# MSH7 - APPLIED PROBABILITY AND STOCHASTIC CALCULUS

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MSH7 - APPLIED PROBABILITY AND STOCHASTIC CALCULUS

#### 1. Lecture 1 - Tuesday 1 March

**Definition 1.1** (Finite dimensional distribution). The finite dimensional distribution of a stochastic process X is the joint distribution of  $(X_{t_1}, X_{t_2}, \dots, X_{t_n})$ 

**Definition 1.2** (Equality in distribution). Two random variables X and Y are **equal in distribution** if  $\mathbb{P}(X \leq \alpha) = \mathbb{P}(Y \leq \alpha)$  for all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ . We write  $X \stackrel{d}{=} Y$ .

**Definition 1.3** (Strictly stationary). A stochastic process X is **strictly stationary** if

$$(X_{t_1}, X_{t_2}, \dots, X_{t_n}) = (X_{t_1+h}, X_{t_2+h}, \dots, X_{t_n+h})$$

for all  $t_i, h$ .

**Definition 1.4** (Weakly stationary). A stochastic process X is **weakly stationary** if  $\mathbb{E}(X_t) = \mathbb{E}(X_{t+h})$  and  $\text{Cov}(X_t, X_s) = \text{Cov}(X_{t+h}, X_{s+h})$  for all t, s, h.

**Lemma 1.5.** If  $\mathbb{E}(X_t^2) < \infty$ , then strictly stationary implies weakly stationary.

## Example 1.6.

- The stochastic process  $\{X_t\}$  with  $X_t$  all IID is strictly stationary.
- The stochastic process  $W_t$  with  $W_t$  N(0,t) and  $X_t X_s$  independent of  $X_s$  (for s < t) is not strictly or weakly stationary.

Definition 1.7 (Stationary increments). A stochastic process has stationary increments if

$$X_t - X_s \stackrel{d}{=} X_{t-h} - X_{s-h}$$

for all s, t, h.

#### 2. Lecture 2 - Thursday 3 March

**Example 2.1.** Let  $X_n, n \ge 1$  be IID random variables. Consider the stochastic process  $\{S_n\}$  where  $S_n = \sum_{j=1}^n X_j$ . Then  $\{S_n\}$  has stationary increments.

- 2.1. Concepts of convergence. There are three major concepts of convergence of random variables.
  - Convergence in distribution
  - Convergence in probability
  - Almost surely convergence

**Definition 2.2** (Convergence in distribution).  $X_n \xrightarrow{d} X$  if  $\mathbb{P}(X_n \leq x) \to \mathbb{P}(X \leq x)$  for all x.

**Definition 2.3** (Convergence in probability).  $X_n \stackrel{p}{\to} X$  if  $\mathbb{P}((|X_n - X| \ge \epsilon)) \to 0$  for all  $\epsilon > 0$ .

**Definition 2.4** (Almost surely convergence).  $X_n \stackrel{a.s.}{\to} X$  if except on a null set  $A, X_n \to X$ , that is,  $\lim_{n\to\infty} X_n = X$ . And hence  $\mathbb{P}(\lim_{n\to\infty} X_n = X) = 1$ 

**Definition 2.5** ( $\sigma$ -field generated by X). Let X be a random variable defined on a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ . We call  $\sigma(X)$  the  $\sigma$ -field generated by X, and we have

$$\sigma(X) = \{X^{-1}(B) : B \in \mathcal{B}\}\$$

where  $X^{-1}(B) = \{\omega, X(\omega) \in \mathcal{B}\}$  and  $\mathcal{B}$  is the Borel set on  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition 2.6** (Conditional probability). We have  $\mathbb{P}(A|B) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A,B)}{\mathbb{P}(B)}$  if  $\mathbb{P}(B) \neq 0$ .

**Definition 2.7** (Naive conditional expectation). We have  $\mathbb{E}(X|B) = \frac{\mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_B)}{\mathbb{E}(B)}$ .

**Definition 2.8** (Conditional density). Let g(x,y) be the joint density function for X and Y. Then we have  $Y \int_{\mathbb{R}} g(x,y) dx \equiv g_Y(y)$ . We also have

$$g_{X|Y=y} = \frac{g(x,y)}{g_Y(y)}$$

which defines the conditional density given Y = y.

Finally, we define  $\mathbb{E}(X|Y=y) = \int_{\mathbb{R}} x g_{X|Y=y}(x) dx$ .

**Definition 2.9** (Conditional expectation). Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be a probability space. Let  $\mathcal{A}$  be a sub  $\sigma$ -field of  $\mathcal{F}$ . Let X be a random variable such that  $\mathbb{E}(|X|) < \infty$ . We define  $\mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{A})$  to be a random variable Z such that

- (i) Z is A-measurable,
- (ii)  $\mathbb{E}(X\mathbb{I}_A) = \mathbb{E}(Z\mathbb{I}_A)$  for all  $A \in \mathcal{A}$ .

**Proposition 2.10** (Properties of the conditional expectation). Consider  $Z = \mathbb{E}(X|Y) = \mathbb{E}(X|\sigma(Y))$ 

- If T is  $\sigma(Y)$ -measurable, then  $\mathbb{E}(XT|Y) = T\mathbb{E}(X|Y)$  a.s.
- If T is independent of Y, then  $\mathbb{E}(T|Y) = \mathbb{E}(T)$ .
- $\mathbb{E}(X) = \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X|T))$

## 3. Lecture 3 - Tuesday 8 March

**Definition 3.1** (Martingale). Let  $\{X_t, t \geq 0\}$  be a **right-continuous** with **left-hand limits**.

$$\lim_{t \uparrow t_0} X_t \quad \text{exists}$$

Let  $\{\mathcal{F}_t, t \geq 0\}$  be a filtration.

Then X is called a martingale with respect to  $\mathcal{F}_t$  if

- (i) X is adapted to  $\mathcal{F}_t$ , i.e.  $X_t$  is  $\mathcal{F}_t$ -measurable
- (ii)  $\mathbb{E}(|X|) < \infty, t \geq 0$
- (iii)  $\mathbb{E}(X_t|\mathcal{F}_s) = X_s$  a.s.

**Example 3.2.** Let  $X_n$  be IID with  $\mathbb{E}(X_n) = 0$ . Then  $\{S_k, k \geq 0\}$ , where  $S_k = \sum_{i=0}^k X_i$ , is a martingale.

**Example 3.3.** An independent increment process  $\{X_t, t \geq 0\}$  with  $\mathbb{E}(X_t) = 0$  and  $\mathbb{E}(|X_t|) \leq \infty$  is a martingale with respect to  $\mathcal{F}_t = \sigma\{X_s, 0 \leq s \leq t\}$ 

**Definition 3.4** (Gaussian process). Let  $\{X_t, t \geq 0\}$  be a stochastic process. If the finite dimensional distributions are multivariate normal, that is,

$$(X_{t_1},\ldots,X_{t_m})\equiv N(\mu,\Sigma)$$

for all  $t_1, \ldots, t_m$ , then we call  $X_t$  a Gaussian process

**Definition 3.5** (Markov process). A continuous time process X is a **Markov process** if for all t, each  $A \in \sigma(X_s, s > t)$  and  $B \in \sigma(X_s, s < t)$ , we have

$$\mathbb{P}(A|X_t, B) = \mathbb{P}(A|X_t)$$

**Definition 3.6** (Diffusion process). Consider the stochastic differential equation

$$dX_t = \mu(t, x)dt + \sigma(t, x)dB_t$$

A diffusion process is path-continuous, strong Markov process such that

$$\lim_{h \to 0} h^{-1} \mathbb{E}(X_{t+h} - X_t | X_t = x) = \mu(t, x)$$

$$\lim_{t \to 0} h^{-1} \mathbb{E}([X_{t+h} - X_t - h\mu(t, X)]^2 | X_t = x) = \sigma^2(t, x)$$

**Definition 3.7** (Path-continuous). A process is **path-continuous** if  $\lim_{t\to t_0} X_t = X_{t_0}$ .

**Definition 3.8** (Lévy process). Let  $\{X_t, t \geq 0 \text{ be a stochastic process. We call } X \text{ a Lévy process} \}$ 

- (i)  $X_0 = 0$  a.s.
- (ii) It has stationary and independent increments
- (iii) X is stochastically continuous, that is, for all  $s, t, \epsilon > 0$ , we have

$$\lim_{s \to t} \mathbb{P}(|X_s - X_t| \ge \epsilon) = 0.$$

Equivalently,  $X_s \xrightarrow{p} X_t$  if  $s \to t$ .

**Example 3.9** (Poisson process). Let  $(N(t), t \ge 0)$  be a stochastic process. We call N(t) a **Poisson process** if the following all hold:

- (i) N(0) = 0
- (ii) N has independent increments
- (iii) For all  $s, t \ge 0$ ,

$$\mathbb{P}(N(t+s) - N(s) = n) = \frac{e^{-\lambda t}(\lambda t)^n}{n!}$$
  $n = 0, 1, 2, ...$ 

The Poisson process is stochastically continuous - that is,

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(|N(t) - N(s)| \geq \epsilon) &= \mathbb{P}(|N(t - s) - N(0)| \geq \epsilon) \\ &= 1 - \mathbb{P}(|N(t - s)| < \alpha) \\ &= 1 - \mathbb{P}(|N(t - s)| = 0) \\ &= 1 - e^{-\lambda(t - s)} \to 0 \quad \text{as } t \to s \end{split}$$

The Poisson process is **not** path-continuous, that is

$$\mathbb{P}(\lim_{t \to s} |N(t) - N(s)| = 0) \neq 1$$

because

$$\mathbb{P}(\cup_{|t-s|>\epsilon}|N(t)-N(s)|>\delta)\geq \mathbb{P}(|N(s+1)-N(s)|\geq\delta)>0$$

4. Lecture 4 - Thursday 10 March

**Definition 4.1** (Self-similar process). For any  $t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_n \geq 0$ , for any c > 0, there exists an H such that

$$(X_{ct1}, X_{ct_2}, \dots, X_{ct_n}) \stackrel{d}{=} (c^H X_{t1}, c^H X_{t_2}, \dots, c^H X_{t_n}).$$

We call H the **Hurst index**.

Example 4.2 (Fractional process).

$$(1 - B)^d X_t = \epsilon_t$$
,  $\epsilon_t$  martingale difference  $BX_t = X_{t-1}$ ,  $0 < d < 1$ 

**Definition 4.3** (Brownian motion). Let  $\{B_t, t \geq 0\}$  be a stochastic process. We call  $B_t$  a **Brownian motion** if the following hold:

- (i)  $B_0 = 0$  a.s.
- (ii)  $\{B_t\}$  has stationary, independent increments.
- (iii) For any t > 0,  $B_t \equiv N(0, t)$
- (iv) The path  $t \mapsto B_t$  is continuous almost surely, i.e.

$$\mathbb{P}(\lim_{t \to t_0} B_t = B_{t_0}) = 1$$

**Definition 4.4** (Alternative formulations of Brownian motion). A process  $\{B_t, t \geq 0\}$  is a Brownian motion if and only if

- $\{B_t, t \ge 0\}$  is a Gaussian process
- $\mathbb{E}(B_t) = 0, \mathbb{E}(B_s B_t) = \min(s, t)$
- The process  $\{B_t\}$  is path-continuous

*Proof.*  $(\Rightarrow)$  For all  $t_1, \ldots, t_m$ , we have

$$(B_{t_m} - B_{t_{m-1}}, \dots, B_{t_2} - B_{t_1}) \equiv N(0, \Sigma)$$

as  $B_t$  has stationary, independent increments. Hence,  $(B_{t_1}, B_{t_2}, \dots, B_{t_n})$  is normally distributed. Thus  $B_t$  is a Gaussian process. We can also show that  $\mathbb{E}(B_t) = 0$  and  $\mathbb{E}(B_s B_t) = \min(t, s)$ .

$$(\Leftarrow)$$
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Corollary. Let  $B_t$  be a Brownian motion. The so are the following:

- $\{B_{t+t_0} B_{t_0}, t \ge 0\}$
- $\{-B_t, t \ge 0\}$
- $\{cB_{t/c^2}, t \ge 0, c \ne 0\}$
- $\{tB_{1/t}, t \ge 0\}$

*Proof.* Here, we prove that  $\{X_t\} = \{tB_{1/t}\}$  is a Brownian motion. Consider  $\sum^n \alpha_i X_{t_i}$ . Then by a telescoping argument, we know that the process is Gaussian (can be written as a sum of  $X_{t_1}, X_{t_2} - X_{t_1}$ , etc). We can also easily show that  $\mathbb{E}(X_t) = 0$  and  $\mathbb{E}(X_t X_s) = \min(s, t)$  as required.

