Stochastic Analysis

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Chapter 1

Introduction and Preliminaries

1.1 Probability Theory

1.1.1 Random Variables

Let $(\Omega, \mathscr{F}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space, and (E, \mathscr{E}) another measure space. An *E-valued random variable*, or simply a *random variable* is a measurable function $X:(\Omega, \mathscr{F}) \to (E, \mathscr{E})$. Most commonly, we will take $(E, \mathscr{E}) = (\mathbb{R}, \mathscr{B}\mathbb{R})$ and call X a *real random variable*.

The *law* or *distribution* of a random variable X is the probability measure \mathbb{P}_X on (E, \mathcal{E}) , also denoted \mathcal{L}_X , defined by

$$\mathbb{P}_X[A] := \mathbb{P}[X \in A] = \mathbb{P}[\{\omega \in \Omega \colon X(\omega) \in A\}].$$

The σ -algebra generated by X is defined by

$$\sigma(X) := \{X^{-1}(A) : A \in \mathscr{E}\}.$$

It is usually interpreted as the "information" known to X.

An *E-valued stochastic process* is a parameterized family $X = (X_{\alpha} : \alpha \in A)$ of *E-*valued random variables X_{α} on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. It also generates a σ -algebra defined by

$$\sigma(X) := \sigma\left(igcup_{lpha\in A} \sigma(X_lpha)
ight).$$

1.1.2 Independence

Events $A, B \in \mathcal{F}$ are independent if

$$\mathbb{P}[A \cap B] = \mathbb{P}[A]\mathbb{P}[B]. \tag{1.1}$$

Two σ -algebras $\mathscr{A}, \mathscr{B} \subseteq \mathscr{F}$ are *independent* if (1.1) holds for all $A \in \mathscr{A}$ and $B \in \mathscr{B}$. To check this, it suffices to check (1.1) for all $A \in \Pi_{\mathscr{A}}, B \in \Pi_{\mathscr{B}}$, where $\Pi_{\mathscr{A}}$ and $\Pi_{\mathscr{B}}$ are π -systems generating \mathscr{A} and \mathscr{B} respectively.

Two random variables/stochastic processes X,Y are *independent* if $\sigma(X)$ and $\sigma(Y)$ are independent.

The above defintions can be generalized to the situation in which we have an arbitrary family $(\mathscr{A}_{\lambda})_{\lambda \in \Lambda}$ of σ -algebras. In this case, the \mathscr{A}_{λ} are *independent* if

$$\mathbb{P}[A_{\lambda_1} \cap \dots \cap A_{\lambda_n}] = \mathbb{P}[A_{\lambda_1}] \dots \mathbb{P}[A_{\lambda_n}] \tag{1.2}$$

For all distinct $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n \in \Lambda$, and all $A_{\lambda_i} \in \mathcal{A}_{\lambda_i}$.

If *X* and *Y* are independent and integrable real random variables (integrable meaning $\mathbb{E}[|X|] < \infty$ and $\mathbb{E}[|Y|] < \infty$, then

$$\mathbb{E}[XY] = \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]. \tag{1.3}$$

This can be shown by approximating by simple functions.

If X, Y are independent (E_1, \mathcal{E}_1) -valued random variables, and we are given measurable functions $f, g: (E_1, \mathcal{E}_1) \to (E_2, \mathcal{E}_2)$, then f(X) and g(Y) are independent. Actually, this is quite easy to show: let $A, B \in \mathcal{E}_2$. Then

$$\mathbb{P}[\{f(X) \in A\} \cap \{g(Y) \in B\}] = \mathbb{P}[\{X \in f^{-1}(A)\} \cap \{Y \in g^{-1}(B)\}]$$

$$= \mathbb{P}[X \in f^{-1}(A)]\mathbb{P}[Y \in g^{-1}(B)]$$

$$= \mathbb{P}[f(X) \in A]\mathbb{P}[g(Y) \in B].$$
(1.4)

As a corollary, if f(X) and g(Y) are integrable (this is the situation if, e.g., f and g are bounded) and real, then

$$\mathbb{E}[f(X)g(Y)] = \mathbb{E}[f(X)]\mathbb{E}[g(Y)]. \tag{1.5}$$

Also, since

$$\mathbb{P}[\{X \in A\} \cap \{Y \in B\}] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{1}_A(X)\mathbb{1}_B(Y)] \tag{1.6}$$

for all $A, B \in \mathcal{E}_1$, we can check independence of X and Y by proving (1.5) for all bounded measurable $f: (E_1, \mathcal{E}_1) \to (\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}))$.

