# Chapter 12: Brownian Motion and Stochastic Calculus

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# **Preliminaries**

# **Review: Discrete-Time Martingales**

- A martingale is a sequence of random variables Y such that  $Y_s = \mathsf{E}_s[Y_t]$  for all s < t.
- Equivalently,  $E_s[Y_t Y_s] = 0$ .
- Consider any payoff at date u with value  $W_t$  at date t. Then
  - 1. The sequence  $M_tW_t$  is a martingale (up to u).
  - 2. The sequence

$$\frac{W_t}{\left(1+\mathit{r_{f1}}\right)\cdots\left(1+\mathit{r_{ft}}\right)}$$

is a Q-martingale.

 This holds for any self-financing wealth process W, meaning that no money is taken out or in after date 0 – e.g., a dividend-reinvested asset price.

#### Continuous-Time Model of a Stock Price

- Notation: S= stock price, B= Brownian motion,  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  are constants or stochastic processes.
- Stock price model:

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}S}{S} = \mu \, \mathrm{d}t + \sigma \, \mathrm{d}B$$

- $\mu dt = \text{expected rate of return, } \sigma dB = \text{risk}$
- Our goal is to understand what equations like this mean and to learn how to work with them.
- The first task is to explain Brownian motion.

#### **Stochastic Process**

- A stochastic process X in continuous time is a collection of random variables  $X_t$  for  $t \in [0, \infty)$  or for  $t \in [0, T]$ .
- The state of the world  $\omega$  determines the value  $X_t(\omega)$  at each time t.
- A stochastic process can be viewed as a random function of time  $t\mapsto X_t(\omega)$ .
- ullet For a given  $\omega$ , the function of time is called a path of the stochastic process.

# **Brownian Motion**

#### **Brownian Motion**

- A Brownian motion is a continuous-time stochastic process B with the property that, for any dates t < u, and conditional on information at date t, the change  $B_u B_t$  is normally distributed with mean zero and variance u t.
- Equivalently,  $B_u$  is conditionally normally distributed with mean  $B_t$  and variance u-t. In particular, the distribution of  $B_u-B_t$  is the same for any conditioning information and hence is independent of conditioning information. This is expressed by saying that the Brownian motion has independent increments.
- We can regard  $\Delta B = B_u B_t$  as noise that is unpredictable by any date-t information. The starting value of a Brownian motion is typically not important, because only the increments  $\Delta B$  are usually used to define the randomness in a model, so we can and will take  $B_0 = 0$ .

#### **Brownian Motion and Information**

- A Brownian motion with respect to some information might not be a Brownian motion with respect to other information.
- For example, a stochastic process could be a Brownian motion for some investors but not for better informed investors, who might be able to predict the increments to some degree.
- It is part of the definition of a Brownian motion that the past values  $B_s$  for  $s \le t$  are part of the information at each date t.

#### **Continuous Nondifferentiable Paths**

- The paths of a Brownian motion make many small up-and-down movements with extremely high frequency, so that the limits  $\lim_{s\to t} (B_t B_s)/(t-s)$  defining derivatives do not exist.
- With probability 1, a path of a Brownian motion is
  - continuous
  - almost everywhere nondifferentiable
- The name "Brownian motion" stems from the observations by the botanist Robert Brown of the erratic behavior of particles suspended in a fluid.

# **Quadratic Variation of Brownian Paths**

• Let B be a Brownian motion. Consider a discrete partition

$$s = t_0 < t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_N = u$$

of a time interval [s, u].

Consider the sum of squared changes

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} (B_{t_i} - B_{t_{i-1}})^2$$

in some state of the world.

- If we consider finer partitions (i.e., increase N) with the maximum length  $t_i t_{i-1}$  of the time intervals going to zero as  $N \to \infty$ , the limit of the sum is called the quadratic variation of the path of B.
- The quadratic variation of the path of a Brownian motion over any interval [s, u] is equal to u s with probability 1.

# Quadratic Variation of Usual Functions of Time

- The quadratic variation of any continuously differentiable function is zero.
- Consider, for example, a linear function of time:  $f_t = at$  for some constant a.
- Taking  $t_i t_{i-1} = \Delta t = (u s)/N$  for each i, the sum of squared changes over an interval [s, u] is

$$\sum_{i=1}^N (f_{t_i}-f_{t_{i-1}})^2=\sum_{i=1}^N (a\,\Delta t)^2=Na^2\left(rac{u-s}{N}
ight)^2=rac{a^2(u-s)^2}{N}
ightarrow 0$$
 as  $N o\infty$ .

