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## Rate of Convergence for Approximate Integration of the Wiener Process

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*Presented by P. Kenderov*

We consider approximate methods for calculation of integrals of the Wiener process and find the rate of convergence.

### 1. Introduction

The goal of this work is to find the rate of convergence for a sequence of approximators  $\{A_n(x)\}$  to the integral  $A(x) = \int_0^1 x(t)dt$  based on a fixed rule (e.g. trapezoidal rule, Simpson's rule) when  $x$  is a stochastic process which is continuous only. There are methods to estimate the rate of convergence, but usually they need additional conditions on the integrand  $x$  (e.g.  $x$  to be differentiable, bounded etc.).

It is well-known that if  $x \in C^{(2)}[0, 1]$ , i.e. if  $x$  has two continuous derivatives and the sequence  $\{A_n\}$  of approximators is based on the trapezoidal rule, then  $A(x) - A_{2^n}(x) = o(1/\mu^n)$  for any  $\mu \in [1, 4)$ . Note however that the standard methods say nothing about the rate of convergence when  $x \in C[0, 1] \setminus C^{(2)}[0, 1]$ , i.e. when  $x$  is continuous but not smooth. In this paper we offer a possible method to estimate the rate of convergence by considering a probabilistic model and arguments from theory of probability. In particular, we have established that the rate of convergence of  $A(x) - A_{2^n}(x)$  to zero is  $o(1/\mu^n)$  for any  $\mu \in [1, 2)$  and for almost all  $x \in C[0, 1]$  and the sequence of approximators generated by the trapezoidal rule. As a consequence, this holds for any absolutely continuous function.

## 2. Preliminaries

In our recent paper (Kopanov (1994)) we have described methods to estimate the error of calculation when using a fixed sequence of approximators  $\{A_n\}$  of the integral  $A(x) = \int_0^1 x(t)dt$  especially in the case when the integrand  $x$  is a standard Wiener process.

Let us note that there exist standard methods to endow any separable Banach space  $B$  with a probability measure  $\mu$  thus getting a probability space  $(X, F, \mu)$  (see e.g. Kuo(1975)). Since  $C[0, 1]$  is a separable Banach space, we can endow it with a probability measure  $\mu$ . The construction of the measure  $\mu$  can be done by different methods and it is possible to construct an infinite set of measures on  $C[0, 1]$  (or on  $B$  in the general situation). The concrete measure we have chosen in this study is the measure  $w$  generated by the standard Wiener process, and this measure is called a Wiener measure. Models involving other measures  $\mu$  often lead to similar. Let us note that the Wiener measure  $w$  is the standard probability measure on  $C[0, 1]$ .

The construction of the Wiener measure can be extended on any separable Banach space  $B$ . This approach is described e.g. in (Kuo (1975)). The Banach space  $B$  with that Gaussian probability measure  $\mu$  is called abstract Wiener space.

Generally we can describe the abstract Wiener space  $B$  as follows: Let  $H$  is a separable Hilbert space. For any  $E = \{x \in H, Px \in F\}$  where  $P$  is a projection with a finite dimension in  $H$  and  $F$  is a Borel subset of  $PH$ , we define

$$\mu(E) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} \int_F \exp(-|x|^2) dx.$$

Here  $n = \dim(PH)$  and  $dx$  is the Lebesgue measure in  $PH$ . The measure  $\mu$  is not  $\sigma$ -additive in  $H$  but  $\mu$  is  $\sigma$ -additive in some separable Banach space  $B$ ,  $H \subset B$ , and for any separable Banach space  $B$  there exists a Hilbert space  $H$ ,  $H \subset B$ , and a Gaussian measure  $\mu$  above.

The triple  $(i, H, B)$  is called abstract Wiener space.

**R e m a r k.** If  $B = C[0, 1]$ , then  $H = C'$  - the space of absolutely continuous functions in the unit interval (see Kuo (1975)).

## 3. Main results

For our further reasoning we need a suitable convergence type theorems and we shall refer to such results from the book by Shiryaev (1984):

**Theorem.** Let  $(\Omega, \mathbf{F}, P)$  be a probability space,  $\xi$  and  $\{\xi_n\}$  be random variables of the space  $L_2(P)$  and

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} E\{|\xi - \xi_n|^2\} < \infty.$$

Then  $\xi_n \rightarrow \xi$  almost surely as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

Let  $\mathbf{B}$  be an abstract Wiener space with invariant subspace  $\mathbf{H}$  and let  $L$  be a linear functional on  $\mathbf{B}$ ;  $L : \mathbf{B} \rightarrow R$ , and  $\{L_n\}$  be a sequence of approximators for  $L$ . Then  $D_n = L - L_n$  is the error and let  $\delta_n^2 = \text{Var}(D_n)$ .