We now show that  $\lim_{t\to 0} X_t = 0$  a.s. Fix  $\epsilon \geq 0$ . We must show

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty}\bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty}\bigcap_{0 < t < \frac{1}{n}}\{|X_t| \le \frac{1}{n}\}\right) = 1$$

However, as  $|X_t|$  has the same distribution as  $|B_t|$  (as they are both Gaussian with same mean and covariance), we have that this is equivalent to

$$\mathbb{P}\left(\bigcap_{n=1}^{\infty}\bigcup_{m=1}^{\infty}\bigcap_{0< t<\frac{1}{m}}\{|B_t|\leq \frac{1}{n}\}\right)$$

which is clearly one.

5. Lecture 5 - Tuesday 15 March

**Theorem 5.1** (Properties of the Brownian motion). We have

$$\mathbb{P}(B_t \le x \,|\, B_{t_0} = x_0, \dots, B_{t_n} = x_n) = \mathbb{P}(B_t \le x | B_s = x_s) = \Phi(\frac{x - x_s}{\sqrt{t - s}})$$

**Theorem 5.2.** The joint density of  $(B_{t_1}, \ldots, B_{t_n})$  is given by

$$g(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{j=1}^n f(x_{t_j} - x_{t_{j-1}}, t_j - t_1)$$

where  $f(x,t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi t}}e^{-\frac{x^2}{2t}}$ 

**Theorem 5.3** (Density and distribution of Brownian bridge). Let  $t_1 < t < t_2$ . Then

$$g(B_t|B_{t_1}=a, B_{t_2}=b) \equiv N\left(a + \frac{(b-a)(t-t_1)}{t_2-t_1}, \frac{(t_2-t)(t-t_1)}{t_2-t_1}\right).$$

The density of  $B_t|B_{t_1}=a, B_{t_2}=b$  is given as

$$\frac{g_{t_1,t,t_2}(a,b,t)}{g_{t_1,t_2}(a,b)}$$

**Theorem 5.4** ( Joint distribution of  $B_t$  and  $B_s$ ). We have

$$\mathbb{P}(B_s \le x, B_t \le y) = 
\mathbb{P}(B_s \le x, B_t - B_s \le y - B_s) 
= \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^{y-z} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi s}} e^{-\frac{x_1^2}{2s}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi (t-s)}} e^{-\frac{-z_2^2}{2(t-s)}} dz_1 dz_2 
= \int_{-\infty}^x \int_{-\infty}^y \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi s}} e^{-\frac{x_1^2}{2s}}$$

## 5.1. Properties of paths of Brownian motion.

**Definition 5.5** (Variation). Let g be a real function. Then the variation of g over an interval [a, b] is defined as

$$V([a.b]) = \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |g(t_i) - g(t_{j-1})|$$

where  $\Delta$  is the size of the partition  $a = t_0, \dots, t_n = b$  of [a, b].

**Definition 5.6** (Quadratic variation). The quadratic variation of a function g over an interval [a, b] is defined by

$$[g,g] = \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |g(t_j) - g(t_{j-1})|^2$$

**Theorem 5.7** (Non-differentiability of Brownian motion). Paths of Brownian motion are continuous almost everywhere, by definition. Consider now, the differentiability of  $B_t$ . We claim that a Brownian motion is non-differentiable almost surely, that is,

$$\lim_{t \to s} \frac{|B_t - B_s|}{|t - s|} = \infty \quad a.s.$$

We claim that

- (i) Brownian motion is not differentiable almost surely for any  $t \geq 0$ .
- (ii) Brownian motion has infinite variation on any interval [a, b], that is,

$$V_B([a,b]) = \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^n |B(t_j) - B(t_{j-1})| = \infty \quad a.s.$$

(iii) Brownian motion has quadratic variation t on [0,t], that is

$$[B,B]([0,t]) = \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |B(t_j) - B(t_{j-1})|^2 = t \quad a.s.$$

*Proof.* We know that  $(B_{ct_1}, \ldots, B_{ct_n}) \stackrel{d}{=} (c^H B_{t_1}, \ldots, c^H B_{t_n})$ . This is true as  $B_{ct} \equiv N(0, ct) = c^{1/2} N(0, t)$  as required.

Now suppose  $X_t$  is H-self-similar with stationary increments for some 0 < H < 1 with  $X_0 = 0$ . Then, for any fixed  $t_0$ , we have

$$\lim_{t \to t_0} \frac{|X_t - X_{t_0}|}{t - t_0} = \infty \quad a.s.$$

Consider

$$\mathbb{P}(\limsup_{t \to t_0} \frac{|X_t - X_{t_0}|}{t - t_0} \ge M)$$

which by stationary increments, is equal to

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(\limsup_{t \to t_0} \frac{|X_t|}{t} \geq M) &= \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(\bigcup_{k \geq n} \frac{|B_{t_n} - B_{t_0}|}{|t_n - t_0|} \geq M) \\ &> \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(\frac{|B_{t_n} - B_{t_0}|}{|t_n - t_0|} \geq M) \\ &= \lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{P}(|N(0, 1)| \geq M \cdot (t_n - t_0)^{1/2}) \end{split}$$

and as the RHS goes to zero, we have

$$\mathbb{P}(|N(0,1)| \ge M \cdot (t_n - t_0)^{1/2}) \to 1$$

as required.

Now, Assume  $V_B([0,t]) < \infty$  almost surely. Consider  $Q_n = \sum_{j=1}^n |B_{t_j} - B_{t_{j-1}}|^2$ . Then we have

$$Q_n \le \max_{0 \le j \le n} |B_{t_j} - B_{t_{j-1}}| \cdot \sum_{j=1}^n |B_{t_j} - B_{t_{j-1}}|$$

Let  $\Delta \to 0$ . Then

$$\lim_{\Delta \to 0} Q_n \le \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \max_{0 \le j \le n} |B_{t_j} - B_{t_{j-1}}| \cdot \sum_{j=1}^n |B_{t_j} - B_{t_{j-1}}|$$

$$\le \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \max_{0 \le j \le n} |B_{t_j} - B_{t_{j-1}}| \cdot V_B([0, t])$$

$$\le 0 \cdot V_B([0, t])$$
= 0

because  $B_s$  is uniformly continuous on [0,t]. This is a contradiction to  $V_B([0,t]) < \infty$ .

*Proof.* We now show that  $\mathbb{E}((Q_n - t)^2) \to 0$  as  $n \to \infty$ . In fact, we have

$$\mathbb{E}(Q_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbb{E}(B_{t_j} - B_{t_{j-1}})^2$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^n (t_j - t_{j-1}) = t$$

We now show  $L^2$  convergence. We have

$$\mathbb{E}(Q_n - t)^2 = \mathbb{E}((Q_n - \mathbb{E}(Q_n))^2)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}(\sum_{j=1}^{n} Y_{j} \text{ where } Y_{j} = |B_{t_{j}} - B_{t_{j-1}}|^{2} - \mathbb{E}(|B_{t_{j}} - B_{t_{j-1}}|^{2})$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(Y_{j}^{2}))$$

$$\leq \sum_{j=1}^{n} |t_{j} - t_{j-1}|^{2} \cdot \mathbb{E}|N(0, 1)|^{4}$$

$$\leq C \cdot \Delta \cdot t \to 0$$

as  $\Delta \to 0$ . Thus we have convergence in  $L^2$ .

#### 6. Lecture 6 - Thursday 17 March

**Theorem 6.1** (Martingales related to Brownian motion). Let  $B_t, t \geq 0$  be a Brownian motion. Then the following are martingales with respect to  $\mathcal{F}_t = \sigma(B_s, 0 \leq s \leq t)$ .

- (1)  $B_t, t \geq 0$ .
- (2)  $B_t^2 t, t \ge 0$ .
- (3) For any u,  $e^{uB_t \frac{u^2t}{2}}$

*Proof.* (1) is simple.

(2). We know that  $\mathbb{E}(|B_t^2|)$  is finite for any t. We can also easily show  $\mathbb{E}(B_t^2 - t \,|\, \mathcal{F}_s) = B_s^2 - s$ 

**Theorem 6.2.** Let  $X_t$  be a martingale satisfying  $X_t^2 - t$  is also a martingale. Then  $X_t$  is a Brownian motion.

**Definition 6.3** (Hitting time). Let  $T_{\alpha} = \inf_{\{t \geq 0, B_t = \alpha\}}$ 

- (1) If  $\alpha = 0$ ,  $T_0 = 0$ .
- (2) If  $\alpha > 0$ , then

$$\mathbb{P}(T_{\alpha} \le t) = 2\mathbb{P}(B_t \ge \alpha) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2\pi t}} \int_{a}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2t}} dx$$

We clearly have  $T_{\alpha} > t \iff \sup_{0 \le s \le t} < \alpha$ 

7. Lecture 7 - Tuesday 22 March

**Theorem 7.1** (Arcsine law). Let  $B_t$  be a Brownian motion. Then

$$\mathbb{P}(B_t = 0, \text{ for at least once, } t \in [a, b]) = \frac{2}{\pi} \arccos\sqrt{\frac{a}{b}}$$

Example 7.2. Processes derived from Brownian motion

(1) Brownian bridge

$$X_t = B_t - tB_1 \quad t \in [0, 1]$$

Consider  $X \equiv F(x)$ , with  $X_1, \dots X_n$  data. Our empirical distribution

$$F_n(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{1}_{\{X_j \le X\}}$$

We can then prove that

$$^{n}\sqrt{F_{n}(x)-F(x)} \rightarrow X_{t} \quad t \in (0,1)$$

(2) Diffusion process

$$X_t = \mu t + \sigma B_t$$

This is a Gaussian process with  $\mathbb{E}(X_t) = \mu t$ ,  $Cov(X_t, X_s) = \sigma^2 \min(s, t)$ .

(3) Geometric Brownian motion

$$X_t = X_0 e^{\mu t + \sigma B_t}$$

This is not a Gaussian process.

(4) Higher dimensional Brownian motion

$$B_t = (B_t^1, \dots, B_t^n)$$

where the  $B^i$  are independent Brownian motions, then

7.1. Construction of Brownian motion. Define a stochastic process

$$\hat{B}_t^n = \frac{S_{[nt]} - \mathbb{E}(S_{[nt]})}{\sqrt{n}}$$

With

$$\tilde{B}_t^n = \begin{cases} \hat{B}_t^n & \text{if } t = \frac{i}{n} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then we can prove that

$$\tilde{B}_t^n \Rightarrow B_t \quad \text{on } [0,1]$$

**Definition 7.3** (Stochastic integral). We now turn to defining expressions of the form

$$\int_0^A X_t \, dY_t$$

with  $X_t, Y_t$  stochastic processes.

**Definition 7.4**  $(\int_0^t f(B_s) ds)$ . We have

$$\int_0^t f(t) dt$$

exists if f is bonded and continuous, except on a set of Lebesgue measure zero. Thus, we can set

$$\int_0^t f(t) dt = \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^n f(B_{y_j})(t_j - t_{j-1})$$

if f(x) is bounded.

We now seek to find  $\int_0^1 B_s ds$ . Consider  $Q_n = \sum_{j=1}^n B_{y_j}(t_j - t_{j-1})$ . As the sum of normal variables, we know that  $Q_n \equiv N(\mu_n, \sigma_n^2)$ .