#### **Total Variation of Brownian Paths**

- Total variation is defined in the same way as quadratic variation but with the squared changes replaced by the absolute values of the changes.
- Brownian paths have infinite total variation (with probability 1).
  - In general, for continuous functions, finite total variation ⇒ zero quadratic variation.
  - ullet So, nonzero quadratic variation  $\Rightarrow$  infinite total variation.
- Infinite total variation means that if we were to straighten out a
  path of a Brownian motion to measure it, its length would be
  infinite. This is true no matter how small the time period over which
  we measure the path.

# Martingales

# **Continuous Martingales**

- A martingale is a stochastic process X with the property that  $\mathsf{E}_t[X_u] = X_t$  for each t < u (equivalently,  $\mathsf{E}_t[X_u X_t] = 0$ ).
  - In discrete time, if *M* is an SDF process and *W* is a self-financing wealth process, then *MW* is a martingale.
- A continuous martingale is a martingale for which all of the paths are continuous (up to a null set).
- Every continuous martingale that is not constant has infinite total variation.

# Levy's Theorem

- Aa continuous martingale is a Brownian motion if and only if its quadratic variation over each interval [s, u] equals u s.
- Thus, if a stochastic process has (i) continuous paths, (ii) conditionally mean-zero increments, and (iii) quadratic variation over each interval equal to the length of the interval, then its increments must also be
  - (iv) independent of conditioning information and
  - (v) normally distributed.
- It is possible to deform the time scale (speeding up or slowing down the clock) to convert any continuous martingale into a Brownian motion.
- Also, we can form continuous martingales from Brownian motions via stochastic integrals.

# Itô Integral

# Stochastic Integrals

If  $\theta$  is a stochastic process adapted to the information with respect to which B is a Brownian motion, is jointly measurable in  $(t,\omega)$ , and satisfies

$$\int_0^T \theta_t^2 \, \mathrm{d}t < \infty$$

with probability 1, and if  $M_0$  is a constant, then we can define the stochastic process

$$M_t = M_0 + \int_0^t \theta_s \, \mathrm{d}B_s$$

for  $t \in [0, T]$ . This is called an Itô integral or stochastic integral.

# **Approximating Stochastic Integrals**

For each t, the stochastic integral can be approximated as (is a limit in probability of)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} \theta_{t_{i-1}} (B_{t_i} - B_{t_{i-1}})$$

given discrete partitions

$$0 = t_0 < t_1 < t_2 < \cdots < t_N = t$$

of the time interval [0,t] with the maximum length  $t_i-t_{i-1}$  of the time intervals going to zero as  $N\to\infty$ . Note that  $\theta$  is evaluated in this sum at the beginning of each interval  $[t_{i-1},t_i]$  over which the change in B is computed.

#### **Differential Form**

Given

$$M_t = M_0 + \int_0^t \theta_s \, \mathrm{d}B_s$$

we write

$$\mathrm{d}M_t = \theta_t \, \mathrm{d}B_t$$

or, more simply,

$$dM = \theta dB$$

We can define M from the formula  $\mathrm{d}M=\theta\,\mathrm{d}B$  and the initial condition  $M_0$  by "summing" the changes  $\mathrm{d}M$  as

$$M_t = M_0 + \int_0^t dM_s = M_0 + \int_0^t \theta_s dB_s.$$

#### **Itô Process**

The sum of an ordinary integral and a stochastic integral is called an Itô process. Such a process has the form

$$Y_t = Y_0 + \int_0^t \alpha_s \, \mathrm{d}s + \int_0^t \theta_s \, \mathrm{d}B_s,$$

which is also written as

$$dY_t = \alpha_t dt + \theta_t dB_t$$

or, more simply, as

$$dY = \alpha dt + \theta dB$$

We recover Y from this differential form by "summing" the changes  $\mathrm{d}Y$  over time. The process  $\alpha$  is called the drift of Y.

# Returns

#### **Asset Return**

 Suppose that between dividend payments the price S of an asset satisfies

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}S}{S} = \mu \, \mathrm{d}t + \sigma \, \mathrm{d}B$$

for a Brownian motion B and stochastic processes (or constants)  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ .

