Y}_{t}-\bar{Y}_{s}\right|}{|t-s|^{\rho}}<\infty \quad \text { almost surely. } \tag{6.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

We use Proposition 2.2 in the following way: Suppose to the contrary that there existed an $\mathrm{fBm} X$ with Hurst parameter $\alpha>1$. By Proposition 2.2, $X$ would have a continuous modification $\bar{X}$ such that for all $\rho \in(0, \alpha)$ and $\tau>0$,

$$
V(\tau):=\sup _{0 \leqslant s \neq t \leqslant \tau} \frac{\left|\bar{X}_{t}-\bar{X}_{s}\right|}{|t-s|^{\rho}}<\infty \quad \text { almost surely. }
$$

Choose $\rho \in(1, \alpha)$ and observe that

$$
\left|\bar{X}_{t}-\bar{X}_{s}\right| \leqslant V(\tau)|t-s|^{\rho} \quad \text { for all } s, t \in[0, \tau],
$$

almost surely for all $\tau>0$. Divide both side by $|t-s|$ and let $s \rightarrow t$ in order to see that $\bar{X}$ is differentiable and its derivative is zero everywhere, a.s. Since $\bar{X}_{0}=X_{0}=0$ a.s., it then follows that $\bar{X}_{t}=0$ a.s. for all $t \geqslant 0$. In particular, $\mathbb{P}\left\{X_{t}=0\right\}=1$ for all $t \geqslant 0$. Since the variance of $X_{t}$ is supposed to be $t^{2 \alpha}$, we are led to a contradiction.
§6. White Noise and Wiener Integrals. Let $\mathbb{H}$ be a complex Hilbert space with norm $\|\ldots\|_{\mathrm{H}}$ and corresponding inner product $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle_{\mathrm{H}}$.

Definition 2.3. A white noise indexed by $T=\mathbb{H}$ is a Gaussian process $\{\xi(h)\}_{h \in H}$, indexed by $\mathbb{H}$, with mean function 0 and covariance function,

$$
C\left(h_{1}, h_{2}\right)=\left\langle h_{1}, h_{2}\right\rangle_{\boldsymbol{H}} \quad\left[h_{1}, h_{2} \in \mathbb{H}\right] .
$$

The proof of existence is fairly elementary: For all $z_{1}, \ldots, z_{n} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $h_{1}, \ldots, h_{n} \in \mathbb{H}$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} z_{j} z_{k} C\left(h_{j}, h_{k}\right) & =\sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{k=1}^{n} z_{j} z_{k}\left\langle h_{j}, h_{k}\right\rangle_{\mathrm{H}} \\
& =\left\langle\sum_{j=1}^{n} z_{j} h_{j}, \sum_{k=1}^{n} z_{k} h_{k}\right\rangle_{\mathrm{H}}=\left\|\sum_{j=1}^{n} z_{j} h_{j}\right\|_{\mathrm{H}}^{2},
\end{aligned}
$$

which is clearly $\geqslant 0$.
The following simple result is one of the centerpieces of this section, and plays an important role in the sequel.

Lemma 2.4. For every $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $h_{1}, \cdots, h_{m} \in \mathbb{H}$,

$$
\xi\left(\sum_{j=1}^{m} a_{j} h_{j}\right)=\sum_{j=1}^{m} a_{j} \xi\left(h_{j}\right) \quad \text { a.s. }
$$

Proof. We plan to prove that: (a) For all $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and $h \in \mathbb{H}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\xi(a h)=a \xi(h) \quad \text { a.s.; } \tag{6.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

WN:Lin1
and (b) For all $h_{1}, h_{2} \in \mathbb{H}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\xi\left(h_{1}+h_{2}\right)=\xi\left(h_{1}\right)+\xi\left(h_{2}\right) \quad \text { a.s. } \tag{6.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Together, (6.8) and (6.9) imply the lemma with $m=2$; the general case follows from this case, after we apply induction. Let us prove (6.8) then:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}\left(|\xi(a h)-a \xi(h)|^{2}\right) & =\mathbb{E}\left(|\xi(a h)|^{2}\right)+a^{2} \mathbb{E}\left(|\xi(h)|^{2}\right)-2 a \operatorname{Cov}(\xi(a h), \xi(h)) \\
& =\|a h\|_{\mathrm{H}}^{2}+a^{2}\|h\|_{\mathrm{H}}^{2}-2 a\langle a h, h\rangle_{\mathrm{H}}=0 .
\end{aligned}
$$