We use the following assumption:

(A) There exist constants  $C > 0$  and  $k \geq 1$  such that  $\delta_n^2 \leq C/n^k$  for any natural  $n$ .

Further it will become clear that this assumption is reasonable. In particular, if  $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{C}[0, 1]$  is endowed with the Wiener measure and we use the trapezoidal method, then  $\delta_n^2 = 1/12n^2$ , so in this case  $C = 1/12$  and  $k = 2$ . For details see Kopanov (1994).

Let us formulate one of the results of the present paper.

**Theorem 1.** *There exists a linear subspace  $Z \subset \mathbf{B}$  such that:*

- 1)  $Z$  is dense in  $\mathbf{B}$  and has probability one;
- 2)  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho^n (L(x) - L_{2^n}(x)) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho^n \cdot D_{2^n}(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in Z$  and  $\rho \in [1, 2^{k/2})$ .
- 3)  $\mathbf{H} \subset Z$ .

**Proof.** Since  $D_n \sim N(0, \delta_n^2)$  we have  $\rho^n \cdot D_{2^n} \sim N(0, \rho^{2n} \cdot \delta_{2^n}^2)$ . Therefore

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \text{Var}(\rho^n \cdot D_{2^n}(x)) &= \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \rho^{2n} \cdot \delta_{2^n}^2 \leq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \rho^{2n} \cdot C/2^{kn} = C \cdot \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (\rho^2/2^k)^n = \\ &= C/(1 - (\rho^2/2^k)) < \infty. \end{aligned}$$

By the convergence theorem given at the beginning of this section we conclude that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho^n \cdot D_{2^n}(x) = 0$  P-a.s. for each  $\rho \in [1, 2^{k/2})$ .

Now let  $Z_\rho = \{x \in \mathbf{B} : \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho^n \cdot D_{2^n}(x) = 0\}$ ,  $\rho \in [1, 2^{k/2})$ . It is easy to see that  $Z_\rho$  is a linear subspace of  $\mathbf{B}$  (directly from the definition) and it is a Borel subset, too. Furthermore,  $P(Z_\rho) = 1$  for  $\rho \in [1, 2^{k/2})$ . It is obvious also by the definition that  $1 \leq \rho_1 < \rho_2 < 2^{k/2}$  implies the inclusion  $Z_{\rho_2} \subseteq Z_{\rho_1}$ . Let us choose an increasing sequence  $\{\rho_n\}$  such that  $\rho_1 = 1$  and  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho_n = 2^{k/2}$ . Denote

$$Z = \bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty} Z_{\rho_n}.$$

Clearly  $Z$  is a linear subspace of  $\mathbf{B}$  and  $P(Z) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(Z_{\rho_n}) = 1$ . Moreover,  $Z$  is dense because  $P(Z) = 1$  and the abstract Wiener measure is positive on all nonempty open sets. Thus we have proven statements 1) and 2).

It remains to show that  $\mathbf{H} \subset Z$ . If  $x \in \mathbf{B} \setminus Z$ , we have to show that  $x \in \mathbf{B} \setminus \mathbf{H}$ . Consider the translated measure  $P_x : B \rightarrow [0, 1]$  defined by  $P_x(B) = P(x + B)$  for any  $B \in \mathcal{B}$ . It is well-known (see e.g. Kuo(1975)) that  $P_x$  and  $P$  are either equivalent or orthogonal. They are equivalent if and only if  $x \in \mathbf{H}$ . We need to show that  $P_x$  and  $P$  are orthogonal.

Since  $x \in \mathbf{B} \setminus Z$ , then there exists  $\rho \in [1, 2^{k/2})$  such that  $x \notin Z_\rho$ . We know already that  $P(Z_\rho) = 1$  and if we show that  $P_x(Z_\rho) = 0$ , this would imply the orthogonality of the measures  $P_x$  and  $P$  and the fact that  $x \notin \mathbf{H}$ .