- We interpret dS/S as the instantaneous rate of return of the asset and  $\mu dt$  as the expected rate of return.
- The equation for S can be written equivalently as  $dS = S\mu dt + S\sigma dB$ .
- The real meaning is the "summed" version:

$$S_u = S_0 + \int_0^u S_t \mu_t \, \mathrm{d}t + \int_0^u S_t \sigma_t \, \mathrm{d}B_t$$

# Money Market Account

 Suppose there is an asset that is locally risk-free, meaning that its price R satisfies

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}R}{R} = r\,\mathrm{d}t$$

for some r (which can be a stochastic process).

This equation for R can be solved explicitly as

$$R_u = R_0 \exp\left(\int_0^u r_t \,\mathrm{d}t\right) \,.$$

- We interpret  $r_t$  as the interest rate at date t for an investment during the infinitesimal period (t, t + dt).
- If the interest rate is constant, then  $R_u = R_0 e^{ru}$ , meaning that interest is continuously compounded at the constant rate r.
- We call *r* the instantaneous risk-free rate or the locally risk-free rate or the short rate.

#### Portfolio Return

- A portfolio of the asset with price S (the risky asset) and the money market account is defined by the fraction  $\pi_t$  of wealth invested in the risky asset at each date t.
- If no funds are invested or withdrawn from the portfolio during a time period [0, T] and the asset does not pay dividends during the period, then the wealth process W satisfies

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}W}{W} = (1-\pi)r\,\mathrm{d}t + \pi\frac{\mathrm{d}S}{S}$$

This is called the intertemporal budget constraint. It states that
wealth grows only from interest earned and from the return on the
risky asset.

# **Intertemporal Budget Constraint**

The intertemporal budget constraint with no labor income and no consumption is

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}W}{W} = (1 - \pi)r\,\mathrm{d}t + \pi\frac{\mathrm{d}S}{S}$$
$$= (1 - \pi)r\,\mathrm{d}t + \pi\mu\,\mathrm{d}t + \pi\sigma\,\mathrm{d}B$$
$$= r\,\mathrm{d}t + \pi(\mu - r)\,\mathrm{d}t + \pi\sigma\,\mathrm{d}B$$

We can also write it as

$$dW = rW dt + \pi(\mu - r)W dt + \pi\sigma W dB$$

With labor income Y and consumption C (both as rate per unit time), it is

$$dW = rW dt + \pi(\mu - r)W dt + \pi\sigma W dB + Y dt - C dt$$

# Itô's Formula

#### **Notation for Quadratic Variation**

- Convenient notation:  $(dB)^2 = dt$ .
- The motivation comes from quadratic variation. Consider discrete partitions

$$s = t_0 < t_1 < t_2 < \cdots < t_N = u$$

of a time interval [s, u].

• With  $N o \infty$  and the maximum length  $t_i - t_{i-1}$  of the time intervals going to zero,

$$\sum_{i=1}^{N} (B_{t_i} - B_{t_{i-1}})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (\Delta B)^2$$

$$\to \int_{s}^{u} (dB)^2 = \int_{s}^{u} dt = u - s$$

# Quadratic Variation of a Stochastic Integral

The quadratic variation of a stochastic integral  $dM_t = \theta_t dB_t$ over an interval [s, u] is

$$\int_s^u (\mathrm{d} M_t)^2 = \int_s^u (\theta_t \, \mathrm{d} B_t)^2 = \int_s^u (\theta_t)^2 (\mathrm{d} B_t)^2 = \int_s^u \theta_t^2 \, \mathrm{d} t$$

# Quadratic Variation of an Itô Process

- More convenient notation:  $(dt)^2 = 0$ , (dB)(dt) = 0.
- The motivation for  $(dt)^2 = 0$  is that the quadratic variation of a continuously differentiable function of time is zero.
- The quadratic variation of an Itô process  $dX_t = \alpha_t dt + \theta_t dB_t$  over an interval [s, u] is

$$\int_s^u (\mathrm{d} X_t)^2 = \int_s^u (\alpha_t \, \mathrm{d} t + \theta_t \, \mathrm{d} B_t)^2 = \int_s^u (\theta_t)^2 (\mathrm{d} B_t)^2 = \int_s^u \theta_t^2 \, \mathrm{d} t$$

# Variance and Quadratic Variation in Discrete Time

 Suppose M is a martingale in discrete time. Define X to be the changes in M:

$$X_1 = M_1 - M_0$$
,  $X_2 = M_2 - M_1$ ,  $X_3 = M_3 - M_2$ , ...