This proves (6.8). As regards (6.9), we note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathbb{E}\left(\left|\xi\left(h_{1}+h_{2}\right)-\xi\left(h_{1}\right)-\xi\left(h_{2}\right)\right|^{2}\right) \\
& =\mathbb{E}\left(\left|\xi\left(h_{1}+h_{2}\right)\right|^{2}\right)+\mathbb{E}\left(\left|\xi\left(h_{1}\right)+\xi\left(h_{2}\right)\right|^{2}\right)-2 \operatorname{Cov}\left(\xi\left(h_{1}+h_{2}\right), \xi\left(h_{1}\right)+\xi\left(h_{2}\right)\right) \\
& =\left\|h_{1}+h_{2}\right\|_{\mathrm{H}}^{2}+\left\|h_{1}\right\|_{\mathrm{H}}^{2}+\left\|h_{2}\right\|_{\mathrm{H}}^{2}+2\left\langle h_{1}, h_{2}\right\rangle_{\mathrm{H}} \\
& \quad-2\left[\left\langle h_{1}+h_{2}, h_{1}\right\rangle_{\mathrm{H}}+\left\langle h_{1}+h_{2}, h_{2}\right\rangle_{\mathrm{H}}\right] \\
& =\left\|h_{1}+h_{2}\right\|_{\mathrm{H}}^{2}-2\left\langle h_{1}, h_{2}\right\rangle_{\mathrm{H}}-\left\|h_{1}\right\|_{\mathrm{H}}^{2}-\left\|h_{2}\right\|_{\mathrm{H}}^{2},
\end{aligned}
$$

which is zero, thanks to the Pythagorean rule on $\mathbb{H}$. This proves (6.9) an hence the lemma.

Lemma 2.4 can be rewritten in the following essentially-equivalent form.
th:Wiener
Theorem 2.5 (Wiener). The map $\xi: \mathbb{H} \rightarrow L^{2}(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P}):=L^{2}(\mathbb{P})$ is a linear Hilbert-space isometry.

Because of its isometry property, white noise is also referred to as the iso-normal or iso-gaussian process.

Very often, the Hilbert space $\mathbb{H}$ is an $L^{2}$-space itself; say, $\mathbb{H}=L^{2}(\mu):=$ $L^{2}(A, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$. Then, we can think of $\xi(h)$ as an $L^{2}(\mathbb{P})$-valued integral of $h \in \mathbb{H}$. In such a case, we sometimes adopt an integral notation; namely,

$$
\int h(x) \xi(\mathrm{d} x):=\int h \mathrm{~d} \xi:=\xi(h) .
$$

This operation has all but one of the properties of integrals: The triangle inequality does not hold. ${ }^{2}$
Definition 2.6. The random variable $\int h \mathrm{~d} \xi$ is called the Wiener integral of $h \in \mathbb{H}=L^{2}(\mu)$. One also defines definite Wiener integrals as follows: For all $h \in L^{2}(\mu)$ and $E \in \mathcal{A}$,

$$
\int_{E} h(x) \xi(\mathrm{d} x):=\int_{E} h \mathrm{~d} \xi:=\xi\left(h \mathbb{1}_{E}\right) .
$$

This is a rational definition since $\left\|h \mathbb{1}_{E}\right\|_{L^{2}(\mu)} \leqslant\|h\|_{L^{2}(\mu)}<\infty$.
An important property of white noise is that, since it is a Hilbert-space isometry, it maps orthogonal elements of $\mathbb{H}$ to orthogonal elements of $L^{2}(\mathbb{P})$. In other words:

$$
\mathbb{E}\left[\xi\left(h_{1}\right) \xi\left(h_{2}\right)\right]=0 \quad \text { if and only if } \quad\left(h_{1}, h_{2}\right)_{\mathbb{H}}=0 .
$$

Because ( $\xi\left(h_{1}\right), \xi\left(h_{2}\right)$ ) is a Gaussian random vector of uncorrelated coordindates, we find that

$$
\xi\left(h_{1}\right) \text { and } \xi\left(h_{2}\right) \text { are independent if and only if }\left(h_{1}, h_{2}\right)_{\mathrm{H}}=0 .
$$

The following is a ready consequence of this rationale.
Proposition 2.7. If $\mathbb{H}_{1}, \mathbb{H}_{2}, \ldots$ are orthogonal subspaces of $\mathbb{H}$, then

$$
\{\xi(h)\}_{h \in \mathbb{H}_{i}} \quad i=1,2, \ldots
$$

are independent Gaussian processes.
The following highlights the strength of the preceding result.
pr:KL Proposition 2.8. Let $\left\{\psi_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$ be a complete orthonormal basis for $\mathbb{H}$. Then, we can find a sequence of i.i.d. standard normal random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots$ such that

$$
\xi(h)=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} c_{j} X_{j},
$$

[^1]where $c_{j}:=\left\langle h, \psi_{j}\right\rangle_{\mathrm{H}}$ and the sum converges in $L^{2}(\mathbb{P})$.
Remark 2.9. Proposition 2.8 yields a 1-1 identification of the white noise $\xi$ with the i.i.d. sequence $\left\{X_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{\infty}$. Therefore, in the setting of Proposition 2.8, some people refer to a sequence of i.i.d. standard normal random variables as white noise.

