Chapter 1

Week1

1.1. Tuesday

1.1.1. Difference between ODE and SDE

We first discuss the difference between deterministic differential equations and stochastic ones by considering several real-life problems.

Problem 1: Population Growth Model. Consider the first-order ODE

$$\begin{cases} \frac{dN(t)}{dt} = a(t)N(t) \\ N(0) = N_0 \end{cases}$$

where N(t) denotes the **size** of the population at time t; a(t) is the given (deterministic) function describing the **rate** of growth of population at time t; and N_0 is a given constant.

If a(t) is not completely known, e.g.,

$$a(t) = r(t) \cdot \text{noise}$$
, or $r(t) + \text{noise}$,

with r(t) being a deterministic function of t, and the "noise" term models something random. The question arises: How to *rigorously* describe the "noise" term and solve it?

Problem 2: Electric Circuit. Let Q(t) denote the charge at time t in an electrical circuit, which admits the following ODE:

$$\begin{cases} LQ''(t) + RQ'(t) + \frac{1}{C}Q(t) = F(t), \\ Q(0) = Q_0, \quad Q'(0) = Q'_0 \end{cases}$$

where L denotes the inductance, R denotes the resistance, C denotes the capacity, and F(t) denotes the potential source.

Now consider the scenario where F(t) is not completely known, e.g.,

$$F(t) = G(t) + \text{noise}$$

where G(t) is deterministic. The question is how to solve the problem.

The differential equations above involving non-deterministic coefficients are called the **stochastic differential equations** (SDEs). Clearly, the solution to an SDE should involve the randomness.

1.1.2. Applications of SDE

Now we discuss some applications of SDE shown in the finance area.

Problem 3: Optimal Stopping Problem. Suppose someone holds an asset (e.g., stock, house). He plans to sell it at some future time. Denote X(t) as the price of the asset at time t, satisfying the following dynamics:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}X(t)}{\mathrm{d}t} = rX(t) + \alpha X(t) \cdot \text{noise}$$

where r, α are given constants. The goal of this person is to maximize the expected selling price:

$$\sup_{\tau>0} \ \mathbb{E}[X(\tau)]$$

where the optimal solution τ^* is the optimal stopping time.

Problem 4: Portfolio Selection Problem. Suppose a person is interested in two types of assets:

• A risk-free asset which generates a deterministic return ρ , whose price $X_1(t)$ follows a deterministic dynamics

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}X_1(t)}{\mathrm{d}t} = \rho X_1(t),$$

• A risky asset whose price $X_2(t)$ satisfies the following SDE:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}X_2(t)}{\mathrm{d}t} = \mu X_2(t) + \sigma X_2(t) \cdot \text{noise}$$

where $\mu, \sigma > 0$ are given constants.

The policy of the investment is as follows. The wealth at time t is denoted as v(t). This person decides to invest the fraction u(t) of his wealth into the risky asset, with the remaining 1-u(t) part to be invested into the safe asset. Suppose that the utility function for this person is $U(\cdot)$, and his goal is to maximize the expected total wealth at the terminal time T:

$$\max_{u(t), 0 \le t \le T} \mathbb{E}[U(v^u(T))]$$

where the decision variable is the portfolio function u(t) along whole horizon [0,T].

Problem 5: Option Pricing Problem. The financial derivates are products in the market whose value depends on the underlying asset. The European call option is a typical financial derivative. Suppose that the underlying asset is stock A, whose price at time t is X(t). Then the call option gives the option holder the right (not the obligation) to buy one unit of stock A at a specified price (strike price) K at maturity date T. The task is to inference the fair price of the option at the current time. The formula for the price of the option is the following:

$$c_0 = \mathbb{E}[(X(T) - K)^+]$$

which is the famous Black-Sholes-Merton Formula.

1.1.3. Reviewing for Probability Space

Firstly, we review some basic concepts in real analysis.

Definition 1.1 [σ -Algebra] A set \mathcal{F} containing subsets of Ω is called a σ -algebra if:

- 1. $\Omega \in \mathcal{F}$;
- 2. \mathcal{F} is closed under complement, i.e., $A \in \mathcal{F}$ implies $\Omega \setminus A \in \mathcal{F}$;
- 3. \mathcal{F} is closed under countably union operation, i.e., $A_i \in \mathcal{F}, i \geq 1$ implies $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{F}$.