- The process *X* is called a martingale difference series. It is serially uncorrelated.
- Proof: for t < u,

$$cov(X_t, X_u) = E[X_t X_u] = E\left[E_t[X_t X_u]\right] = E\left[X_t E_t[X_u]\right] = 0$$

• The variance of  $M_t$  is

$$\mathsf{var}(M_t) = \mathsf{var}(M_0 + X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_t) = \sum_{i=1}^t \mathsf{var}(X_i) = \mathsf{E}\left[\sum_{i=1}^t X_i^2\right]$$

# **Chain Rule of Ordinary Calculus**

• Define y = f(x) for some continuously differentiable function f, so

$$\mathrm{d}y = f'(x)\,\mathrm{d}x$$

• Now let x be a nonrandom continuously differentiable function of time and define  $y_t = f(x_t)$ . The chain rule gives us

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y_t}{\mathrm{d}t} = f'(x_t) \frac{\mathrm{d}x_t}{\mathrm{d}t} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathrm{d}y_t = f'(x_t) \, \mathrm{d}x_t$$

• The fundamental theorem of calculus states that we can "sum" the changes over an interval [0, t] to obtain

$$y_t = y_0 + \int_0^t f'(x_s) \,\mathrm{d}x_s.$$

Of course, we can substitute  $dx_s = x'_s ds$  in this integral.

# Chain Rule from Multivariate Calculus

• Define y = f(t, x), so

$$\mathrm{d}y = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \, \mathrm{d}t + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \, \mathrm{d}x$$

• Now let x be a nonrandom continuously differentiable function of time and define  $y_t = f(t, x_t)$ . The chain rule gives us

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}t} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}t} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathrm{d}y_t = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} \, \mathrm{d}t + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \, \mathrm{d}x_t$$

This implies

$$y_t = y_0 + \int_0^t \frac{\partial f(s, x_s)}{\partial s} ds + \int_0^t \frac{\partial f(s, x_s)}{\partial x} dx_s$$

Of course, we can substitute  $dx_s = x'_s ds$  in this integral.

#### Itô's Formula

- Let f(t,x) be continuously differentiable in t and twice continuously differentiable in x.
- Define  $Y_t = f(t, B_t)$  for a Brownian motion B.
- Itô's formula states that

$$dY = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} dt + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial B^2} dt + \frac{\partial f}{\partial B} dB$$

• Thus, Y is an Itô process with

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial B^2}$$

as its drift and  $(\partial f/\partial B) dB$  as its stochastic part.

Itô's formula means that, for each t,

$$Y_t = Y_0 + \int_0^t \left( \frac{\partial f(s, B_s)}{\partial s} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f(s, B_s)}{\partial B^2} \right) ds + \int_0^t \frac{\partial f(s, B_s)}{\partial B} dB_s$$

#### Itô's Formula cont.

- Recall our notation  $(dB)^2 = dt$ .
- In terms of this notation, Itô's formula is

$$dY = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial f}{\partial B} dB + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial B^2} (dB)^2$$

# Example of Itô's Formula

- Let  $Y_t = B_t^2$ , so  $Y_t = f(B_t)$  where  $f(x) = x^2$ .
- Apply Itô's formula. Using the notation  $(dB)^2 = dt$ , we have

$$dY = f'(B_t) dB + \frac{1}{2} f''(B_t) (dB)^2$$
$$= 2B_t dB_t + (dB)^2$$

- Compare this to discrete changes. Consider the increment  $\Delta Y = Y_u Y_s$  over an interval [s, u]. Set  $\Delta B = B_u B_s$ .
- We have

$$\Delta Y = B_u^2 - B_s^2$$
$$= [B_s + \Delta B]^2 - B_s^2$$
$$= 2B_s \Delta B + (\Delta B)^2$$

# Itô's Formula for Functions of Itô Processes

- Let X be an Itô process:  $dX = \alpha dt + \theta dB$ .
- Recall our notation:  $(dt)^2 = 0$ , (dt)(dB) = 0,  $(dB)^2 = dt$ .
- Recall

$$(\mathrm{d}X)^2 = (\alpha\,\mathrm{d}t + \theta\,\mathrm{d}B)^2 = \theta^2\,\mathrm{d}t$$

- Let f(t,x) be continuously differentiable in t and twice continuously differentiable in x.
- Define  $Y_t = f(t, X_t)$ .
- Itô's formula is:

$$dY = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial f}{\partial X} dX + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial X^2} (dX)^2$$
$$= \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial f}{\partial X} (\alpha dt + \theta dB) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial X^2} \theta^2 dt$$

# **GBM**

#### **Geometric Brownian Motion**

ullet Suppose, for constants  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ , that