Proof. Thanks to Proposition 2.7, $X_{j}:=\xi\left(\psi_{j}\right)$ defines an i.i.d. sequence of standard normal random variables. According to the Riesz-Fischer theorem

$$
h=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} c_{j} \psi_{j} \quad \text { for every } h \in \mathbb{H},
$$

where the sum converges in $\mathbb{H}$. Therefore, Theorem 2.5 ensures that

$$
\xi(h)=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} c_{j} \xi\left(\psi_{j}\right)=\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} c_{j} X_{j} \quad \text { for every } h \in \mathbb{H},
$$

where the sum converges in $L^{2}(\mathbb{P})$. We have implicitly used the following ready consequence of Wiener's isometry [Theorem 2.5]: If $h_{n} \rightarrow h$ in $\mathbb{H}$ then $\xi\left(h_{n}\right) \rightarrow \xi(h)$ in $L^{2}(\mathbb{P})$. It might help to recall that the reason is simply that $\left\|\xi\left(h_{n}-h\right)\right\|_{L^{2}(\mathbb{P})}=\left\|h_{n}-h\right\|_{H}$.

Next we work out a few examples of Hilbert spaces that arise in the literature.

Example 2.10 (Zero-Dimensional Hilbert Spaces). We can identify $\mathbb{H}=\{0\}$ with a Hilbert space in a canonical way. In this case, white noise indexed by $\mathbb{H}$ is just a normal random variable with mean zero and variance 0 [i.e., $\xi(0):=0]$.

Example 2.11 (Finite-Dimensional Hilbert Spaces). Choose and fix an integer $n \geqslant 1$. The space $\mathbb{H}:=\mathbb{R}^{n}$ is a real Hilbert space with inner product $(a, b)_{\mathrm{H}}:=\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{j} b_{j}$ and norm $\|a\|_{\mathrm{H}}^{2}:=\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{j}^{2}$. Let $\xi$ denote white noise indexed by $\mathbb{H}=\mathbb{R}^{n}$ and define a random vector $X:=\left(X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}\right)$ via

$$
X_{j}:=\xi\left(\mathbf{e}_{j}\right) \quad j=1,2, \ldots, n,
$$

where $\mathbf{e}_{1}:=(1,0, \ldots, 0)^{\prime}, \ldots, \mathbf{e}_{n}:=(0, \ldots 0,1)^{\prime}$ denote the usual orthonormal basis elements of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. According to Proposition 2.8 and its proof, $X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n}$ are i.i.d. standard normal random variables and for every $n-$ vector $a:=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\xi(a)=\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{j} X_{j}=a^{\prime} X . \tag{6.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Now consider $m$ points $a_{1}, \ldots, a_{m} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ and write the $j$ th coordinate of $a_{i}$ and $a_{i}^{j}$. Define

$$
Y:=\left(\begin{array}{c}
\xi\left(a_{1}\right) \\
\vdots \\
\xi\left(a_{m}\right)
\end{array}\right) .
$$

Then $Y$ is a mean-zero Gaussian random vector with covariance matrix $A^{\prime} A$ where $A$ is an $m \times m$ matrix whose $j$ th column is $a_{j}$. Then we can apply (6.10) to see that $Y=A^{\prime} X$. In other words, every multivariate normal random vector with mean vector 0 and covariance matrix $A^{\prime} A$ can be written as a linear combination $A^{\prime} X$ of i.i.d. standard normals.

Example 2.12 (Lebesgue Spaces). Consider the usual Lebesgue space $\mathbb{H}:=$ $L^{2}\left(\mathbb{R}_{+}\right)$. Since $\mathbb{1}_{[0, t]} \in L^{2}\left(\mathbb{R}_{+}\right)$for all $t \geqslant 0$, we can define a mean-zero Gaussian process $B:=\left\{B_{t}\right\}_{t \geqslant 0}$ by setting

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{t}:=\xi\left(\mathbb{1}_{[0, t]}\right)=\int_{0}^{t} \mathrm{~d} \xi . \tag{6.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, $B$ is a Brownian motion because

$$
\mathbb{E}\left[B_{s} B_{t}\right]=\left\langle\mathbb{1}_{[0, t]}, \mathbb{1}_{[0, s]}\right\rangle_{L^{2}\left(\mathbb{R}_{+}\right)}=\min (s, t) .
$$

Since $\mathbb{E}\left(\left|B_{t}-B_{s}\right|^{2}\right)=|t-s|$, Kolmgorov's continuity theorem [Proposition 2.2 ] shows that $B$ has a continuous modification $\bar{B}$. Of course, $\bar{B}$ is also a Brownian motion, but it has continuous trajectories [Wiener's Brownian motion]. Some authors intepret (6.11) somewhat loosely and present white noise as the derivative of Brownian motion. This viewpoint can be made rigorous in the following way: White noise is the weak derivative of Br ownian motion, in the sense of distribution theory. We will not delve into this matter further though.

