

Brownian Motion

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Ito's Lemma

3.1. First variation. Take $(X_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}_+}$ to be any stochastic process. (This, of course, includes the case of deterministic functions of time.) Imagine that X_t denotes the position at time $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$ of a particle in motion. We wish to define here a quantification of the distance travelled by the particle on the interval $[0, t]$. If we split the interval $[0, t]$ into n equally-spaced subintervals, an approximation for the distance travelled would be

$$\sum_{i=1}^n |X_{ti/n} - X_{t(i-1)/n}|.$$

One then gets the total distance travelled by taking the limiting case where the number of subintervals converges to infinity. We define

$$\text{Var}(X)_t := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n |X_{ti/n} - X_{t(i-1)/n}|.$$

It is easy to see, using the definition of the Riemann integral, that *if X is continuously differentiable with derivative X' , then*

$$\text{Var}(X)_t = \int_0^t |X'_u| du.$$

Ito's Lemma

3.2. Quadratic variation. Even though Brownian motion has infinite first variation, we shall see now that its second-order variation is finite. It is exactly this fact that allows for a nice development of stochastic calculus. Take $X = (X_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}_+}$ and $Y = (Y_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}_+}$ to be any stochastic processes. (As before, this includes the case of deterministic functions of time.) Define the path-wise *covariation of X and Y over $[0, t]$* to be

$$[X, Y]_t := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_{ti/n} - X_{t(i-1)/n}) (Y_{ti/n} - Y_{t(i-1)/n}), \quad t \in \mathbb{R}_+,$$

provided that the previous limit exists. In particular, when $X = Y$ we have

$$[X, X]_t := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{i=1}^n (X_{ti/n} - X_{t(i-1)/n})^2, \quad t \in \mathbb{R}_+,$$

and $[X, X]_t$ is called the *quadratic variation of X over $[0, t]$* . In a very informal way we can write $[X, Y]_t = \int_0^t (\mathrm{d}X_u)(\mathrm{d}Y_u)$ and $[X, X]_t = \int_0^t (\mathrm{d}X_u)^2$; equivalently (and equally informally), $\mathrm{d}[X, Y]_t = (\mathrm{d}X_t)(\mathrm{d}Y_t)$ and $\mathrm{d}[X, X]_t = (\mathrm{d}X_t)^2$ holds for all $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$.

Ito's Lemma

Proposition 3.2. Suppose that $X = (X_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}_+}$ and $Y = (Y_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}_+}$ be two stochastic processes with continuous paths, one of which has finite first variation over $[0, t]$ for some $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$. (In particular, one of them can be continuously differentiable in $[0, t]$.) Then, $[X, Y]_t = 0$ holds.

Proof. Without loss of generality, suppose that $\text{Var}(Y)_t < \infty$. For each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, define the random variable $\chi_n := \sup_{i=1, \dots, n} |X_{ti/n} - X_{t(i-1)/n}|$. Since X has continuous paths, and since a continuous function defined on a compact interval is uniformly continuous, we obtain that $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \chi_n = 0$. Continuing, observe that

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \sum_{i=1}^n (X_{ti/n} - X_{t(i-1)/n}) (Y_{ti/n} - Y_{t(i-1)/n}) \right| &\leq \sum_{i=1}^n |(X_{ti/n} - X_{t(i-1)/n}) (Y_{ti/n} - Y_{t(i-1)/n})| \\ &\leq \chi_n \sum_{i=1}^n |Y_{ti/n} - Y_{t(i-1)/n}| = \chi_n \text{Var}(Y)_t. \end{aligned}$$

Since $\text{Var}(Y)_t < \infty$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \chi_n = 0$ hold, we obtain that $[X, Y]_t = 0$. \square

In particular, if $X_t = Y_t = t$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$, Proposition 3.2 implies that $(dt)^2 = 0$, in our informal notation. Furthermore, taking $X_t = t$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$ and $Y = W$ to be a standard Brownian motion, we obtain, in an informal notation again, $(dt)(dW_t) = 0$.