1.1.3 Characteristic Functions

Given a real random variable X, its *characteristic function* is the complex-valued function $\varphi_X(\theta) := \mathbb{E}[e^{i\theta X}]$ for $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$. The characteristic function always exists since $|e^{i\theta X}| = 1$. More precisely, the characteristic function of X is the inverse Fourier transform of the probability measure \mathbb{P}_X . Fourier inversion then gives us that \mathbb{P}_X is recoverable from its characteristic function φ_X . In particular, $\varphi_X = \varphi_Y$ implies $X \stackrel{\mathscr{D}}{=} Y$. More explicit methods of calculating \mathbb{P}_X given φ_X are available in the literature, in the form of numerous *inversion formulae*.

We can also define the *characteristic function* of an \mathbb{R}^d -valued random variable X by $\varphi_X(\theta) := \mathbb{E}[e^{i\theta \cdot X}]$ for $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^d$. The above theory also holds in this situation.

Real random variables X_1, \dots, X_n are independent if and only if

$$\mathbb{E}[e^{i\theta_1 X_1 + \dots + \theta_n X_n}] = \mathbb{E}[e^{i\theta_1 X_1}] \dots \mathbb{E}[e^{i\theta_n X_n}]$$
(1.7)

for all $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_n \in \mathbb{R}$.

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1.1.4 The Normal Distribution

The *normal distribution* with *mean* $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ and *variance* $\sigma^2 \geq 0$ is the probability measure $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ on $(\mathbb{R}, \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$ defined by

$$\mathcal{N}(\mu, 0) := \delta_0 \qquad \text{if } \sigma^2 = 0; \tag{1.8}$$

$$\mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)(dx) := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx \qquad \text{if } \sigma^2 > 0.$$
 (1.9)

A real random variable distributed normally is called a Gaussian random variable.

Proposition 1. Let $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$. Then the following hold.

- (1) For all $a \in \mathbb{R}$, $X + a \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu + a, \sigma^2)$.
- (2) For all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, $\alpha X \sim \mathcal{N}(\alpha \mu, (\alpha \sigma)^2)$.
- (3) The characteristic function of X is

$$\varphi_X(\theta) = e^{i\theta\mu - \frac{1}{2}\theta^2\sigma^2}.$$
(1.10)

Furthermore, if $X_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2)$ and $X_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \sigma_2^2)$ are independent, then $X_1 + X_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1 + \mu_2, \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)$.

Proof. We do the proofs only in the case $\sigma^2 > 0$. For (1) and (2), we use the fact that the set $\{(-\infty, t] : t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ of half-infinite intervals generates the Borel σ -algebra $\mathscr{B}(\mathbb{R})$.

(1) Let $t \in \mathbb{R}$. We then calculate

$$\mathbb{P}[X+a \le t] = \mathbb{P}[X \le t - a]$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{t-a} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{t} e^{-\frac{(y-(\mu+a)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx \quad \text{where } y = x + a$$

$$= \mathcal{N}(\mu + a, \sigma^2)((-\infty, t]).$$
(1.11)

(2) We similarly calculate

$$\mathbb{P}[\alpha X \le t] = \mathbb{P}\left[X \le \frac{t}{\alpha}\right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\frac{t}{\alpha}} e^{-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{t} e^{-\frac{(\frac{y}{\alpha}-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}} dx \quad \text{where } y = \alpha x$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{t} e^{-\frac{(y-\alpha\mu)^2}{2(\alpha\sigma)^2}} dx$$

$$= \mathcal{N}(\alpha\mu, (\alpha\sigma)^2)((-\infty, t]).$$
(1.12)

(3) Suppose first that $\mu = 0$ and $\sigma^2 = 1$, so that X has density

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}. (1.13)$$

Note that

$$f'(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} = -\frac{x}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}} = -xf(x). \tag{1.14}$$

We integrate by parts to find

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} f'(x)e^{i\theta x} dx = -\int_{\mathbb{R}} i\theta f(x)e^{i\theta x} dx = -i\theta \varphi_X(\theta)$$
 (1.15)

and also

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} x f(x) e^{i\theta x} dx = -i \frac{d}{d\theta} \int_{\mathbb{R}} f(x) e^{i\theta x} dx = -i \varphi_X'(\theta).$$
 (1.16)

Integrating (1.14) against $e^{i\theta x}$, we obtain the ODE

$$-i\theta \varphi_X(\theta) - i\varphi_X'(\theta) = 0, \qquad (1.17)$$

which we solve to find $\varphi_X(\theta) = e^{-\frac{\theta^2}{2}}$.

Next, consider the situation in which $\mu\in\mathbb{R}$ and $\sigma^2>0$ are arbitrary. Note then that $\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}\sim\mathcal{N}(0,1)$, so our above calculation implies

$$\mathbb{E}\left[e^{i\theta\left(\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}\right)}\right] = e^{-\frac{\theta^2}{2}}.\tag{1.18}$$

However,

$$\mathbb{E}[e^{i\theta\left(\frac{X-\mu}{\sigma}\right)}] = e^{-i\frac{\theta}{\sigma}\mu}\mathbb{E}[e^{i\frac{\theta}{\sigma}X}] \tag{1.19}$$

Making the transformation $\theta \mapsto \sigma \theta$, this implies

$$\varphi_X(\theta) = e^{i\theta\mu - \frac{1}{2}\theta^2\sigma^2},\tag{1.20}$$

as required.