I will close this example by mentioning, to those that know Wiener and Itô's theories of stochastic integration against Brownian motion, that the Wiener integral $\int_{0}^{\infty} \varphi_{s} \mathrm{~d} B_{s}$ of a non-random function $\varphi \in L^{2}\left(\mathbb{R}_{+}\right)$is the same object as $\int_{0}^{\infty} \varphi \mathrm{d} \xi=\xi(\varphi)$ here. Indeed, it suffices to prove this assertion when $\varphi_{s}=\mathbb{1}_{[0, t]}(s)$ for some fixed number $t>0$. But then the assertion is just our definition (6.11) of the Brownian motion $B$.

Example 2.13 (Lebesgue Spaces, Continued). Here is a fairly general receipe for constructing mean-zero Gaussian processes from white noise: Suppose we could write

$$
C(s, t)=\int K(s, r) K(t, r) \mu(\mathrm{d} r) \quad[s, t \in T],
$$

where $\mu$ is a locally-finite measure on some measure space $(A, \mathcal{A})$, and $K: A \times T \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a function such that $K(t, \bullet) \in L^{2}(\mu)$ for all $t \in T$. Then,
the receipe is this: Let $\xi$ be white noise on $\mathbb{H}:=L^{2}(\mu)$, and define

$$
X_{t}:=\int K(t, r) \xi(\mathrm{d} r) \quad[t \in T] .
$$

Then, $X:=\left\{X_{t}\right\}_{t \in T}$ defines a mean-zero $T$-indexed Gaussian process with covariance function $C$. Here are some examples of how we can use this idea to build mean-zero Gaussian processes from white noise.
(1) Let $A:=\mathbb{R}_{+}, \mu:=$ Lebesgue measure, and $K(t, r):=\mathbb{1}_{[0, t]}(r)$. These choices lead us to the same white-noise construction of Brownian motion as the previous example.
(2) Given a number $\alpha \in(0,1)$, let $\xi$ be a white noise on $\mathbb{H}:=L^{2}(\mathbb{R})$. Because of (6.6) and our general discussion, earlier in this example, we find that

$$
X_{t}:=\frac{1}{\kappa} \int_{\mathbb{R}}\left[(t-r)_{+}^{\alpha-(1 / 2)}-(-r)_{+}^{\alpha-(1 / 2)}\right] \xi(\mathrm{d} r) \quad[t \geqslant 0]
$$

defines an fBm with Hurst index $\alpha$.
(3) For a more interesting example, consider the covariance function of the Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process whose covariance function is, we recall,

$$
C(s, t)=\mathrm{e}^{-|t-s|} \quad[s, t \geqslant 0] .
$$

Define

$$
\mu(\mathrm{d} a):=\frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\mathrm{~d} a}{1+a^{2}} \quad[-\infty<a<\infty] .
$$

According to (6.2), and thanks to symmetry,

$$
\begin{aligned}
C(s, t) & =\int \mathrm{e}^{i(t-s) r} \mu(\mathrm{~d} r)=\int \cos (t r-s r) \mu(\mathrm{d} r) \\
& =\int \cos (t r) \cos (s r) \mu(\mathrm{d} r)+\int \sin (t r) \sin (s r) \mu(\mathrm{d} r) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Now we follow our general discussion, let $\xi$ and $\xi^{\prime}$ are two independent white noises on $L^{2}(\mu)$, and then define

$$
X_{t}:=\int \cos (t r) \xi(\mathrm{d} r)-\int \sin (t r) \xi^{\prime}(\mathrm{d} r) \quad[t \geqslant 0] .
$$

Then, $X:=\left\{X_{t}\right\}_{t \geqslant 0}$ is an Ornstein-Uhlenbeck process. ${ }^{3}$

[^2]
[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ In other words, if $Y$ has a standard Cauchy distribution on the line, then its characteristic function is $\operatorname{Eexp}(i x Y)=\exp (-|x|)$.

[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ In fact, $|\xi(h)| \geqslant 0$ a.s., whereas $\xi(|h|)$ is negative with probability $1 / 2$.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ One could just as easily put a plus sign in place of the minus sign here. The rationale for this particular way of writing is that if we study the "complex-valued white noise" $\zeta:=\xi+i \xi^{\prime}$, where $\xi^{\prime}$ is an independent copy of $\xi$, then $X_{t}=\operatorname{Re} \int \exp (i t r) \zeta(\mathrm{d} r)$. A fully-rigorous discussion requires facts about "complex-valued" Gaussian processes, which I will not develop here.