The informal rules we have established above can be used to compute quadratic variations of more complicated processes; more importantly, the results we obtain using these informal rules can be shown to be formally correct as well, using the definition of quadratic (co)variation. For example, let X be a $\text{BM}(x, \mu, \sigma^2)$. Then, we have $X_t = x + \mu t + \sigma W_t$ for all $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$, which implies that $dX_t = \mu dt + \sigma dW_t$. Then,

$$(dX_t)^2 = (\mu dt + \sigma dW_t)^2 = \mu^2(dt)^2 + 2\mu\sigma(dt)(dW_t) + \sigma^2(dW_t)^2 = \sigma^2 dt,$$

following since $(dt)^2 = 0 = (dt)(dW_t)$ and $(dW_t)^2 = dt$. The relationship $(dX_t)^2 = \sigma^2 dt$ really means that $[X, X]_t = \sigma^2 t$ holds for all $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$, and this is how it should be read.

The following exercise will be of use when we discuss the Itô-Doeblin formula.

Ito's Lemma

We finally conclude that

$$(2.1) \quad X_t Y_t = X_0 Y_0 + \int_0^t X_u dY_u + \int_0^t Y_u dX_u + [X, Y]_t$$

Equation (2.1) is called the *integration-by-parts formula*, and it is usually given in differential form:

$$(2.2) \quad d(X_t Y_t) = X_t dY_t + Y_t dX_t + dX_t dY_t, \quad t \in \mathbb{R}_+.$$

BS Model

- Consider a stock with spot price S
- Assume in a short period of time of length Δt , the return on the stock is normally distributed:

$$\frac{\Delta S}{S} \approx \varphi(\mu\Delta t, \sigma^2\Delta t)$$

where μ is expected return and σ is volatility.

Below example for Apple stocks (AAPLUS)



* - yahoo.finance.com

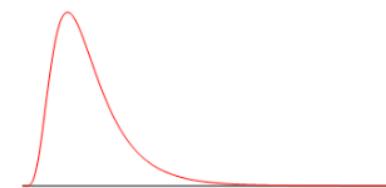
BS Model

- It follows from assumption of normality of returns that stock prices (S_T) are lognormally distributed

$$\ln S_T \sim N(\ln S_0 + \left(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \right) T, \sigma\sqrt{T})$$

where S_T is stock price at time T , S_0 is stock price at time 0, μ is expected return on stock per year, σ is volatility of the stock price per year; $N(\mu, \sigma)$ is normal distribution with mean μ and standard deviation σ

- Continuously compounded annual return of a stock price (x) is normally distributed with mean $\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}$ and a standard deviation $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{T}}$
- $x \sim \varphi \left(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}, \frac{\sigma^2}{T} \right)$
- Expected value of S_T is $ES_T = S_0 e^{\mu T}$
- Expected Return in Δt is μ whereas in T is $\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}$
- Note that mean return will always be slightly less than the expected return μ



$$E(S_T) = S_0 e^{\mu T}$$
$$\text{var}(S_T) = S_0^2 e^{2\mu T} (e^{\sigma^2 T} - 1)$$

BS Model

- What is volatility? The volatility is a standard deviation of continuously compounded rate of return in 1 year (recall $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{T}}$ from previous slide)
- The volatility for short periods of time can be scaled to longer periods in time by multiplying it by the square root of the number of periods ($\sigma \Rightarrow \sigma\sqrt{N}$)
- The volatility estimation process is a matter of collecting daily price data (S_i) and then computing the standard deviation of the series of corresponding continuously compounded returns $\ln(\frac{S_i}{S_{i-1}})$
- The annualized volatility is simply the estimated volatility multiplied by the square root of the number of trading days in a year

BS Model

Historical volatility calculation involves

- Converting a time series of N+1 prices S_i to N returns: $R_i = \frac{S_i - S_{i-1}}{S_{i-1}}$
- Calculate continuously compounded returns: $R_i^c = \ln(1 + R_i) = \ln(S_i/S_{i-1})$
- Calculate the variance $\sigma^2 = \frac{\sum(R_i^c - \bar{R}_i^c)^2}{N-1}$
- Take a square root of the variance

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N-1} \sum (R_i^c - \bar{R}_i^c)^2}$$

- It follows that σ can be estimated as $\hat{\sigma}$

$$\hat{\sigma} = s/\sqrt{\tau}$$

Where τ is an interval in years, for monthly data $\tau = 1/12$, weekly data $\tau = 1/52$

BS Model

1. Underlying asset follows a **lognormal distribution**
2. **No arbitrage**
3. The volatility of the underlying asset is **constant and known.**
4. **No transaction costs or taxes**, all securities are divisible
5. **No dividends** during life of options
6. Security trading is **continuous**
7. Borrow and lend at **constant risk-free rate**
8. **No early exercise**