Since  $\int_0^1 B_s ds$  is normally distributed with mean 0, we have

$$\mathbb{E}(X^2) = \mathbb{E} \int_0^1 B_s \, dx \int_0^1 B_t \, dt$$
$$= \int_0^1 \mathbb{E}(B_s B_t) \, ds \, dt$$
$$= \int_0^1 \min(s, t) \, ds \, dt$$
$$= 1/3$$

8. Lecture 8 - Thursday 24 March

$$\int_0^1 f(B_s) \, ds = \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^n f(B_{y_j}) (t_{j+1} - t_j)$$

Recall

$$\int_0^1 B_s \, ds \sim N(0, \frac{1}{3}) = \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \sum_{i=1}^n B_{y_i} (t_{j+1} - t_j)$$

Consider  $I = \int X_s dY_s$ . We have the following:

## Theorem 8.1. I exists if

- (1) The functions f, g are not discontinuous at the same point x.
- (2) f is continuous and g has bounded variation or,
- (2)' f has finite p-variation and g has finite q-variation, where

$$1/p + 1/q = 1$$

For any p, we define p-variation by

$$\lim_{\Delta \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |f(t_j) - f(t_{j-1})|^p$$

**Theorem 8.2.** If  $J = \int_0^1 f(t) dg(t)$  exists for any continuous f, then g must have finite variation.

**Theorem 8.3.**  $B_s$  has bounded p variation for any  $p \ge 2$  and unbounded q-variation for any q < 2.

*Proof.* We can write (for  $p \ge 2$ ), p = 2 + (p - 2). Then we have

$$\Delta_t = \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \max |B_{t_j} - B_{t_{j-1}}|^{p-2} \sum_{j=1}^n |B_{t_j} - B_{t_{j-1}}|^2$$

and hence  $\Delta_t$  exists.

**Corollary.** Thus  $\int_0^1 dB_t$  is well defined if f has finite variation (as setting q = 1,  $p \ge 2$  gives 1/p + 1/q > 1).

Consider  $\int_0^1 B_s dB_s$  - is this an R-S integral? Consider

$$\Delta_{1n} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} B_{t_j} (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j}), \Delta_{2n} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} B_{t_{j+1}} (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j})$$

We have that

$$\Delta_{2n} - \Delta_{1n} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j})^2 \to 1$$

and

$$\Delta_{1n} + \Delta_{2n} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} B_{t_{j+1}}^2 - B_{t_j}^2 = B_1^2.$$

Thus we know

$$\Delta_{2n} \to \frac{1}{2}(B_1^2 + 1)$$

$$\Delta_{1n} \to \frac{1}{2}(B_1^2 - 1)$$

**Definition 8.4** (Itô integral). The Itô integral is defined by evaluating  $f(B_{t_j})$ , the left-hand endpoint at each partition interval  $[t_j, t_{j+1})$ 

# 9. Lecture 9 - Tuesday 29 March

**Definition 9.1** (Itô integral). Consider  $\int_0^1 f(s) dB_s$ . Where f(s) is a real function,  $B_s$  a Brownian motion. We define the integral in two steps.

(1) If f(s) is a step function, define

$$I(f) = \int_0^1 f(s) dB_s = \sum_{j=1}^m \int_{t_j}^{t_{j+1}} f(s) dB_s$$
$$= \sum_{j=1}^m c_j (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j})$$

(2) If  $f(s) \in L^2([0,1])$ , then let  $f_n$  be a sequence in  $L^2([0,1])$  such that  $f_n \to f$  in  $L^2([0,1])$ . Then define I(f) to be the limitation in such situations such that

$$\mathbb{E}(I(f_n) - I(f))^2 \to 0$$

in  $L^2([0,1])$  or Let  $I(f) = \lim_{n\to 0} I(f_n)$  in probability.

Remark. If f(x), g(x) are given step functions then  $\alpha I(f) + \beta I(g) = I(\alpha f + \beta g)$ .

Remark. If f(x) is a step function, then  $I(f) \sim N(0, \int_0^1 f^2(s) \, ds)$ 

Proof.

$$I(f) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} c_j (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j}) \sim N(0, \sigma^2)$$

where  $\sigma^2 = \sum_{j=1}^m c_j^2 (t_{j+1} - t_j)$ .

**Theorem 9.2.** I(f) is well defined (independent of the choice of  $f_n$ .)

*Proof.* Let  $f_n, g_n \to f$  in  $L^2([0,1])$ . We then need to only compute

$$\Delta_{n,m} = \mathbb{E}(I(f_n) - I(g_m))^2 \to 0$$

as  $m, n \to \infty$ .

In fact,

$$\Delta_{n,m} = \mathbb{E}(I(f_n - g_m))^2 = \int_0^1 (f_n - g_m)^2 dx$$

$$\leq 2 \int_0^1 (f_n - f)^2 dx + 2 \int_0^1 (g_m - f)^2 dx$$

$$\to 0$$

as  $n, m \to \infty$ .

Remark. If f is continuous bounded variation, then

$$\int_{0}^{1} f(s) dB_{s} = (R.S.) \int 0^{1} f(s) dB_{s}$$

$$= \lim_{\delta \to 0} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(t_{i}) B(t_{i+1} - B_{t_{i}})$$

Proof. Case 1).

$$\alpha I(f) + \beta I(g) = \lim_{n \to \infty} [\alpha I(f_n) + \beta I(g_n)] = \lim_{n \to \infty} [I(\alpha f_n + \beta g_n)] = I(\alpha f + \beta g)$$
 and thus  $\alpha f_n + \beta g_n \to \alpha f + \beta g \in L^2([0,1]).$ 

Case 2). If  $I(f) = \lim_{\delta \to 0} I(f_n)$  in probability. Then

$$\begin{split} I(f_n) &\sim N(0, \sigma_n^2) \\ &\sim N(0, \int_0^1 f_n^2(s) \, ds) \\ &\rightarrow N(0, \int_0^1 f^2(s) \, ds) \end{split}$$

if  $\sigma_n^2 \to \int_0^1 f^2(x) dx$ . In fact, as

$$\int_0^1 f_n^2 dx = \int_0^1 (f_n - f + f)^2 dx$$

$$= \int_0^1 f^2 dx + \int_0^1 (f_n - f)^2 dx + \int_0^1 (f_n - f) f dx$$

$$\to \int_0^1 f^2 dx$$

as other terms tend to zero by  $L^2$  convergence and Hölder's inequality.

Remark.  $(R.S.) \int_0^1 f(s) dB_s$  exists if f is of bounded variation.

Remark. If f is continuous then  $\int_0^1 f^2 dx < \infty$  and

$$f_n(t) = \sum_{j=1}^n f(t_j) I_{[t_j, t_{j+1})} \to f(t) \text{ in } L^2([0, 1])$$

Thus,

$$I(f) = \lim_{\delta \to 0} I(f_n)$$
$$= \lim_{\delta \to 0} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f(t_i) (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j})$$

We have to prove

$$\int_0^1 (f_n - f)^2 dx \to 0$$

if f is continuous.

## 10. Lecture 10 - Thursday 31 March

We have

(Itô) 
$$\int_0^1 f(s) dB_s \sim N(0, \int_0^1 f(t)^2 dt$$

if f is continuous, and of finite variation. In this case, we can write

(R.S.) 
$$\int_0^1 f(s) dB_s = (\text{It\^o}) \int_0^1 f(s) dB_s = \lim_{\Delta \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^n f(t_j) (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j})$$

Example 10.1. We have

$$\int_0^1 (1-t) dB_t = (\operatorname{It\hat{o}}) \int_0^1 (1-t) dB_t \sim N(0, \int_0^1 (1-t)^2 dt) = N(0, \frac{1}{3})$$

and by integrating by parts, we have

$$\int_0^1 (1-t) dB_t = (1-t)B_t|_0^1 - \int_0^1 B_t d(1-t) = 0 + \int_0^1 B_t dt \sim N(0, \frac{1}{3})$$

Now consider

(Itô) 
$$\int_0^1 X_s dB_s$$

where we now allow  $X_s$  to be a stochastic process.

Write  $\mathcal{F}_t = \sigma(B_s, 0 \leq s \leq t)$ . Let  $\pi$  be the collection of  $X_s$  such that

- (1)  $X_s$  is adapted to  $\mathcal{F}_s$ , that is, for any s,  $X_s$  is  $\mathcal{F}_s$  measurable.
- (2)  $\int_0^1 X_s^2 ds < \infty$  almost surely (R.S)

Let  $\pi' = \{X_s \mid X_s \in \pi, \int_0^1 \mathbb{E}(X_s^2) < \infty\}$ . Then  $\pi' \subset \pi$ . Let  $X_s = e^{B_s^2}$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}(X_s^2) = \mathbb{E}(e^{B_s^2}) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-4s}} & 0 \le s < \frac{1}{4} \\ \infty & s \ge \frac{1}{4} \end{cases}$$

**Definition 10.2** (Itô integral for stochastic integrands). We proceed in two steps.

(1) Let  $X_s = \sum_{j=1}^n \zeta_i \mathbf{1}_{[t_j,t_{j+1})}$  where  $\zeta_j$  is  $\mathcal{F}_{t_j}$  measurable. Then

$$I(X) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \zeta_j (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j}).$$

(2) If  $X \in \pi$ , there exists a sequence  $X^n \in \pi'$  such that  $X^n$  are step process with

$$\int_{0^1} |X_s^n - X_s|^2 \, ds \to 0$$

as  $n \to \infty$  in probability or in  $L^2([0,1])$  if  $X_s \in \pi'$ .

*Proof.* We show only for  $X_s$  continuous, the general case can be found in Hu-Hsing Kuo (p.65). As  $X_s$  is continuous, then it is in  $\pi$ . Then choose

$$X_s^n = X_0 + \sum_j j = 1^n X_{t_j} \mathbf{1}_{[t_j, t_{j+1})}$$

Then  $X_s \in pi'$  and

$$\mathbb{E}(|X_s^n - X_s|^2) \to 0$$

for any  $s \in (0,1)$ .

We can also show that

$$\mathbb{E}(|X_s^n - X_s|^2) < \infty$$

and so by the dominated convergence theorem, we have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_0^1 \mathbb{E}(|X_s^n - X_s|^2) \, ds = 0.$$

Finally if  $X_s \in \pi$ , the Itô integral  $\int_0^1 X_s dB_s$  is defined as

$$I(X) = \lim_{\delta \to 0} I(X^n)$$

in probability or in  $L^2$  if  $X \in \pi'$ .

# 11. Lecture 11 - Tuesday 5 March

Let  $I(X) = \int_0^1 X_s dB_s$  in the Itô sense. We then require

- (1)  $X_s$  is  $\mathcal{F}_s = \sigma\{B_t, 0 \le t \le s\}$ -measurable
- (2)  $\int_0^1 X_s^2 ds < \infty$  almost surely.

Then  $I(X) = \lim_{n\to\infty} I(X_n)$  where  $X_n$  is a sequence of step functions converging to X in  $L^2$ , that is,

$$\int_0^1 (X_s^n - X_s)^n \, ds \to 0$$

We then show that this definition is independent of the sequence of step functions. For any  $Y_s$  step process, we have

$$\int_0^1 (Y_s^n - Y_s^m)^2 dx \le 2 \int_0^1 (Y_s^m - X_s)^2 ds + 2 \int_0^1 (X_s^n - X_s)^2 dx \to 0$$

**Theorem 11.1** (Properties of the Itô integral).

(1) For any  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $X, Y \in \pi$ ,

$$I(\alpha X + \beta Y) = \alpha I(X) + \beta I(Y)$$

(2) For any  $X_s \in \pi'$ , we have

$$\mathbb{E}(I(X)) = 0, \quad \mathbb{E}(I^2(X)) = \int_0^1 E(X_s^2) \, ds$$

If  $X' \in \pi'$ ,  $Y_s \in \pi'$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}(I(X)I(Y)) = \int_0^1 \mathbb{E}(X_s Y_s) \, ds$$

(3) If  $X_s$  continuous then

$$I(X) = \lim_{\delta \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^{n} X_{t_j} (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j})$$

in probability.

(4) If X is continuous and of finite variation and  $\int_0^1 B_s dX_s < \infty$  then

$$(R.S.) \int_0^1 = (It\hat{o}) \int_0^1 X_s dB_s = X_1 B_1 - X_0 B_0 - \int_0^1 B_s dX_s$$

# Proposition 11.2. We now show why we require

- (1)  $X_s$  is  $\mathcal{F}_s = \sigma\{B_t, 0 \le t \le s\}$ -measurable
- (2)  $\int_0^1 X_s^2 ds < \infty$  almost surely.