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}S}{S} = \mu \, \mathrm{d}t + \sigma \, \mathrm{d}B$$

- We will solve this like we solved for the price of the money market account.
- Define  $Y_t = \log S_t$ . The process S is an Itô process, so we can apply Itô's formula to Y to obtain

$$d \log S = \frac{1}{S} dS + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \left(-\frac{1}{S^2}\right) (dS)^2$$
$$= \mu dt + \sigma dB - \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 dt$$

# Geometric Brownian Motion cont.

• Summing the changes gives

$$\log S_t = \log S_0 + \left(\mu - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2\right)t + \sigma B_t$$

Exponentiating both sides gives

$$S_t = S_0 e^{\mu t - \sigma^2 t/2 + \sigma B_t}$$

• This is the solution of the equation

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}S}{S} = \mu \, \mathrm{d}t + \sigma \, \mathrm{d}B$$

# Multivariate

# **Covariation (Joint Variation)**

- Consider a discrete partition s = t<sub>0</sub> < t<sub>1</sub> < t<sub>2</sub> < ··· < t<sub>N</sub> = u of a time interval [s, u].
- For any two functions of time *x* and *y*, consider the sum of products of changes

$$\sum_{i=1}^N \Delta x_{t_i} \Delta y_{t_i} ,$$

where  $\Delta x_{t_i} = x_{t_i} - x_{t_{i-1}}$  and  $\Delta y_{t_i} = y_{t_i} - y_{t_{i-1}}$ .

- The covariation (or joint variation) of x and y on the interval [s,u] is defined as the limit of this sum as  $N \to \infty$  and the lengths  $t_i t_{i-1}$  of the intervals go to zero.
- If x = y, then this is the same as the quadratic variation.
- If both functions are continuous and one is continuously differentiable, then the covariation is zero.

#### **Covariation of Brownian Motions**

• If  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  are Brownian motions, then there is a process  $\rho$  with  $|\rho_t| \leq 1$  for all t, such that, with probability 1, the covariation of the paths of  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  over any interval [s,u] equals

$$\int_{s}^{u} \rho_{t} dt$$

- ullet The Brownian motions are independent if and only if  $ho\equiv 0$ .
- We write  $(dB_1)(dB_2) = \rho dt$ .
- Then we can "calculate" the covariation as the sum of products of changes:

$$\int_{s}^{u} (\mathrm{d}B_{1t})(\mathrm{d}B_{2t})$$

#### Covariation of Itô Processes

- Consider two Itô processes  $dX_i = \alpha_i dt + \theta_i dB_i$ .
- The covariation of  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  over any interval [s, u] is

$$\int_s^u (\mathrm{d} X_{1t}) \, (\mathrm{d} X_{2t})$$

• Here,

$$(dX_{1t})(dX_{2t}) = (\alpha_{1t} dt + \theta_{1t} dB_{1t})(\alpha_{2t} dt + \theta_{2t} dB_{1t})$$
$$= \theta_{1t}\theta_{2t}(dB_{1t})(dB_{2t})$$
$$= \theta_{1t}\theta_{2t}\rho_{t} dt$$

where  $\rho$  is the correlation process of the two Brownian motions.

 $\bullet$  We also call  $\rho$  the correlation process of the two Itô processes.

# General Itô's Formula

- Consider *n* Itô processes  $dX_i = \alpha_i dt + \theta_i dB_i$ .
- Suppose  $(t,x) \mapsto f(t,x) : [0,\infty) \times \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuously differentiable in t and twice continuously differentiable in x.
- Define  $Y_t = f(t, X_{1t}, \dots, X_{nt})$ .
- Then

$$dY = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} dt + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial f}{\partial X_{i}} dX_{i} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{\partial^{2} f}{\partial X_{i} \partial X_{j}} (dX_{i}) (dX_{j})$$

• For example, if n = 2, then

$$dY = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial f}{\partial X_1} dX_1 + \frac{\partial f}{\partial X_2} dX_2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial X_1^2} (dX_1)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial X_2^2} (dX_2)^2 + \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial X_1 \partial X_2} (dX_1) (dX_2)$$

# **Product Rule (Integration by Parts)**

- Suppose  $X_1$  and  $X_2$  are Itô processes and  $Y_t = X_{1t}X_{2t}$ .
- To calculate dY, we apply Itô's formula with n=2 and  $f(t,x_1,x_2)=x_1x_2$ .
- We obtain

$$dY = X_1 dX_2 + X_2 dX_1 + (dX_1)(dX_2)$$