NB: some of assumptions above may be relaxed (e.g. r and σ can variable but time dependent)

BS Model

- Option price and stock price depend on the same source of uncertainty (for Δf we may use Ito's lemma)

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta S &= \mu S \Delta t + \sigma S \Delta z \\ \Delta f &= \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial S} \mu S + \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial S^2} \sigma^2 S^2 \right) \Delta t + \frac{\partial f}{\partial S} \sigma S \Delta z\end{aligned}$$

- Create a riskless portfolio out of stock and option (to eliminate uncertainty)
- Question how many shares per 1 derivative? Answer: $\frac{\partial f}{\partial S}$ shares
 - 1 derivative + $\frac{\partial f}{\partial S}$ shares
- The portfolio instantaneous return should be risk-free rate
- This leads to BSM differential equation – see derivation slides

BS Model

- Value of the portfolio Π

$$\Pi = -f + \frac{\partial f}{\partial S} S$$

- Change in value of the portfolio Π in time Δt

$$\Delta \Pi = -\Delta f + \frac{\partial f}{\partial S} \Delta S$$

- Instantaneous return of this portfolio should be risk free

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta \Pi &= r \Pi \Delta t \\ -\Delta f + \frac{\partial f}{\partial S} \Delta S &= r \left(-f + \frac{\partial f}{\partial S} S \right) \Delta t\end{aligned}$$

- Let's substitute Δf and ΔS from previous slide to get **BSM differential equation**

BS Model

- BSM differential equation can be solved for call and put boundary conditions

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + rS \frac{\partial f}{\partial S} + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 S^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial S^2} = rf$$

- The formulas for the BSM model are:

$$c = S_0 N(d_1) - K e^{-rT} N(d_2)$$

$$p = K e^{-rT} (1 - N(d_2)) - S_0 (1 - N(d_1))$$

Where $d_1 = \frac{\ln(\frac{S_0}{K}) + (r + (0.5\sigma^2))T}{\sigma\sqrt{T}}$, $d_2 = d_1 - (\sigma\sqrt{T})$,

T is the time to maturity (in % of a 365-day year)

S_0 is the asset price

K is the exercise price

r - continuously compounded risk-free rate

σ – volatility of continuously compounded returns on the stock

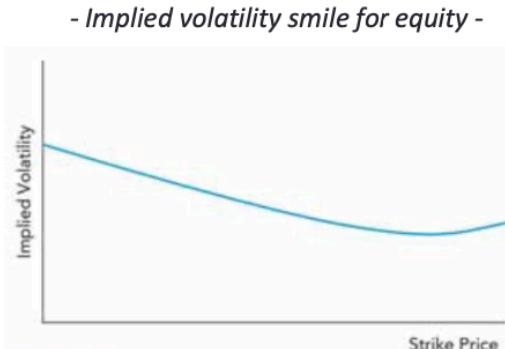
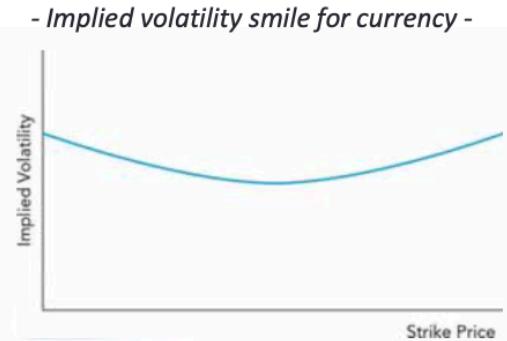
$N()$ is the cumulative normal probability