*Proof.* Motivation for (1)

$$X_{s} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \zeta_{j} \mathbf{1}_{(t_{j}, t_{j+1})}$$

$$I(X) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \zeta_{j} (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_{j}})$$

$$\mathbb{E}(I(X)) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(\zeta_{j} (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_{j}}))$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(\zeta_{j} (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_{j}}) | \mathcal{F}_{t_{j}}))$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(\zeta_{j} \mathbb{E}(B_{t_{j+1} - B_{t_{j}}} | \mathcal{F}_{t_{j}}))$$

Motivation for (2)

$$\mathbb{E}(I^{2}(X)) = \mathbb{E}(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \zeta_{j}(B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_{j}}))^{2}$$

$$= 2 \sum_{i < j} \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(\zeta_{i}\zeta_{j}(B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_{j}})(B_{t_{i+1}} - B_{t_{i}})) | \mathcal{F}_{t_{i}}) + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(\zeta_{j}^{2}(B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_{j}})^{2})$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(\zeta_{j}^{2})(t_{j+1} - t_{j})$$

$$= \int_{0}^{1} \mathbb{E}(X_{t}^{2}) dt$$

We now show that there  $X_s^n \in \pi'$ , such that  $\int_0^1 \mathbb{E}(X_s^n - X_s)^2 ds \to 0$ . We have

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}(I^2(X)) &= \mathbb{E}(I(X)) - I(X^n) + \mathbb{E}(I(X^n_s))^2 \\ &= \mathbb{E}(I^2(X^n)) + 2\mathbb{E}(I(X^n)(I(X) - I(X^n))) + \mathbb{E}(I(X) - I(X^n))^2 \end{split}$$

By Cauchy-Swartz, the middle term tens do zero, and by definition, the third term tends to zero. Thus we have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \mathbb{E}(I^2(X_n)) = \mathbb{E}(I^2(X))$$

Let  $X_s^n$  be step processes. We now show

$$\mathbb{E}(X_s^n - X_s)^2 \to 0 \Rightarrow \int_0^1 \mathbb{E}(X_s^n - X_s)^2 ds \to 0$$

By definition, we have

$$I(X) = \lim_{n \to \infty} I(X^n) = \lim_{\delta \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^n X_{t_j} (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j}).$$

and we proved the required result in lectures.

We now show that the (R.S.) integral exists if X is continuous and of finite variation, and  $\int_0^1 B_s dX_s < \infty$ , the our integration by parts formula holds.

We have

$$(R.S.) \int_0^1 X_s dB_s = \lim_{\delta \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^n X_{y_j} (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j})$$
$$= \lim_{\delta \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^n X_{t_j} (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j})$$

which is our Itô integral by definition.

**Definition 11.3** (Itô process). Suppose  $Y_t = \int_0^t X_s dB_s$ ,  $t \ge 0$  is well defined, for  $X_s \in \pi$ . Then  $Y_t$  is an  $It\hat{o}$  processes. To show a process  $Y_t$  is an  $It\hat{o}$  process, we need to show that  $\int_0^t |X_s|^2 ds < \infty$  a.s. and  $\int_0^t |X_s|^2 ds < \infty$  a.s.

**Theorem 11.4.** We have that  $Y_t$  is continuous (except on a null set), is of infinite variation, as

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} |Y_{t_{j+1}} - Y_{t_{j}}| = \sum_{j=1}^{n} |\int_{t_{j}}^{t_{j+1}} X_{s} dB_{s}|$$

$$\geq \sum_{j=1}^{n} \min_{s} |X_{s}| |B_{t_{j+1} - B_{t_{j}}}|$$

$$\geq C \sum_{j=1}^{n} |B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_{j}}|$$

12. Lecture 12 - Thursday 7 March

From before, consider the Itô process  $Y_t = \int_0^t X_s dB_s$ .

Lemma 12.1.  $\mathbb{E}(\int_s^t X_u dB_u \mid \mathcal{F}_s) = 0.$ 

*Proof.* Let  $X_u = \sum_{j=1}^n \zeta_j \mathbf{1}_{[t_j, t_{j+1})}$ . Then

$$\mathbb{E}(\int_{s}^{t} X_{u} dB_{u} \mid \mathcal{F}_{s}) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(\zeta_{j}(B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_{j}}) \mid \mathcal{F}_{s})$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(\zeta_{j}(B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_{j}}) \mid \mathcal{F}_{s}) \mid \mathcal{F}_{t_{j}})$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(\zeta_{j}(B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_{j}}) \mid \mathcal{F}_{t_{j}}) \mid \mathcal{F}_{s})$$

$$= 0$$

where the third equality follows from the fact that  $(\mathcal{F}_t)$  is an increasing sequence of  $\sigma$ -fields and the final follows from the fact that  $B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j}$  is independent of  $\mathcal{F}_{t_j}$ .

**Definition 12.2** (Local martingale). A process  $Y_t$  is a local martingale if there exists a sequence of stopping times  $\tau_n, n \geq 1$  such that  $Y_{\min(t,\tau),\mathcal{F}_t}$  is a martingale.

Proposition 12.3. We have the following.

- (1) If  $X_s \in \pi'$ , that is,  $\int_0^t \mathbb{E}(X_s^2) ds < \infty$ , then  $(Y_t, \mathcal{F}_t)$  is a martingale.
- (2) If  $X_s \in \pi$ , that is  $\int_0^t X_s^2 ds < \infty$  a.s., then  $(Y_t, \mathcal{F}_t)$  is a local martingale.
- (3) For f(x) satisfying  $\int_0^t f^2(z) dz < \infty$ ., we have

$$Y_t = \int_0^t f(s) \, dB_s$$

is a Gaussian process.

*Proof.* We have  $Y_t$  is trivially  $\mathcal{F}_t$ -measurable.

We have  $\mathbb{E}(|Y_t|) < \infty$  a.s. as  $\mathbb{E}(Y_t^2) = \int_0^t \mathbb{E}(X_s^2) \, ds < \infty$  by assumption.

We have

$$\mathbb{E}(Y_t \mid \mathcal{F}_s) = \mathbb{E}(\int_0^s X_u dB_u + \int_s^t X_u dB_u \mid \mathcal{F}_s)$$
$$= \mathbb{E}(Y_s \mid \mathcal{F}_s) + \mathbb{E}(\int_s^t X_u dB_u \mid \mathcal{F}_s)$$
$$= Y_s$$

from the previous lemma.

Now assuming  $X_s \in \pi'$ , the exists an  $X_s^n$  a step process such that

$$\int_0^t \mathbb{E}(X_u^n - X_u)^2 du \to 0$$

as  $n \to \infty$ .

Set  $Y_t^n = \int_0^t X_u^n dB_u$ . Then

$$\int_{s}^{t} X_{u} dB_{u} = Y_{t} - Y_{s}$$

$$= Y_{t} - Y_{t}^{n} + Y_{t}^{n} - Y_{s}^{n} + Y_{s}^{N} - Y_{s}$$

Then for each n, we have

$$Z = \mathbb{E}(\int_{s}^{t} X_{u} dB_{u}) = \mathbb{E}(Y_{t} - Y_{t}^{n} \mid \mathcal{F}_{s}) + \mathbb{E}(Y_{s}^{n} - Y_{s} \mid \mathcal{F}_{s})$$

We only need to prove  $\mathbb{E}(|Z|^2) \to 0$  which implies  $\mathbb{E}(Z^2) = 0$  and thus Z = 0 almost surely. We have

$$\mathbb{E}(Z^2) \le 2\mathbb{E}(Y_t - Y_t^n)^2 + 2\mathbb{E}(Y_s - Y_s^n)^2 \to 0$$

by definition of  $Y_t^n$ .

13. Lecture 13 - Tuesday 12 March

**Theorem 13.1.** Let f be continuous. Then

$$\lim_{\delta \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(\theta_j) (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j})^2 = \int_0^t f(B_s) \, ds$$

Proof. Let

$$Q_n = \sum_{j=1}^{n} |f(\theta_j) - f(B_{t_j})| B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j}|^2$$

Note that  $\sum_{j=1}^n f(B_{t_j})(B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j})^2 \to \int_0^t f(B_s) ds$  in probability.

It only needs to show that  $Q_n \to 0$  in probability. We have

$$Q_n \le \max_{1 \le j \le n} |f(\theta_j) - f(B_{t_j}) \sum_{j=1}^n |B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j}|^2 \to 0 \cdot t = 0$$

in probability from the quadratic variance of the brownian motion

**Theorem 13.2.** Let f be bounded on [0,1]. Then

$$\lim_{\delta \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^{n} f(X_{t_j}) (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j})^2 = \int_0^t f(X_s \, ds)$$

*Proof.* We only prove for cases where  $\int_0^t \mathbb{E}(X_s^2) ds$  is finite. In this case, there exists  $X_s^n$  step process such that

$$\int_0^t \mathbb{E}(X_s^n - X_s)^2 \, ds \to 0$$

as  $n \to \infty$ .

In fact, we can let  $X_s^n = \sum_{j=1}^n X_{t_j} \mathbf{1}_{[t_j, t_{j+1}]}$ . Let

$$Y_t^n = \int_0^t X_s^n \, dB_s$$

Then  $Y_{t_{j+1}}^n - Y_{t_j}^n = \int_{t_j}^{t_{j+1}} X_s^n dB_s$ .

Therefore,

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} (Y_{t_{j+1}} - Y_{t_j})^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{n} (Y_{t_{j+1}} - Y_{t_j}^n + Z_{1j} + Z_{2j})$$

where  $Z_{1j} = Y_{t_{j+1}} - Y_{t_{j+1}}^n$  and  $Z_{2j} = Y_{t_j} = Y_{t_j}^n$ . Continuing, we have

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} (Y_{t_{j+1}} - Y_{t_{j}}^{n})^{2} + \text{error}$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} X_{t_{j}}^{2} (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_{j}})^{2} + \text{error}$$

$$\to \int_{0}^{t} X_{s}^{2} ds$$

if the error term goes to zero. We have

$$R_n \leq 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} Z_{1j}^2 + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} Z_{2j}^2 + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} |Z_{1j}| \cdot |Y_{t_{j+1}}^n - Y_{t_j}^n| + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} |Z_{2j}| \cdot |Y_{t_{j+1}}^n - Y_{t_j}^n| + 2 \sum_{j=1}^{n} |Z_{1j}| \cdot |Z_{2j}|$$

$$\leq \dots + 2(\sum_{j=1}^{n} Z_{1j}^2)^{1/2} A_n^{1/2} + 2(\sum_{j=1}^{n} Z_{2j}^2)^{1/2} A_n^{1/2} + 2(\sum_{j=1}^{n} Z_{2j}^2)^{1/2} \cdot (\sum_{j=1}^{n} Z_{2j}^2)^{1/2}$$

and as  $\sum {Z_{ij}}^2 \to 0$  in probability, we have our result.

**Theorem 13.3** (Itô's first formula). If f(x) is a twice-differentiable function then for any t,

$$f(B_t) - f(B_s) = \int_s^t f'(B_u) \, dB_u + \frac{1}{2} \int_s^t f''(B_u) \, du$$

*Proof.* Let  $s = t_1, \ldots, t_n = t$ . We have

$$f(B_t) - f(B_s) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \left[ f(B_{t_{j+1}}) - f(B_{t_j}) \right]$$

Applying Taylor's expansion to  $f(B_{t_{j+1}}) - f(B_{t_j})$  we get

$$f(B_{t_{j+1}}) - f(B_{t_j} = f'(B_{t_j})(B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j}) + \frac{1}{2}f''(\theta_j)(B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j})^2$$

and so

$$f(B_t) - f(B_s) = \lim_{\delta \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^n f'(B_{t_j}) (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j}) + \lim_{\delta \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{1}{2} f''(\theta_j) (B_{t_{j+1}} - B_{t_j})^2$$
$$= \int_s^t f'(B_u) dB_u + \frac{1}{2} \int_s^t f''(B_u) du$$

## Example 13.4.

#### 14. Lecture 14 - Thursday 14 March

**Definition 14.1** (Covariation). The covariation of two stochastic processes  $X_t, Y_t$  is defined as

$$[X,Y](t) = \frac{1}{4}([X+Y,X+Y](t) - [X-Y,X-Y](t))$$

where  $[\cdot,\cdot]$  is the quadratic variation previously defined.