Definition 1.2 [Probability Measure] A function $\mathbb{P}:\mathcal{F}\to\mathbb{R}$ is called a **probability** measure on (Ω,\mathcal{F}) if

- $\mathbb{P}(\Omega) = 1$;
- $\mathbb{P}(A) \ge 0, \forall A \in \mathcal{F};$
- $\mathbb P$ is σ -additive, i.e., when $A_i \in \mathcal F, i \geq 1$ and $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset, \forall i \neq j$,

$$\mathbb{P}\bigg(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\bigg) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \mathbb{P}(A_i).$$

where $\mathbb{P}(A)$ is called the **probability of the event** A.

Definition 1.3 [Probability Space] A probability space is a triplet $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ defined as follows:

- 1. Ω denotes the sample space, and a point $\omega \in \Omega$ is called a sample point;
- 2. \mathcal{F} is a σ -algebra of Ω , which is a collection of subsets in Ω . The element $A \in \mathcal{F}$ is called an "event"; and
- 3. \mathbb{P} is a probability measure defined in the space (Ω, \mathcal{F}) .

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[Almost Surely True] A statement S is said to be almost surely (a.s.) true or true with probability 1, if

- $\mathfrak{B}:=\{w:S(w) \text{ is true}\}\in\mathcal{F}$ $\mathbb{P}(F)=1.$

Definition 1.5 [Topological Space] A **topological space** (X, \mathcal{T}) consists of a (non-empty) set X, and a family of subsets of X ("open sets" $\mathcal T$) such that

- 1. \emptyset , $X \in \mathcal{T}$ 2. $U, V \in \mathcal{T}$ implies $U \cap V \in \mathcal{T}$ 3. If $U_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{T}$ for all $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}$, then $\bigcup_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}} U_{\alpha} \in \mathcal{T}$.

When $A \in \mathcal{T}$, A is called the open subset of X. The \mathcal{T} is called a **topology** on X.

[Borel σ -Algebra] Consider a topological space Ω , with \mathcal{U} being the topology of Ω . The Borel σ -Algebra $\mathcal{B}(\Omega)$ on Ω is defined to be the minimal σ -algebra containing \mathcal{U} :

$$\mathcal{B}(\Omega) \triangleq \sigma(\mathcal{U}).$$

Any element $B \in \mathcal{B}(\Omega)$ is called the **Borel set**.

Definition 1.7 [\mathcal{F} -Measurable / Random Variable]

1. A function $f:(\Omega,\mathcal{F}) \to (\mathbb{R}^n,\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n))$ is called \mathcal{F} -measurable if

$$f^{-1}(\mathbf{B}) = \{ w \mid f(w) \in \mathcal{B} \} \in \mathcal{F},$$

for any $\mathbf{B} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)$.

2. A random variable X is a function $X:(\Omega,\mathcal{F})\to (\mathbb{R}^n,\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n))$ and is \mathcal{F} -measurable.

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Definition 1.8 [Generated σ -Algebra] Suppose X is a random variable on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Then the σ -algebra generated by X, say \mathcal{H}_X is defined to be the **minimal** σ -**algebra** on Ω to make X measurable.

Proposition 1.1 $\mathcal{H}_X = \{X^{-1}(\mathbf{B}): \mathbf{B} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)\}.$

Proof. Since X is \mathcal{H}_X -measurable, for any $\mathbf{B} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)$, $X^{-1}(\mathbf{B}) \in \mathcal{H}_X$. Thus $\mathcal{H}_X \supseteq \{X^{-1}(\mathbf{B}) : \mathbf{B} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)\}$. It suffices to show that $\{X^{-1}(\mathbf{B}) : \mathbf{B} \in \mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n)\}$ is a σ -algebra to finish the proof, which is true since $\mathcal{B}(\mathbb{R}^n) = \sigma(\mathcal{U})$, with \mathcal{U} being the topology of X.