Indeed, take  $y \in Z_\rho$  and consider  $x + y$ . Assume  $x + y \in Z$ . Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho^n \cdot D_{2^n}(x + y) = 0.$$

But

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho^n \cdot D_{2^n}(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho^n \cdot D_{2^n}(x + y) - \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho^n \cdot D_{2^n}(y) = 0 - 0 = 0.$$

Thus, if  $y$  and  $x + y \in Z_\rho$ , then  $x \in Z_\rho$ , which is a contradiction. Hence  $x + Z_\rho \subseteq \mathbf{B} \setminus Z_\rho$ . However  $P(Z_\rho) = 1$  implies that  $P(\mathbf{B} \setminus Z_\rho) = 0$  and we have

$$P_x(Z_\rho) = P(x + Z_\rho) \leq P(\mathbf{B} \setminus Z_\rho) = 0.$$

#### 4. Corollaries

Let  $\mathbf{B}$  be the space  $\mathbf{C}[0, 1]$  of the continuous functions and  $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{C}'$  - the space of the absolutely continuous functions (the standard case of abstract Wiener space).

It is easy to see that Theorem 1 means in fact that  $L(x) - L_{2^n}(x) = o(1/\rho^n)$  for any  $\rho \in [1, 2^{k/2})$  and for almost all  $x \in \mathbf{C}[0, 1]$  and also for all  $x \in \mathbf{C}'$  ( $k$  is the constant in Assumption (A)). If now  $L(x) = \int_0^1 x(t)dt$  and  $\{L_n\}$  is the sequence of approximators constructed by trapezoidal rule, then  $k = 2$  (for details see e.g. Kopanov (1994)). This case is perhaps one of the most important since here the variance  $\delta_n^2$  of the error is the smallest possible among all the methods.

#### 5. Counterexamples

The following question arises from Theorem 1: Is it possible to find  $\rho \in [1, 2^{k/2})$  such that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho^n \cdot D_{2^n}(x) = 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbf{B}$ . The answer to this question is negative as can be seen by the following counterexample given first in a general and then in a specific form.

General counterexample. Let  $u(t) = |t|, t \in [-1, 1]$ , and let us extend the definition of  $u$  to the real line by requiring  $u(t+2) = u(t)$  for all  $t$ . Let  $\{a_n\}_{n=0}^\infty$  be a summable sequence of real numbers and define

$$u(t) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty a_n \cdot u(4^n t), t \in [0, 1].$$

Note that  $u$  is a generalization of the well-known counterexample of a continuous but nowhere differentiable function constructed by Van der Warden. Let now  $L(x) = \int_0^1 x(t)dt$  and let  $\{L_n\}$  be the sequence of approximators constructed by the trapezoidal rule. We now compute

$$L(u) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty a_n \cdot \int_0^1 u(4^n t)dt = \sum_{n=0}^\infty a_n/2.$$

For  $m \geq 1$ ,

$$L_{2^{2m}}(u) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty a_n \cdot L_{2^{2m}}(u(4^n t)) = \sum_{n=0}^m a_n/2,$$

$$L_{2^{2m+1}}(u) = \sum_{n=0}^\infty a_n \cdot L_{2^{2m+1}}(u(4^n t)) = \sum_{n=0}^m a_n/2.$$

Therefore

$$\rho^n \cdot D_{2^n}(u) = \rho^n \cdot \sum_{i=[n/2]+1}^{\infty} a_i/2.$$

Obviously, we can choose the sequence  $\{a_n\}$ , and then the function  $u$  such that the trapezoidal estimates converge as fast as desired. These estimates can even be divergent.

Specific counterexample.

Let  $a_n = 1/n(n+1)$ ,  $n \geq 1$ , and  $a_0 = 0$ . Thus we have

$$u(t) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} u(4^n t)/n \cdot (n+1), \quad t \in [0, 1],$$

and

$$\rho^n \cdot D_{2^n}(u) = \rho^n \cdot \sum_{i=[n/2]+1}^{\infty} a_i/2 = \rho^n / ([n/2] + 1).$$

Obviously,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho^n \cdot D_{2^n} = 0 \text{ for } \rho \in [0, 1], \text{ and}$$

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \rho^n \cdot D_{2^n} = +\infty \text{ for } \rho > 1.$$

This shows that  $u \in C[0, 1] \setminus \cup Z_\rho, \rho \in (1, 2)$ .

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