**Definition 14.2** (Stochastic differential equation). Let  $X_t$  be an Itô process. Then

$$X_t = X_a + \int_a^t \mu(s) \, ds + \int_a^b \sigma(s) \, dB_s$$

We write

$$dX_t = \mu(t) dt + \sigma(t) dB_s$$

By convention, we write  $dX_t \cdot dY_t = d[X, Y](t)$ . In particular,  $(dY_t)^2 = d[Y, Y](t)$ .

**Theorem 14.3.** Let  $Y_t$  be path continuous, and let  $X_t$  have finite variation. Then

$$[X, Y](t) = 0.$$

*Proof.* We have

$$[X,Y](t) = \frac{1}{4}([X+Y,X+Y] - [X-Y,X-Y])$$

$$= \lim_{\delta \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (X_{t_{j+1}} - X_{t_{j}})(Y_{t_{j+1}} - Y_{t_{j}})$$

$$\leq \lim_{\delta \to 0} \max |Y_{t_{j+1}} - Y_{t_{j}}| \sum_{j=1}^{n} |X_{t_{j+1}} - X_{t_{j}}|$$

$$\to 0$$

as  $Y_t$  is path continuous and  $X_t$  has finite variation.

Corollary. From this theorem, we then have

$$dB_t \cdot dt = 0$$
,  $(dt)^2 = 0$ ,  $(dB_t)^2 = dt$ 

Corollary. For an Itô process  $X_t$  given above, we then have

$$d[X, X](t) = dX_t \cdot dX_t = (\mu(t)dt + \sigma(t) dB_t)^2 = \sigma^2(t) dt$$

Corollary. If f(x) has a twice continuous derivative, then

$$[f(B_t), B_t](t) = \int_0^t f'(B_s) ds$$

Proof. From Itô's formula, we have

$$df(B_t) = f'(B_t) dB_t + \frac{1}{2} f''(B_t) dt$$

Then from above, we have

$$d[f(B_t), B_t](t) = df(B_t) \cdot dB_t = f'(B_t)dt$$

Theorem 14.4 (Itô's lemma). By Taylor's theorem, we have

$$df(t, X_t) = \frac{\partial f(t, X_t)}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial f(t, x)}{\partial x} \Big|_{x = X_t} \cdot dX_t + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f(t, x)}{\partial x^2} \Big|_{x = X_t} \cdot (dX_t)^2$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f(t, x)}{\partial x \partial t} \Big|_{x = X_t} \cdot dX_t \cdot dt$$

$$= \frac{\partial f(t, X_t)}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial f(t, x)}{\partial x} \Big|_{x = X_t} \cdot (\mu(t) dt + \sigma(t) dB_t) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f(t, x)}{\partial x^2} \Big|_{x = X_t} \cdot \sigma^2 dt$$

$$= \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \mu(t) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \sigma^2(t) \right) dt + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \sigma(t) dB_t$$

**Example 14.5.** Let  $f(B_t) = e^{B_t}$ . Then

$$df(B_t) = e^{B_t} dB_t + \frac{1}{2} e^{B_t} dt$$

**Theorem 14.6.** Assume  $\int_0^T f^2(t) dt < \infty$ . Let  $X_t = \int_0^t f(s) dB_s - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t f^2(s) ds$ . Then  $Y_t = e^{X_t}$ 

is a martingale with respect to  $\mathcal{F}_t = \sigma(B_s, 0 \le s \le t)$ .

Proof. We have

$$dY_t = e^{X_t} dX_t + \frac{1}{2} e^{X_t} (dX_t)^2$$

$$= e^{X_t} [f(t) dB_t - \frac{1}{2} f^2(s) dt] + \frac{1}{2} e^{X_t} f^2 dt$$

$$= e^{X_t} f(t) dB_t$$

and thus  $Y_t = \int_0^t e^{X_s} f(s) \, dB_s$  which is a martingale from previous work.

15. Lecture 15 - Tuesday 19 March

**Theorem 15.1** (Multivariate Itô's formula). Let  $B_j(t)$  be a sequence of independent Brownian motions. Consider the Itô processes  $X_t^i$ , with

$$dX_t^i = b_i(t) dt + \sum_{k=1}^m \sigma_{ki}(t) dB_k(t)$$

Suppose  $f(t, x_1, ..., x_n)$  is a continuous function of its components and has continuous partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i \partial x_i}$ . Then

$$df(t, X_t^1, \dots, X_t^m) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} dt + \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} dX_t^i + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^m \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} dX_t^i dX_t^j$$

We have

$$dX_t^i dX_t^j = \sum_{k,s=1}^m \sigma_{ki}\sigma_{sj} dB_k(t) dB_s(t)$$
$$= \sum_{k=1}^n \sigma_{ki}\sigma_{kj} dt +$$

as  $d[B_i, B_j](t) = 0$  when  $B_i, B_j$  are independent

## Example 15.2. Let

$$dX_t = \mu_1(t)dt + \sigma_1(t) dB_1(t)$$
  
$$dY_t = \mu_2(t)dt + \sigma_2(t) dB_2(t)$$

with  $B_1, B_2$  independent. Then

$$d(X_t \cdot Y_t) = Y_t dX_t + X_t dY_t + d[X, Y](t)$$

and by independence,  $d[X,Y](t) = dX_t \cdot dY_t = 0$ .

# Example 15.3. Let

$$dX_t = \mu_1(t)dt + \sigma_1(t) dB_1(t)$$

$$dY_t = \mu_2(t)dt + \sigma_2(t) dB_1(t).$$

Then

$$d(X_t \cdot Y_t) = Y_t dX_t + X_t dY_t + \sigma_1(t)\sigma_2(t) dt.$$

In particular, if  $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = 0$ , then

$$X_t Y_t = \int_0^t [\sigma_1(s)Y_s + \sigma_2(s)X_s] dB_s + \int_0^t \sigma_1(s)\sigma_2(s) dt$$

Thus,  $Z_t = X_t Y_t - \int_0^t \sigma_1(s) \sigma_2(s) dt$  is a martingale.

Theorem 15.4 (Tanaka's formula). We have

$$|B_t - a| = |a| + \int_0^t sgn(B_s - a) dB_s + \mathcal{L}(t, a)$$

where

$$\mathcal{L}(t,a) = \lim_{\epsilon > 0} \frac{1}{2\epsilon} \int_0^t \mathbf{1}_{|B_s - a| \le \epsilon} \, ds$$

Proof. Let

$$f_{\epsilon}(x) = \begin{cases} |x - a| - \frac{\epsilon}{2} & |x - a| > \epsilon \\ \frac{1}{2\epsilon}(x - a)^2 & |x - a| \le \epsilon \end{cases}$$

Then we have

$$f'_{\epsilon}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x > a + \epsilon \\ \frac{1}{\epsilon}(x - a) & |x - a| \le \epsilon \\ -1 & x < a - \epsilon \end{cases}$$

and

$$f_{\epsilon}''(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & |x - a| > \epsilon \\ \frac{1}{\epsilon} & |x - a| \le \epsilon \end{cases}$$

Then by Itô's formula, we have

$$f_{\epsilon}(B_t) = f_{\epsilon}(0) + \int_0^t f_{\epsilon}'(B-s) dB_s + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t f_{\epsilon}''(B_s) ds$$

Obviously

$$\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} f_{\epsilon}(0) = |a|$$

and

$$\lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t f_{\epsilon}''(B_s) \, ds = \frac{1}{\epsilon} \int_0^t \mathbf{1}_{|B_s - a| \le \epsilon} \, ds = \mathcal{L}(t, a)$$

Note that

$$\int_0^t |f'_{\epsilon}(B_s) - \operatorname{sgn}(B_s - a)|^2 ds = \int_{|B_s - a \le \epsilon} \left| \frac{1}{\epsilon} (B_s - a) - \operatorname{sgn}(B_s - a) \right|^2 ds \to 0a.s.$$

Theorem 15.5.

$$\mathcal{L}(t,a) = \int_0^t \delta_a(B_s) \, ds$$

**Theorem 15.6.** If f is integrable on  $\mathbb{R}$ , then

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathcal{L}(t,s)f(s) ds = \int_{0}^{t} f(B_{s}) ds$$

16. Lecture 16 - Thursday 21 March

**Definition 16.1** (Linear cointegration). Consider two non stationary time series  $X_t$  and  $Y_t$ . If there exist coefficients  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  such that

$$\alpha X_t + \beta Y_t = u_t$$

with  $u_t$  stationary, then we say that  $X_t$  and  $Y_t$  are **cointegrated**.

**Definition 16.2** (Nonlinear cointegration). If  $Y_t - f(X_t) = u_t$  is stationary, with  $f(\cdot)$  a nonlinear function.

#### 17. Lecture 17 - Tuesday 3 May

17.1. Stochastic integrals for martingales. We now seek to define stochastic integrals with respect to processes other than Brownian motion.

**Example 17.1.** Let  $X_t = \int_0^t Y_s dB_s$ , and thus  $dX_s = Y_s dB_s$ . Then

$$Z_t = \int_0^t Y_s' dX_s = \int_0^t Y_s' \cdot Y_s dB_s$$

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**Definition 17.2** (Martingale). A martingale with respect

- (1)  $M_t$  adapted to  $\mathcal{F}_t$ .
- (2)  $\mathbb{E}(|M_t|) < \infty$ .

(3)  $\mathbb{E}(M_t \mid \mathcal{F}_s) = M_s \text{ a.s.}$ 

A process is a submartingale if (3) is replace with  $\mathbb{E}(M_t | \mathcal{F}_s) \geq M_s$ . A process is a supermartingale if (3) is replaced with  $\mathbb{E}(M_t | \mathcal{F}_s) \leq M_s$ .

**Example 17.3.** Let  $N_t$  be a poisson process with intensity  $\lambda$ . Then

- (1)  $N_t$  is a submartingale with respect to the natural filtration.
- (2)  $N_t \lambda t$  is a martingale with respect to the natural filtration.

**Theorem 17.4.** If  $\int_0^t \mathbb{E}(H^2(s)) ds < \infty$  and H(s) is adapted to  $\mathcal{F}_s = \sigma(B_t, t \leq s)$ , then

$$Y_t = \int_0^t H(s) \, dB_s, t \ge 0$$

is a continuous, square integrable martingale - that is,  $\mathbb{E}(Y_t^2 < \infty)$ .

**Theorem 17.5.** Let  $M_t$  be a continuous, square integrable martingale with respect to  $\mathcal{F}_t$ . Then there exists an adapted process H(s) such that  $\int_0^t \mathbb{E}(H^2(s)) ds < \infty$  and

$$M_t = M_0 + \int_0^t H(s) \, dB_s$$

where  $B_t$  is a Brownian motion with respect to  $\mathcal{F}_t$ .

**Theorem 17.6.**  $M_t, t \geq 0$  is a Brownian motion if and only if it is a local continuous martingale with  $[M, M](t) = t, t \geq 0$  under some probability measure Q.

*Proof.* A local continuous martingale is of the form  $M_t = M_0 + \int_0^t H(s) dB_s$ . Then we have

$$[M, M](t) = \int_0^t H^2(s) \, ds = t \Rightarrow H(s) = 1a.s. \Rightarrow M_t = B_t.$$

**Theorem 17.7.** Let  $M_t, t \geq 0$  e a continuous local martingale such that  $[M, M](t) \uparrow \infty$ . Let

$$\tau_t = \inf\{s : [M, M](s) \ge t\}.$$

Then  $M(\tau_t)$  is a Brownian motion. Moreover,  $M(t) = B([M, M](t)), t \ge 0$ .

This is an application of the change of time method.

**Example 17.8.**  $B_t$  is a Brownian motion - and then  $Y_t = B_t^2 - t$  is a martingale. We have

$$dY_t = H(s) dB_s = 2B_s dB_s$$
.

Thus,

$$B_t^2 - t = 2 \int_0^t B_s \, dB_s.$$

**Definition 17.9** (Predictability of a stochastic process). A stochastic process  $X_t, t \geq 0$  is said to be predictable with respect to  $\mathcal{F}_t$  if  $X_t \in \mathcal{F}_{t-}$  for all  $t \geq 0$ , where

$$\mathcal{F}_{t-} = \bigcap_{h>0}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_{t+h}, \qquad \mathcal{F}_{t-} = \sigma \left(\bigcap_{h>0}^{\infty} \mathcal{F}_{t-h}\right).$$

**Example 17.10.** Let  $g_t$  be a step process, with

$$g_t = \sum_{i=1}^n \zeta_j \mathbf{1}_{[t_j, t_{j+1})}(t)$$

Then  $g_t$  is not predictable.