For our final statement, we make use of (1.7) to find

$$\varphi_{X_1+X_2}(\theta) = e^{i\theta\mu_1 - \frac{1}{2}\theta^2\sigma_1^2}e^{i\theta\mu_2 - \frac{1}{2}\theta^2\sigma_2^2} = e^{i\theta(\mu_1+\mu_2) - \frac{1}{2}\theta^2(\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)}.$$
 (1.21)

So $X_1 + X_2$ has the characteristic function of an $\mathcal{N}(\mu_1 + \mu_2, \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)$ real random variable, which implies $X_1 + X_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1 + \mu_2, \sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2)$ since characteristic functions determine the distribution of a random variable.

Proposition 2. Let $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$. Then

(1)
$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu$$
;

(2)
$$\mathbb{E}[(X - \mu)^2] = \sigma^2$$
.

A real stochastic process $X = (X_{\alpha} : \alpha \in A)$ is *Gaussian* if $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \theta_{i} X_{\alpha_{i}}$ is a Gaussian random variable for all $\theta_{i} \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\alpha_{i} \in A$. If (X,Y) is a Gaussian pair, then X and Y are independent if and only if $\mathbb{E}[XY] = \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]$.

1.2 Brownian Motion

An \mathbb{R} -valued stochastic process $B = (B: t \ge 0)$ is a *Brownian motion* if

- (B1) It has independent increments. That is, the random variables $B_{t_1}, B_{t_2} B_{t_1}, \dots, B_{t_N} B_{t_{N-1}}$ are independent for all $0 \le t_1 \le \dots \le t_N$.
- (B2) The map $t \mapsto B_t(\omega)$ is continuous a.s.
- (B3) $B_0 = 0$ and $B_t B_s \sim \mathcal{N}(0, t s)$ for all $0 \le s \le t$.

This definition of Brownian motion is not universal, although all definitions are equivalent. One variant is the *Gaussian variant*: a stochastic process $(B_t:t\geq 0)$ is a Brownian motion if it is a Gaussian process, $\mathbb{E}[B_t]=0$ for all $t\geq 0$, $\mathbb{E}[B_sB_t]=s\wedge t$ for all $s,t\geq 0$, and the map $t\mapsto B_t$ is continuous a.s. A second variant is the so-called *Bachelier variant*, where (B3) is replaced by (B3'): for all $s,t\geq 0$ and $t,t\geq 0$ and

Our variant will replace (B1) by (B1'): $B_t - B_s$ is independent of $\sigma(B_r : 0 \le r \le s)$ for all $t \ge s \ge 0$. Let's show that (B1) and (B1') are actually equivalent. Suppose (B1) holds, and let $t \ge s \ge 0$. Choose $0 \le r_1 \le \cdots \le r_N \le s$. For Borel sets $A_1, \ldots, A_N, B \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R})$, we have

$$\mathbb{P}[B_{r_1} \in A_1, B_{r_2} - B_{r_1} \in A_2, \dots, B_{r_N} - B_{r_{N-1}} \in A_N, B_t - B_s \in B]$$

$$= \mathbb{P}[B_{r_1} \in A_1, B_{r_2} - B_{r_1} \in A_2, \dots, B_{r_N} - B_{r_{N-1}} \in A_N, B_s - B_{r_N} \in \mathbb{R}, B_t - B_s \in B],$$
(1.22)

so we can assume, without loss of generality, that $r_N = s$. Let $f, g: \mathbb{R}^N \to \mathbb{R}$ be bounded and Borel measurable functions. Define $\widetilde{f}: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ by

$$\widetilde{f}(y_1, \dots, y_N) := f(y_1, y_1 + y_2, \dots, y_1 + \dots + y_N).$$
 (1.23)

Then $f(x_1,...,x_N) = \widetilde{f}(x_1,x_2-x_1,...,x_N-x_{N-1})$. By independent increments,

$$\mathbb{E}[f(B_{r_1}, \dots, B_{r_N})g(B_t - B_s)] = \mathbb{E}[\widetilde{f}(B_{r_1}, B_{r_2} - B_{r_1}, \dots, B_{r_N} - B_{r_{N-1}})g(B_t - B_s)]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[\widetilde{f}(B_{r_1}, B_{r_2} - B_{r_1}, \dots, B_{r_N} - B_{r_{N-1}})]\mathbb{E}[g(B_t - B_s)]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[f(B_{r_1}, \dots, B_{r_N})]\mathbb{E}[g(B_t - B_s)].$$
(1.24)