Heat Equation

BS Model

IMPLIED VOLATILITY ESTIMATION

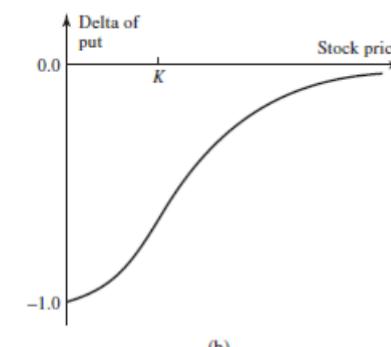
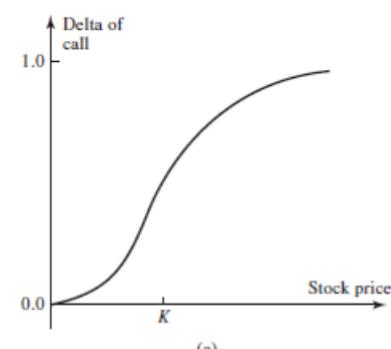
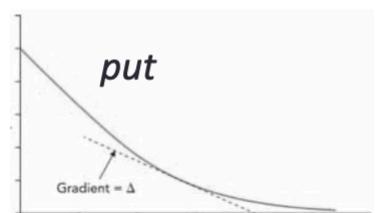
- Implied volatility is the value for standard deviation of continuously compounded rates of return that is “implied” by the market price of the option
- Of the five inputs into the BSM model, four are observable: stock price S_0 , exercise price K , risk-free rate r , and time to maturity T . If we use these four inputs in the formula and set the BSM formula equal to market price, we can solve for the volatility σ that satisfies the equality
- There is no closed-form solution for the volatility that will satisfy the equation
- Various numerical techniques may be used to “imply” volatility, examples of implied volatility graphs below. To the left on currency implied vol, right - stock



BS Model

- General formula for all types of derivatives $\Delta = \frac{\partial f}{\partial S}$

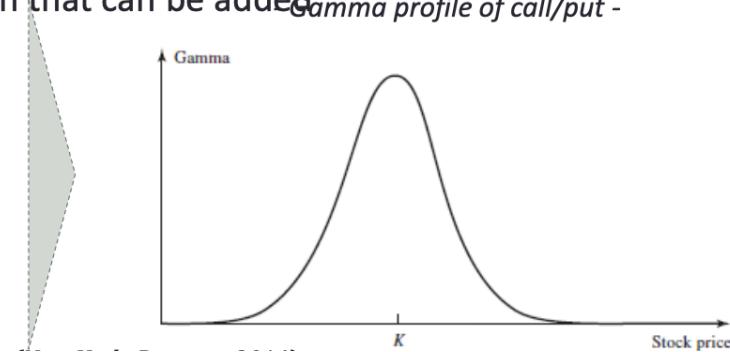
Derivative	Delta	Properties
Forward	1	The same Δ as for underlying
Future	e^{rT} on a stock/ index w/o dividends $e^{(r-q)T}$ on a stock/index with dividends	Daily settlement
Call option	$N(d_1)$	Positive $S \uparrow \rightarrow c \uparrow$
Put option	$N(d_1) - 1$	Negative $S \uparrow \rightarrow p \downarrow$



BS Model

GAMMA

- Gamma measures sensitivity of delta to the stock price $\Gamma = \frac{\partial \Delta}{\partial s}$
- Alternatively $\Gamma = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial s^2}$ where f is the derivative price, and s is the price of underlying
- For European call/put options on non-dividend stocks is following: $\Gamma = \frac{N'(d_1)}{S_0 \sigma \sqrt{T}}$
- **Why needed?** Delta-neutral positions can hedge the portfolio against small changes in stock price, while gamma can help hedge against relatively large changes in stock price
- Underlying assets/forward instruments have linear payoffs → they have zero gamma
- Number of options that must be added to an existing portfolio to generate a gamma-neutral position is $-\left(\frac{\Gamma_p}{\Gamma_T}\right)$, where Γ_p is the gamma of the existing portfolio position, and Γ_T is the gamma of a traded option that can be added



BS Model

THETA

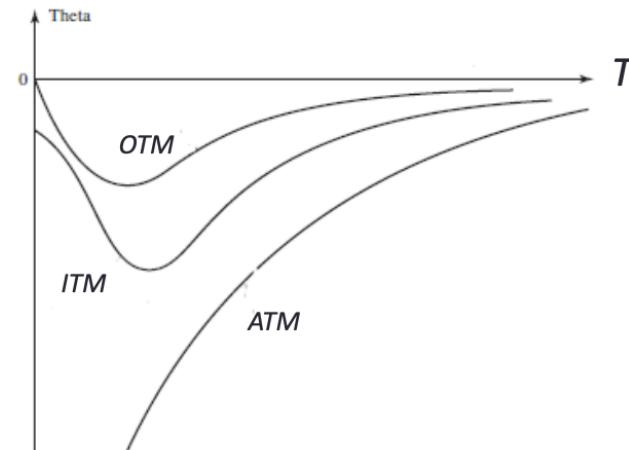
- Theta measures the change in value of derivative (f) over time. Theta is also termed the “time decay” of an option. $\Theta = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}$
- Note that theta in the below equations is measured in years. It can be converted to a daily basis by dividing by 365
- For European call options on non-dividend-paying stocks, theta can be calculated using the Black-Scholes-Merton formula as follows:

$$\Theta_{call} = -\frac{S_0 N'(d_1) \sigma}{2\sqrt{T}} - rKe^{-rT} N(d_2)$$

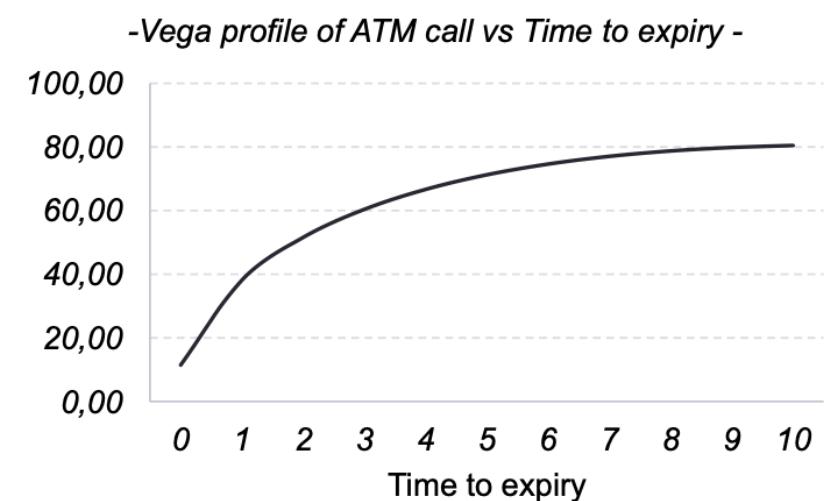
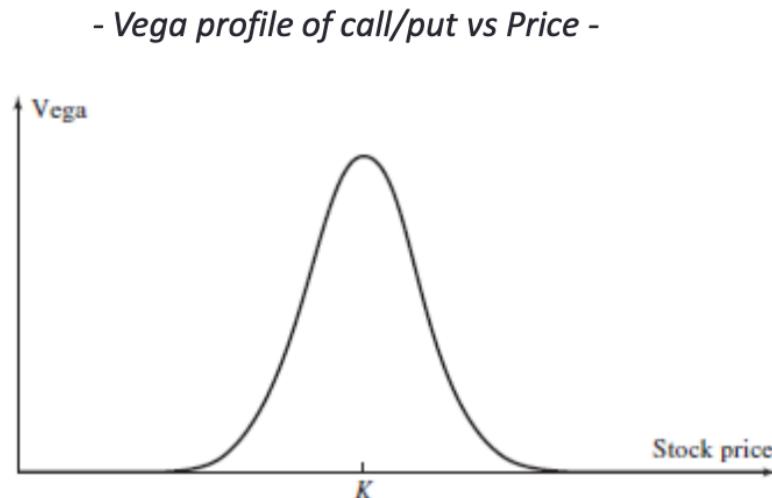
$$\Theta_{put} = -\frac{S_0 N'(d_1) \sigma}{2\sqrt{T}} + rKe^{-rT} N(-d_2)$$

$$N'(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$$

- Theta profile of call depending on time-



- Vega measures the sensitivity of the derivative's price to changes in the volatility of the underlying: $\text{vega} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma}$
- Vega for European calls and puts on non-dividend-paying stocks is calculated as in BSM framework: $\text{vega} = S_0 N'(d_1) \sqrt{T}$
- Options are most sensitive to changes in volatility when they are at-the-money. Deep out-of-the-money or deep in-the-money options have little sensitivity to changes in volatility (i.e., vega is close to zero)



BS Model

THETA AND GAMMA RELATIONSHIP

- Stock option prices are affected by delta, theta, and gamma as indicated in the following relationship:

$$r\Pi = \Theta + rS\Delta + 0.5\sigma^2 S^2 \Gamma$$

where

r is the risk-neutral risk-free rate of interest

Π = the price of the option

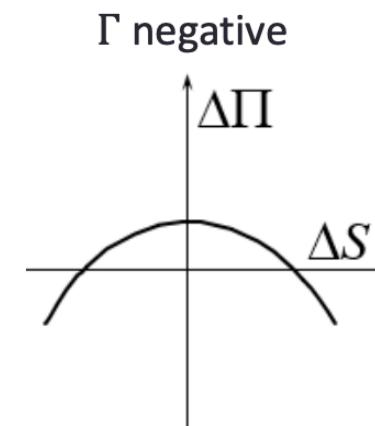
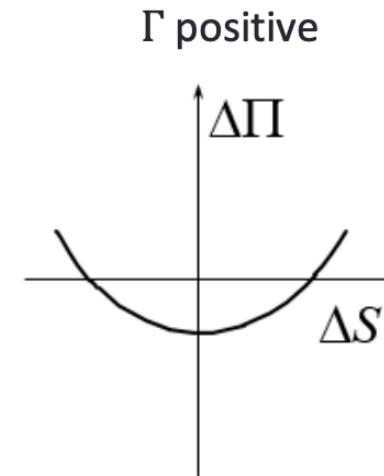
Θ - option theta usually negative for long option position

S = the price of the underlying stock

Δ = the option delta

σ^2 = the variance of the underlying stock

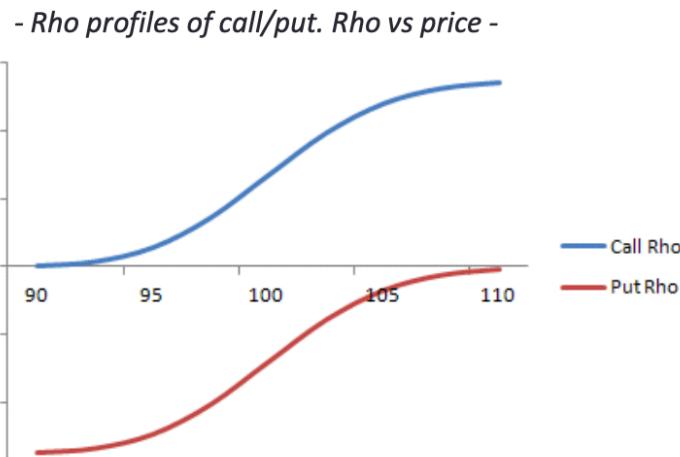
Γ = option gamma, for delta-neutral portfolio negatively related to theta



BS Model

RHO

- Rho derivative value f sensitivity to changes in the risk-free rate r : $\rho = \frac{\partial f}{\partial r}$
- For European calls on a non-dividend-paying stock, rho is measured as:
 $\rho_{call} = KTe^{-rT}N(d_2), \rho_{put} = -KTe^{-rT}N(-d_2)$
- In-the-money calls and puts are more sensitive to changes in rates than out-of-the-money options. Increases in rates cause larger increases for in-the-money call prices (versus out-of-the-money calls) and larger decreases for in-the-money puts (versus out-of-the-money puts)



Ito's Lemma

2.2. Vasicek's interest rate model. We now present an application of the previous theory to the study of a quite famous model for the stochastic behaviour of the short rate, due to Vasicek. It is assumed that the instantaneous interest rate $(r_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}_+}$ satisfies the dynamics

$$(2.3) \quad dr_t = a(\rho - r_t)dt + \sigma dW_t,$$

where W is a standard Brownian motion, and a , ρ and σ are strictly positive real numbers. The above dynamics in (2.3) result in r being a so-called *mean-reverting* process: when far from level ρ , r tends to revert back toward that level with amplitude determined by a .

Ito's Lemma

3. ITÔ-DOËBLIN FORMULA

3.1. The formula. Suppose that $X = (X_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}_+}$ is an Itô process as in (1.11). If X is actually differentiable (i.e., if $\sigma \equiv 0$), the usual chain rule of calculus implies that $df(X_t) = f'(X_t)dX_t$ holds for all $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$ and continuously differentiable functions f ; in other words, $f(X_t) = f(X_0) + \int_0^t f'(X_u)dX_u$. The Itô-Doeblin formula is a generalisation of this in the case where the “ dW ” part of an Itô process is not vanishing.

Theorem 3.1. *Suppose that $X = (X_t)_{t \in \mathbb{R}_+}$ is an Itô process, and let $f : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ be a function that is twice continuously differentiable. Then, $(f(X_t))_{t \in \mathbb{R}_+}$ is also an Itô process; in fact,*

$$(3.1) \quad f(X_t) = f(X_0) + \int_0^t f'(X_u)dX_u + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t f''(X_u)d[X, X]_u$$

holds for all $t \in \mathbb{R}_+$.

Thank you for your attention!
See next week!