Let  $g_t$  be a step process, with

$$g_t = \sum_{i=1}^n \zeta_j \mathbf{1}_{(t_j, t_{j+1}]}(t)$$

Then  $g_t$  is predictable.

**Example 17.11.** Let  $N_t$  be a Poisson process. Then  $N_{t-}$  is predictable, but  $N_t$  is not predictable.

From now on, assume  $M_t, t \ge 0$  is right continuous, square integrable martingale with left hand limits.

**Lemma 17.12.**  $M_t^2$  is a submartingale.

Proof.

$$\mathbb{E}(M_t^2 | \mathcal{F}_s) = \mathbb{E}(M_s^2 + 2(M_t - M_s) + (M_t - M_s)^2 | \mathcal{F}_s)$$

$$= M_s^2 + \mathbb{E}((M_t - M_s)^2 | \mathcal{F}_s)$$

$$\geq M_s^2$$

**Theorem 17.13** (Doob-Myer decomposition). By Doob-Myer we can write

$$M_t^2 = L_t + A_t$$

where  $L_t$  is a martingale, and  $A_t$  is a predictable process, right continuous, and increasing, such that  $A_0 = 0, \mathbb{E}(A_t) < \infty, t \geq 0$ .

 $A_t$  is called the **compensator** of  $M_t^2$ , and is denoted by  $\langle M, M \rangle(t)$ .

**Example 17.14.** Consider  $B_t^2 = B_t^2 - t + t$ . Then

$$\langle B, B \rangle(t) = t = [B, B](t)$$

**Theorem 17.15.** If  $M_t$  is continuous then

$$[M, M](t) = \langle M, M \rangle(t).$$

**Example 17.16.** Let  $N_t$  be a Poisson process. Then we know  $\tilde{N}_t = N_t - \lambda t$  is a martingale. We may prove

$$\tilde{N}_t^2 - \lambda t$$

is a martingale, that is,  $\langle \tilde{N}, \tilde{N} \rangle(t) = \lambda t$ . However,

$$[\tilde{N}, \tilde{N}](t) = \lambda t + \tilde{N}_t \neq \langle \tilde{N}, \tilde{N} \rangle(t)$$

**Example 17.17.**  $X_t = \int_0^t f(s) dB_s$  is a continuous martingale. Thus,

$$[X, X](t) = \int_0^t f^2(s) \, ds = \langle X, X \rangle(t)$$

**Theorem 17.18.** If  $M_t$  is a continuous, square integrable martingale, then

$$M_t^2 - [M, M](t)$$

is a martingale, and so

$$[M,M](t) = \langle M,M \rangle(t) + martingale$$

which implies

$$\mathbb{E}[M, M](t) = \mathbb{E}\langle M, M \rangle(t) = \mathbb{E}M_t^2$$

We now turn to defining integrals such as

$$\int_0^t X_s \, dM_s$$

where  $M_s$  is a martingale.

**Definition 17.19.** Let  $L_{pred}^2$  be the space of all predictable stochastic process  $X_s$  satisfying the condition

$$\int_0^t X_s^2 d\langle M, M \rangle(s) < \infty.$$

Then the integral  $\int_0^t X_s dMs$  is defined as before in two steps.

(1) If  $X_s \in L^2_{pred}$  and  $X_s = \sum_{j=1}^n \zeta_j \mathbf{1}_{[t_j,t_{j+1})}$ . Define

$$I(X) = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \zeta_j (M_{t_{j+1}} - M_{t_j}).$$

(2) For all  $X_s \in L^2_{pred}$ , there exists a sequence of step process  $X_s^n$  such that  $X_s^n \to X_s$  in  $L^2$ . Define I(x) to be the limit in such situations such that

$$\mathbb{E}(I(X) - I(X^n))^2 \to 0.$$

**Proposition 17.20.** Properties of the integral.

(1) If  $M_s$  is a (local) martingale, then

$$\int_0^t f(s) \, dM_s$$

is a (local) martingale.

Proof.

$$\mathbb{E}(\int_{0}^{t} f(u) \, dM_u \, | \, \mathcal{F}_s) = 0$$

(2) If  $M_t$  is a square integrable martingale and satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}(\int_0^t f^2(s) \, d\langle M, M \rangle(t)) < \infty$$

then

$$I(f) = \int_0^t f(s) \, dM_s$$

is square integrable with E(I(f)) = 0, and  $E(I^2(f)) = \int_0^t f^2(s) d\langle M, M \rangle(s)$ . In particular, if  $M(s) = \int_0^s \sigma(u) dB_u$ , then

$$\int_0^t X_s dM_s = \int_0^t X_s \sigma(s) dB_s$$

provided  $\int_0^t X_s^2 \sigma^2(s) ds < \infty$  and  $\int_0^t \sigma^2(s) ds$ 

(3) If  $X_t = \int_0^t f(x) dM_s$  and  $M_s$  is a continuous, square integrable martingale, then

$$[X,X](t) = \int_0^t f^2(s) d[M,M](s) = \langle X, X \rangle(t)$$

18. Lecture 18 - Tudsay 10 May

Let  $M_t$  be a martingale. Then  $M_t^2 - [M, M](t)$  is a martingale, and

$$M_t^2 = \text{martingale} + \langle M, M \rangle(t)$$

Recall that if  $M_t$  is a continuous square integrable martingale, then

$$\langle M, M \rangle(t) = [M, M](t)$$

Generally speaking,

$$[M, M](t) = \langle M, M \rangle(t) + \text{martingale}$$

Theorem 18.1. If

$$\in_0^t f^2(s) d\langle M, M \rangle(s) < \infty$$

a.s. then

$$Y_t = \int_0^t f(s) \, dM_s$$

is well defined, and

$$\mathbb{E}Y_t^2 = \int_0^t f^2(s) \, d\langle M, M \rangle(t)$$
$$= \int_0^t f^2(s) \, d[M, M](t) \quad \text{if } M_t\text{-continuous}$$

and

$$\langle Y,Y\rangle(t)=[Y,Y](t)=\int_0^t f^2(s)\,d[M,M](s).$$

Proof.

$$dY_t = f(t) dM_t$$

$$d[Y, Y](t) = dY_t dY_t$$

$$= f^2(t) dM_t dM_t$$

$$= f^2(t) d[M, M](t)$$

$$[Y, Y](t) = \int_0^t f^2(s) d[M, M](s) = \langle Y, Y \rangle(t)$$

By Itô's formula, we also have

$$Y_t^2 = Y_0^2 + 2 \int_0^t Y_s dY_s + \int_0^t 1 \cdot [Y, Y](t)$$
$$= 2 \int_0^t Y_s \cdot f(s) dM_s + \langle Y, Y \rangle(t)$$
$$dY_t^2 = 2Y_t f(t) dM_t + d\langle Y, Y \rangle(t)$$

Hence

$$\langle Y, Y \rangle(t) = Y_t^2 - 2 \int_0^t Y_s f(s) dM_s = [Y, Y](t)$$

since  $\int_0^t Y_s f(s) dM_s$  is a martingale.

# 18.1. Itô's integration for continuous semimartingales.

**Definition 18.2.** Let  $(X_t, \mathcal{F}_t)$  be a continuous semimartingale. Then

$$X_t = M_t + A_t$$

where  $M_t$  is a martingale and  $A_t$  is a continuous adapted process of bounded variation ( $\lim_{\delta \to 0} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |A_{t_{j+1}} - A_{t_j}| < \infty$ ).

**Definition 18.3** (Integrals for semimartingales).

$$\int_{0}^{t} c_{s} dX_{s} = \int_{0}^{t} c_{s} dM_{s} + \int_{0}^{t} c_{s} dA_{s}$$

and since  $A_t$  has bounded variation, the second integral is defined in the Riemann-Stiljes (R.S.) sense.

**Theorem 18.4** (Itô's formula). Let  $X_t$  be a continuous semimartingale. Let f(x) have twice continuous derivatives. Then

$$f(X_t) = f(X_0) + \int_0^t f'(X_s) dX_s + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t f''(X_s) d[X, X](s)$$

*Proof.* Partition the interval [0,t], and use a Taylor expansion to express  $f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)(x - x_0)^2$ .

18.2. Stochastic differential equations. Consider the equation

$$dX_t = \sigma(t, X_t) dB_t = \mu(t, X_t) dt$$

We seek to solve for a function f(t,x) such that

$$X_t = f(t, B_t).$$

Such an  $f(t, B_t)$  is a **solution** to the stochastic differential equation.

**Definition 18.5** (Strong solution).  $X_t = X_0 + \int_0^t \sigma(s, X_s) dB_s + \int_0^t \mu(s, B_s) ds$ 

19. Lecture 19 - Thursday 12 May

Theorem 19.1. Let

$$dX_t = a(t, X_t) dt + b(t, X_t) dB_t$$

Assume  $\mathbb{E}X_0 < \infty$ .  $X_0$  is independent of  $B_s$  and there exists a constant c > 0 such that

- (1)  $|a(t,x)| + |b(t,x)| \le C(1+|x|)$ .
- (2) a(t,x), b(t,x) satisfy the Lipschitz condition in x, i.e.

$$|a(t,x) - a(t,y)| + |b(t,x) - b(t,y)| \le C|x-y|$$

for all  $t \in (0,T)$ .

Then there exists a unique (strong) solution.

#### Example 19.2. Let

$$dX_t = c_1 X_t dt + c_2 X_t dB_t,$$

with  $c_1, c_2$  constants.

## Example 19.3. Let

$$dX_{t} = [c_{1}(t)X_{t} + c_{2}(t)] dt + [\sigma_{1}(t)X_{t} + \sigma_{2}(t)] dB_{t}$$

Let  $a(t,x) = c_1(t)x + c_2(t)x, b(t,x) = \sigma_1(t)x + \sigma_2(t)$ . Just follow Kuo p. 233.

$$H_t = e^{-Y_t}, \quad Y_t = \int_0^t \sigma_1(s) \, ds + \int_0^t c_1(s) \, dB_s - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t c_1^2(s) \, ds$$

Then by the Itô product formula, we have

$$d(H_t X_t) = H_t (dX_t - \sigma_1(t) X_t dt - c_1(t) X_t dB_t - c_2(t) c_1(t) dt)$$

Then by definition of the  $X_t$ , we obtain

$$d(H_t X_t) = H_t (c_2(t) dB_t + \sigma_2(t) dt - c_1(t)c_2(t) dt)$$

which can be integrated to yield

$$H_t X_t = C + \int_0^t H_s c_2(s) dB_s + \int_0^t H_s(\sigma_2(s) - c_1(t)c_2(t)) ds$$

Dividing both sides by  $H_t$  we obtain our solution  $X_t$ .

**Theorem 19.4.** The solution to the linear stochastic differential equation

$$dX_{t} = [c_{1}(t)X_{t} + c_{2}(t)] dt + [\sigma_{1}(t)X_{t} + \sigma_{2}(t)] dB_{t}$$

is given by

$$X_t = Ce^{-Y_t} + \int_0^t e^{Y_t - Y_s} c_2(t) dB_s + \int_0^t e^{Y_t - Y_s} (\sigma_2(s) - c_1(t)c_2(t)) dt$$
where  $Y_t = \int_0^t c_1(s) dB_s + \int_0^t (\sigma_1(s) - \frac{1}{2}c_1^2(s)) ds$ 

20. Lecture 20 - Tuesday 17 May

# 20.1. Numerical methods for stochastic differential equations.

**Theorem 20.1** (Euler's method). For the stochastic differential equation

$$dX_t = a(X_t) dt + b(X_t) dB_t$$

we simulate  $X_t$  according to

$$X_{t_i} = X_{t_{i-1}} + a(X_{t_{i-1}})\Delta t_j + b(X_{t_{i-1}})\Delta B_{t_i}$$

**Theorem 20.2** (Milstein scheme). For the stochastic differential equation

$$dX_t = a(X_t) dt + b(X_t) dB_t,$$

we simulate  $X_t$  according to

$$X_{t_j} = X_{t_{j-1}} + a(X_{t_{j-1}})\Delta t_j + b(X_{t_{j-1}})\Delta B_{t_j} + \frac{1}{2}b'(X_{t_{j-1}})(\Delta B_{t_j}^2 - \Delta t_j)$$

20.2. Applications to mathematical finance.

20.3. Martingale method. Consider a market with risky security  $S_t$  and riskless security  $\beta_t$ .

**Definition 20.3** (Contingent claim). A random variable  $C_T : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathcal{F}_T$ -measurable is called a contingent claim. If  $C_T$  is  $\sigma(S_T)$ -measurable it is **path-independent**.

**Definition 20.4** (Strategy). Let  $a_t$  represent number of units of  $S_t$ , and  $b_t$  represent number of units of  $\beta_t$ . If  $a_t, b_t$  are  $\mathcal{F}_t$ -adapted, then they are strategies in our market model. Our strategy value  $V_t$  at time t is

$$V_t = a_t X_t + b_t \beta_t$$

**Definition 20.5** (Self-financing strategy). A strategy  $(a_t, b_t)$  is self financing if

$$dV_t = a_t dS_t + b_t d\beta_t$$

The intuition is that we make one investment at t = 0, and after that only rebalance between  $S_t$  and  $\beta_t$ .

**Definition 20.6** (Admissible strategy).  $(a_t, b_t)$  is an admissible strategy if it is self financing and  $V_t \geq 0$  for all  $0 \leq t \leq T$ .

**Definition 20.7** (Arbitrage). An arbitrage is an admissible strategy such that  $V_0 = 0, V_T \ge 0$  and  $\mathbb{P}(V_T > 0) > 0$ . Alternatively, an arbitrage is a trading strategy with  $V_0 = 0$ , and  $\mathbb{E}(V_T) > 0$ .

**Definition 20.8** (Attainable claim). A contingent claim  $C_T$  is said to be attainable if there exists an admissible strategy  $(a_t, b_t)$  such that  $V_T = C_T$ . In this case, the portfolio is said to replicate the claim. By the law of one price,  $C_t = V_t$  at all t.

**Definition 20.9** (Complete). The market is said to be **complete** if every contingent claim is attainable

**Theorem 20.10** (Harrison and Pliska). Let  $\mathbb{P}$  denote the real world measure of the underlying asset price  $X_t$ . If the market is arbitrage free, there exists an equivalent measure  $\mathbb{P}^*$ , such that the discounted asset price  $\hat{X}_t$  and every discounted attainable claim  $\hat{C}_t$  are  $\mathbb{P}^*$ -martingales. Further, if the market is complete, then  $\mathbb{P}^*$  is unique. In mathematical terms,

$$C_t = \beta_t \mathbb{E}^{\star}(\beta_T^{-1} C_T \mid \mathcal{F}_t).$$

 $\mathbb{P}^{\star}$  is called the equivalent martingale measure (EMM) or the risk-neutral measure.

21. Lecture 21 - Thursday 19 May

For a trading strategy  $(a_t, b_t)$ , then the value  $V_t$  satisfies

$$V_t = V_0 + \int_0^t \alpha_s \, dS_s + \int_0^t b_s \, d\beta_s$$

where  $B_s$  is the riskless asset.

To price an attainable option X, let  $(a_t, b_t)$  be a trading strategy with value  $V_t$  that replicates X. Then to avoid arbitrage, the value of X at time t = 0 is given by  $V_0$ .

# 21.1. Change of Measure. Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space.

**Definition 21.1** (Equivalent measure). Let  $\mathbb{P}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  be measures on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$ . Then for any  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ , if

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = 0 \iff \mathbb{Q}(A) = 0$$

then we say the measures  $\mathbb{P}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  are equivalent. If  $\mathbb{P}(A) = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbb{Q}(A) = 0$ , we write Q << P.

**Theorem 21.2** (Radon-Nikodyn). Let  $Q \ll P$ . Then there exists a random variable  $\lambda$  such that  $\lambda \geq 0$ ,  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda) = 1$  and

$$Q(A) = \int_A d\mathbb{P} = \mathbb{E}_p(\lambda \mathbf{1}_A)$$

for any  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ .  $\lambda$  is  $\mathbb{P}$ =almost surely unique.

Conversely, if there exists  $\lambda$  such that  $\lambda \geq 1$ ,  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda) = 1$ , then defining

$$\mathbb{Q}(A) = \int_{A} \lambda \, d\mathbb{P}$$

and then  $\mathbb{Q}$  is a probability measure and  $\mathbb{Q} << \mathbb{P}$ . Consequently, if Q << P, then

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{O}}(Z) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda Z)$$

whenever  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}(|Z|) < \infty$ .

The random variable  $\lambda$  is called the density of  $\mathbb{Q}$  with respect to  $\mathbb{P}$ , and denoted by

$$\lambda = \frac{d\mathbb{Q}}{d\mathbb{P}}$$

**Example 21.3.** Let  $X \sim N(0,1)$  and  $Y \sim N(\mu,1)$  under probability  $\mathbb{P}$ . Then there exists a  $\mathbb{Q}$  such that  $\mathbb{Q}$  is equivalent to  $\mathbb{P}$  and  $Y \sim N(0,1)$  under  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

Proof.

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{P}(X \in A) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_A e^{-\frac{t^2}{2}} dt \\ \text{Define } \mathbb{Q}(A) &= \int_A e^{-\mu X - \frac{\mu^2}{2}} d\mathbb{P} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_A e^{-\mu x - \frac{\mu^2}{2}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_A e^{-\frac{(\mu + x)^2}{2}} dx \end{split}$$

Then  $\mathbb{Q} << \mathbb{P}, \mathbb{P} << \mathbb{Q}$  and let

$$\lambda = \frac{d\mathbb{Q}}{d\mathbb{P}} = e^{-\mu X - \frac{\mu^2}{2}}$$

Then  $\lambda$  satisfies the conditions of Radon-Nikodyn theorem.

Then we have

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}(Y) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}((X+\mu)\lambda)$$

$$= \int (X+\mu)e^{-\mu X - \frac{\mu^2}{2}} d\mathbb{P}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}(x+\mu)e^{-\frac{(\mu+x)^2}{2}} dx = 0$$

22. Lecture 22 - Tuesday 24 May

**Theorem 22.1.** Let  $\lambda(t), 0 \leq t \leq T$  be a positive martingale with respect to  $\mathcal{F}_t$  such that

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda(T)) = 1.$$

Define a new probability measure  $\mathbb{Q}$  by

$$\mathbb{Q}(A) = \int_{A} \lambda(T) \, d\mathbb{P}$$

Then  $\mathbb{Q} \ll \mathbb{P}$  and for any random variable X, we have

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}(X) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda(T)X)$$

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}(X \mid \mathcal{F}_t) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}\left(\frac{\lambda(T)X}{\lambda(t)} \mid \mathcal{F}_t\right)$$

$$= \frac{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda(T)X \mid \mathcal{F}_t)}{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda(T) \mid \mathcal{F}_t)} a.s.$$
(\*)

and if  $X \in \mathcal{F}_t$ , then for any  $s \leq t$ , we have

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}(X \mid \mathcal{F}_s) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}\left(\frac{\lambda(t)X}{\lambda(s)} \mid \mathcal{F}_s\right) \tag{**}$$

Consequently a process S(t) is a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -martingale if and only if

$$S(t)\lambda(t)$$
 (†)

is a  $\mathbb{P}$ -martingale

*Proof.*  $(\star)$ . We have

$$\mathbb{Q}(\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda(T)) \mid \mathcal{F}_t = 0) = \mathbb{E}_p(\lambda(T) \mathbf{1}_{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda(T) \mid \mathcal{F}_t = 0)})$$
$$= 0$$

We have

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}\left(\frac{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda(T)X\mid\mathcal{F}_{t})}{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda(T)\mid\mathcal{F}_{t})}\mathbf{1}_{A}\right) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}\left(\lambda(t)\frac{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda(T)X\mid\mathcal{F}_{t})}{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda(T)\mid\mathcal{F}_{t})}\mathbf{1}_{A}\right)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}\left(\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda(T)X\mid\mathcal{F}_{t})\mathbf{1}_{A}\right)$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda(T)X\mathbf{1}_{A})$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}(X\mathbf{1}_{A})$$

 $(\star\star)$ . We have

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}\left(\frac{\lambda(t)X}{\lambda(s)} \mid \mathcal{F}_{s}\right) \frac{1}{\lambda(s)} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda(t)X \mid \mathcal{F}_{s})$$

$$= \frac{1}{\lambda(s)} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}\left(\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda(T)X \mid \mathcal{F}_{t}) \mid \mathcal{F}_{s}\right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\lambda(s)} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda(T)X \mid \mathcal{F}_{s})$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}(X \mid \mathcal{F}_{s})$$

because of  $(\star)$ .

(†). We have

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}(S(t) \mid \mathcal{F}_u) = S(u)$$

$$\iff \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}\left(\frac{\lambda(t)S(t)}{\lambda(u)} \mid \mathcal{F}_u\right) = S(u)$$

$$\iff \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(\lambda(t)S(t) \mid \mathcal{F}_u) = \lambda(u)S(u)$$

as required.

**Theorem 22.2.** Let  $B_s, 0 \le s \le T$  be a Brownian motion under  $\mathbb{P}$ . Let  $S(t) = B_t + \mu_t, u \ne 0$ . Then there exists a  $\mathbb{Q}$  equivalent to  $\mathbb{P}$  such that S(t) is a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -Brownian motion and

$$\lambda(T) = \frac{d\mathbb{Q}}{d\mathbb{P}} = e^{-\mu B_T - \frac{1}{2}\mu^2 T}.$$

Note that S(t) is not a martingale under  $\mathbb{P}$ , but it is a martingale under  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

*Proof.* Under  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,

$$\mathbb{Q}(B_0 = 0) = \int_{B_0 = 0} \lambda(T) d\mathbb{P} = 1$$

S(t) is a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -martingale if and only if  $S(t)\lambda(t)$  is a  $\mathbb{P}$ -martingale. But we have

$$X_t = S(t)\lambda(t) = (B_t + \mu t) e^{-\mu B_t - \frac{1}{2}\mu^2 t}$$

is a martingale.

Finally, note that

$$[S, S](t) = [B, B](t) = t$$

# 22.1. Black-Scholes model.

**Definition 22.3** (Black-Scholes model). The Black-Scholes model assumes the risky asset  $S_t$  follows the diffusion process given by

$$\frac{dS_t}{S_t} = \mu \, dt + \sigma \, dB_t$$

and the riskless asset follows the diffusion

$$\frac{d\beta_t}{\beta_t} = r \, dt$$

Define the discounted process as follows:

$$\hat{S}_t = \frac{S_t}{\beta_t}, \quad \hat{V}_t = \frac{V_t}{\beta_t}, \quad \hat{C}_t = \frac{C_t}{\beta_t}.$$

23. Lecture 23 - Thursday 26 May

## Lemma 23.1.

(a) By a simple application of Itô's lemma,

$$\frac{d\hat{S}_t}{\hat{S}_t} = (\mu - r) dt + \sigma dB_t.$$

(b)  $\hat{S}_t$  is a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -martingale with

$$\lambda = \frac{d\mathbb{Q}}{d\mathbb{P}} = e^{-qB_T - \frac{1}{2}q^2T}$$

with  $q = \frac{\mu - r}{\sigma}$ .

(c) Note that

$$\frac{d\hat{S}_t}{\hat{S}_t} = \sigma d(B_t + \frac{\mu - r}{\sigma}t) = \sigma d\hat{B}_t$$

where  $\hat{B}_t = B_t + qt$  is a Brownian motion under  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

(d)  $d\hat{S}_t = \sigma \hat{S}_t d\hat{B}_t$ .

- (e) In a finite market, where  $S_t$  takes only finitely many values,  $\hat{S}_t$  is a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -martingale is a necessary condition for no-arbitrage.
- (f) Note that

$$\frac{dS_t}{S_t} = \mu \, dt + \sigma \, dB_t = r \, dt + \sigma \, d\hat{B}_t$$

**Theorem 23.2.** A value process  $V_t$  is self financing if and only if the discounted value process  $\hat{V}_t$  is a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -martingale.

$$\begin{split} d\hat{V}_t &= a_t \, d\hat{S}_t \\ \iff V_t &= V_0 + \int_0^t a_s \, dS_s + \int_0^t b_s \, d\beta_s \\ \iff V_t \ is \ self \ financing. \end{split}$$

Proof. By Itô's formula, we have

$$d\hat{V}_t = e^{-rt} dV_t - re^{-rt} V_t dt$$

$$= e^{-rt} (a_t dS_t + b_t d\beta_t) - re^{-rt} (a_t S_t + b_t \beta_t) dt$$

$$a_t (e^{-rt} dS_t - re^{-rt} dt)$$

$$= a_t d\hat{S}_t$$

**Theorem 23.3.** In the Black-Scholes model, there are no arbitrage opportunities.

*Proof.* For any admissible trading strategy  $(a_t, b_t)$ , we have that the discounted value process  $\hat{V}_t$  is a Q-martingale. So if  $V_0 = 0$ , then  $\mathbb{E}(\hat{V}_0) = 0$ , and we have

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\hat{V}_T) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\hat{V}_T \,|\, \mathcal{F}_0) = \hat{V}_0 = 0$$

which implies  $\mathbb{Q}(\hat{V}_T > 0) = 0$ , which implies  $\mathbb{P}(V_T > 0) = 0$ , which implies that  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}(V_T) = 0$ , which implies no arbitrage.

**Theorem 23.4.** For any self financing strategy,

$$V_t = a_t S_t + b_t \beta_t = V_0 + \int_0^t a_u \, dS_u + \int_0^t b_u \, d\beta_u$$

And so a strategy is self financing if

$$S_t da_t + \beta_t db_t + d[a, S](t) = 0$$

We now consider several cases.

(1) If  $a_t$  is of bounded variation, then [a, S](t) = 0. Hence

$$S_t da_t + \beta_t db_t = 0,$$

which implies

$$db_t = -\frac{S_t}{\beta_t} \, da_t$$

Hence  $da_t \cdot db_t < 0$ .

(2) If  $a_t$  is a semi-martingale  $a_t = a_t^2 + A_t$ , then  $b_t$  must be a semi-martingale, where  $b_t = b_t^2 + B_t$  where  $a_t^2, b_t^2$  are the martingale parts and  $A_t, B_t$  are of bounded variation.

## 24. Lecture 24 - Tuesday 31 May

**Theorem 24.1.** Given a claim  $C_T$  under the self-financing assumption, there exists a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -martingale such that

$$V_t = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}\left(e^{-r(T-t)C_T \mid \mathcal{F}_t}\right), \mathcal{F}_t = \sigma(B_s, 0 \le s \le t).$$

In particular, we have

$$V_0 = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}(e^{-rT}C_T)$$

*Proof.* For any Q-martingale  $\hat{V}_t$ , we have  $\hat{V}_t = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\hat{V}_T \mid \mathcal{F}_t)$ . Then

$$V_t = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}(e^{-r(T-t)}C_T \mid \mathcal{F}_t),$$

as  $V_T = C_T$ .

**Theorem 24.2.** A claim is attainable (there exists a trading strategy replicating the claim), that is,

$$V_t = V_0 + G(t)$$
 
$$G(t) = \int_0^t a_u dS_u + \int_0^t b_u d\beta_u$$
 
$$V_T \ge 0, V_T = C_T$$

**Theorem 24.3.** Suppose that  $C_T$  is a non-negative random variable,  $C_t \in \mathcal{F}_T$  and  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}(C_T^2 f < \infty)$ , where  $\mathbb{Q}$  is defined as before. Then

- (a) The claim is replicable.
- (b)

$$V_t = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}} \left( e^{-r(T-t)} C_T \,|\, \mathcal{F}_t \right) \iff \hat{V}_t = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}} (\hat{C}_T \,|\, \mathcal{F}_t)$$

where  $\hat{C}_T = e - rTC_T$ .

In particular,  $V_0 = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}(e^{-rT}C_T) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\hat{C}_T)$ .

**Theorem 24.4.** Assume  $\hat{V}_t = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}(\hat{C}_T | \mathcal{F}_t)$ . Using the martingale representation theorem, there exists an adapted process H(s) such that

$$\hat{V}_t = \hat{V}_0 \int_0^t H(s) \, d\hat{B}_s \iff d\hat{V}_t = H(t) \, d\hat{B}_t.$$

On the other hand,  $d\hat{V}_t = a_t d\hat{S}_t = a_t \cdot \sigma \hat{S}_t d\hat{B}_t$ . Hence we obtain our required result,

$$a_t = \frac{H(t)}{\sigma \hat{S}_t},$$

and then solve for  $b_t$ .

**Example 24.5.** Let  $C_T = f(S_T)$ . Then  $V_t = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}\left(e^{-r(T-t)f(S_T)|\mathcal{F}_t}\right)$ . Since  $\mathcal{F}_t = \sigma(B_s, 0 \leq s \leq t) = \sigma(\hat{B}_s, 0 \leq s \leq t)$ , and  $\hat{S}_t$  is a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -martingale, we have

$$\hat{S}_t = \hat{S}_0 e^{-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}t + \sigma \hat{B}_t}$$

and so

$$S_T = e^{rT} \hat{S}_T = \hat{S}_t e^{rT} e^{-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}(T-t) + \sigma(\hat{B}_T - \hat{B}_t)}$$

Then

$$V_t = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}} \left[ e^{-r(T-t)} f \left( e^{rT} \hat{S}_t e^{-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}(T-t) + \sigma(\hat{B}_T - \hat{B}_t)} \right) \right]$$

and so

$$V_t = F(t, S_t)$$

where

$$F(t,x) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}} \left[ e^{-r(T-t)} f\left(e^{\left(-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)(T-t) + \sigma\sqrt{T-t}Z}\right) \right]$$
$$= e^{-r(T-t)} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f\left(xe^{-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}(T-t) + \sigma z\sqrt{T-t}}\right) \phi(z) dz$$

where  $\phi(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{z^2}{2}}$ .

**Example 24.6.** In particular, if  $f(y) = (y - K)^+$ , then we obtain

$$\begin{split} F(t,x) &= e^{-r\theta} \int_{-d_1'}^{\infty} x e^{-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}\theta + xz\sqrt{\theta} - \frac{z^2}{2}} \, dz - K \int_{-d_1'}^{\infty} e^{-r\theta - \frac{z^2}{2}} \, dz \\ &= x \Phi(d_1' + \sigma\sqrt{\theta}) - K e^{-r\theta} \Phi(d_1') \\ &= x \Phi(d_1) - K e^{-r\theta} \Phi(d_2), \end{split}$$

where

$$d_1 = \frac{\log\left(\frac{x}{K}\right) + (r + \frac{\sigma^2}{2})\theta}{\sigma\sqrt{\theta}}, \quad d_2 = d_1 - \sigma\sqrt{\theta}$$

**Theorem 24.7** (Black-Scholes model summary).  $V_t = a_t S_t + b_t \beta_t$ , where

$$\frac{dS_t}{S_t} = \mu \, dt + \sigma \, dB_t$$

$$\frac{d\beta_t}{\beta_t} = r \, dt$$

(a)  $\hat{S}_t = e^{-rt} S_t$  is a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -martingale, where

$$\frac{d\mathbb{Q}}{d\mathbb{P}} = e^{-qB_T - \frac{1}{2}q^2T}$$

and  $q = \frac{\mu - r}{\sigma}$ . Then  $\hat{B}_t = B_t + \frac{\mu - r}{\sigma}t$  is a Q-Brownian motion, and  $d\hat{S}_t = \sigma \hat{S}_t d\hat{B}_t$ .

(b)  $V_t$  is self-financing if  $(a_t, b_t)$  satisfies

$$S_t da_t + \beta_t db_t + d[a, S](t) = 0$$

which then implies  $\hat{V}_t$  is a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -martingale,  $\hat{V}_t = e^{-rt}V_t$ .

(c) There are no arbitrage opportunities in the Black-Scholes model.

## 25. Lecture 25 - Thursday 2 June

**Theorem 25.1** (Feyman-Kac formula).

(1) Suppose the function F(x,t) solves the boundary value problem

$$\frac{\partial F(t,x)}{\partial t} + \mu(t,x) \frac{\partial F(t,x)}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2(t,x) \frac{\partial^2 F(t,x)}{\partial x^2} = 0$$

such that  $F(T, x) = \Psi(x)$ .

(2) Let  $S_t$  be a solution of the SDE

$$dS_t = \mu(t, S_t) dt + \sigma(t, S_t) dB_t \tag{*}$$

where  $B_t$  is a  $\mathbb{Q}$ -Brownian motion

(3) Assume

$$\int_{0}^{T} \mathbb{E}(\sigma(t, S_{t}) \frac{\partial^{2} F(t, S_{t})}{\partial x^{2}}) dt < \infty$$

Then

$$F(t, S_t) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{O}} \left( \Psi(S_T) \,|\, \mathcal{F}_t \right) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{O}} \left( F(T, S_T) \,|\, \mathcal{F}_t \right).$$

where  $\mathcal{F}_t = \sigma(B_s, 0 \le s \le t)$ .

*Proof.* It is enough to show that  $F(t, S_t)$  is a martingale with respect to  $\mathcal{F}_t$  under  $\mathbb{Q}$ . By Itô's lemma, we have

$$dF(t, S_t) = \frac{\partial f(t, S_t)}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial F(t, S_t)}{\partial x} dS_t + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 F(t, S_t)}{\partial x^2} \cdot (dS_t)^2$$

$$= \left[ \frac{\partial F}{\partial t} + \mu(t, S_t) \frac{\partial F}{\partial x} + \frac{\sigma^2(t, S_t)}{2} \frac{\partial^2 F(t, S_t)}{\partial x^2} \right] dt + \frac{\partial F(t, S_t)}{\partial x} \sigma(t, S_t) dB_t$$

$$= \frac{\partial F(t, S_t)}{\partial x} \sigma(t, S_t) dB_t$$

which is a Q-martingale.

**Theorem 25.2** (General Feynman-Kac formula). Let  $S_t$  be a solution of the SDE  $(\star)$ . Assume that there is a solution to the PDE

$$\frac{\partial F(t,x)}{\partial t} + \mu(t,x)\frac{\partial F(t,x)}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2(t,x)\frac{\partial^2 F(t,x)}{\partial x^2} = r(t,x)F(t,x).$$

Then

$$F(t, S_t) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}\left(e^{-\int_t^T r(u, S_u) du} F(T, S_T) \mid \mathcal{F}_t\right)$$

Proof. Again by Itô's lemma,

$$dF(t, S_t) = \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial t} + \mu \frac{\partial F}{\partial x} + \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial x^2}\right) dt + \frac{\partial F}{\partial x} \cdot \sigma(t, S_t) dB_t$$
$$= r(t, x)F(t, S_t) dt + dM_t$$

where  $M_t = \int_0^t \frac{\partial F}{\partial x} \sigma(u, S_u) dB_u$ . Hence we have

$$dF(t, S_t) = r(t, S_t)X_t dt + dM_t$$

$$d\left[e^{-\int_t^{\nu} r(u,s_u) du} X_{\nu}\right] = e^{-\int_t^{\nu} r(u,S_u) du} dM_{\nu} \tag{$\Rightarrow$}$$

$$e^{-\int_{t}^{T} r(u,S_{u}) du} F(T,S_{T}) = F(t,S_{t}) + \int_{t}^{T} e^{-\int_{t}^{\nu} r(u,S_{u}) du} dM_{\nu}$$
 (\Rightarrow)

$$\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}\left(e^{-\int_{t}^{T}r(u,S_{u})\,du}F(T,S_{T})\,|\,\mathcal{F}_{t}\right) = F(t,S_{t})\tag{$\Rightarrow$}$$

$$+\underbrace{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}\left(\int_{t}^{T}e^{-\int_{t}^{\nu}r(u,S_{u})\,du}\,\frac{\partial F}{\partial x}\sigma(\nu,S_{\nu})\,dB_{\nu}\,|\,\mathcal{F}_{t}\right)}_{=0}$$

and so we obtain our result,

$$F(t, S_t) = \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{Q}}\left(e^{-\int_t^T r(u, S_u) \, du} F(T, S_T) \, | \, \mathcal{F}_t\right)$$