

STOCHASTIC OPTIMIZATION IN CONTINUOUS TIME

FWM-RAND CHANGE

③ Stochastic calculus

A differential equation:

$$\dot{x} = \mu(t, x)$$

(3.1)

can be written as

$$dx = \mu(t, x) dt$$

and extended to be stochastic as

$$dX_t = \mu(t, X_t) dt + \sigma(t, X_t) dW_t \quad (3.2)$$



Wiener process

What is a **Wiener process**?

See Xiao
Lect 18

→ to me it seems more like
the "3D analog" of WW

→ it's the limiting process of a random walk
when you let the time interval go to zero

Note: a Wiener process is also a special
case of Markov processes w/ normally distributed
transition probability.

It is also known as **Brownian motion**, is
continuous and nowhere differentiable.

"Big O" notation

$S = O(\sqrt{\Delta t})$ if $S \rightarrow 0$ at the rate $\sqrt{\Delta t}$, i.e.

$$\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{S}{\sqrt{\Delta t}} = k \quad \text{for } k \text{ constant.}$$

"Little O" notation

$S = o(\Delta t)$ if $S \rightarrow 0$ faster than Δt
that is

$$\lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{S}{\Delta t} = 0$$

For Wiener processes, even w/ X as we talked about the independent increment property, i.e.

$$W(t) - W(s) \perp W(s) - W(0)$$

In words: The step(s) the process takes from time t and s is/are independent from the ones between s and 0 .

(Note that the RW fulfills this too.)

The probability density of a Wiener process is

$$f(t, x, y) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi t}} \exp \left\{ -\frac{(y-x)^2}{2t} \right\} \quad (2.17)$$

But eq. (3.2) is not just "(3.1) + random shock"

So (3.2) does not represent the derivative of X_t wrt time, $\neq \frac{dX_t}{dt}$

What is the meaning then of (3.2)?

Note that a differential equation has an integral interpretation:

$\dot{x} = \mu(t, x)$ in (3.1) is equivalent to

$$X_t - X_0 = \int_0^t \mu(s, X_s) ds$$

i.e. "x evolves in time as $\mu(t, x)$ " is equivalent to saying that the change in x between 0 and t is the sum of all the steps in $\mu(s, x)$ over that time horizon.

Similarly, $dX_t = \mu(t, X_t)dt + \sigma(t, X_t)dW_t$ in (3.2) is equivalent to

$$X_t - X_{t_0} = \int_{t_0}^t \mu(s, X_s) ds + \int_{t_0}^t \sigma(s, X_s) dW_s \quad (3.3)$$

which means that a sol. to (B.3) is a sol. to (B.2)!
(Provided that $\int_{t_0}^+ b(s, x_s) dW_s$ exists.)

1.) $\int_{t_0}^+ b(s, x_s) dW_s$ is not a Riemann Integral.

Why? B/c a Riemann integral is one which you can write as a sum of Δs for the partitioned spaces between t_0 and t when the number of these partitions $\rightarrow \infty$.

But $\int_{t_0}^T b(t, x_t) dW_t$ is not independent of

the choice of intermediate points of a partition of $[t_0, T]$. The reason is that the subintegral

$\int_{t_0}^T W_s dW_s$ is also not Riemann integrable.

2) Search for a class of functions $b(s, x_s)$

erm...

... all of this is leading up to the Ito integral which will somehow be the sol to (B.3).

The Ito Integral

p. 65

Probability space (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) .

Def. A family of σ -algebras $\{\mathcal{F}_t : t \in I\}$ is called a filtration i.e. an increasing family, if $\mathcal{F}_s \subset \mathcal{F}_t \subset \mathcal{F}$ whenever $s \leq t$.

In words: a filtration is a sequence of sets in which the most recent ones encompass their predecessors. E.g. info sets.

Point set Ω

The set of elementary events in prob. theory

Power set 2^Ω

The set of all subsets of Ω .

Algebra/field

A class \mathcal{I} of subsets of Ω (i.e. $\mathcal{I} \subset 2^\Omega$) if

- (i) $A \in \mathcal{I} \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{I}$
- (ii) $A, B \in \mathcal{I} \Rightarrow A \cup B \in \mathcal{I} \Rightarrow A \cap B \in \mathcal{I}$
- (iii) $\Omega \in \mathcal{I} \Leftrightarrow \emptyset \in \mathcal{I}$

In words

- (i) $esik \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow nem\ esik \in \mathcal{F}$
- (ii) $esik \in \mathcal{F} \ \& \ fuj \in \mathcal{F} \Rightarrow esik \ \& \ fuj \in \mathcal{F}$
- (iii) ?

Def. A class \mathcal{F} of subsets of Ω (-i.e. an algebra) is moreover a **σ -algebra** (or σ -field) if it also satisfies (i)-(iii) AND

- (iv) if $A_i \in \mathcal{F} \quad i=1,2,\dots$ then $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i \in \mathcal{F}$

↳ i.e. this is an extension of (ii) to ∞ many possibilities. Mathematically we say that the union $\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i$ is **countable**.

⇒ You can really think of an algebra (or a σ -algebra) as information sets: sets in probability theory w/ a particular structure

- (i) if an event is in it, the opposite is also in it
- (ii) if two dimensions are in it, then one or the other or both happening is also in it

(iv) (ii) holds for ∞ dimensions → σ -algebra.

A filtration additionally has this "encompassing in time" property.

Def. A set function $P: \mathcal{F} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a **probability measure** if P satisfies

(i) $0 \leq P(A) \leq 1 \quad \forall A \in \mathcal{F}$

(ii) $P(\emptyset) = 0$ and $P(\Omega) = 1$

\hookrightarrow is a "valami majd csak lesz" property

(iii) if $A_i \in \mathcal{F}$ and A_i are mutually disjoint, then

$$P\left(\bigcup_{i=1}^{\infty} A_i\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} P(A_i)$$

\hookrightarrow (iii) is called **countable additivity**

The triplet (Ω, \mathcal{F}, P) are a **probability space**.

Borel sets

When $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$ or $\Omega = [0, 1]$

and the σ -algebra is the one generated by the open sets in \mathbb{R} or in $[0, 1]$, then this σ -algebra is called the **Borel field, \mathcal{B}** .

An element in the Borel field is a **Borel set**.

When $\Omega = [0, 1]$, the σ -algebra is \mathcal{B} , and $P(A)$ is the "length" (measure) of $A \in \mathcal{F}$, then P is the probability measure on \mathcal{B} and is known as the **Lebesgue measure** on $[0, 1]$.

It seems also as if being a Borel set meant that the set is $\in \mathbb{R}$ (or $[0, 1]$) and is observable.

The Ito Integral - Cont.

Def. Ito integral of a step function $z(t, \omega)$ is

$$I(z)(\omega) = \int_{t_0}^T z(t, \omega) dW(t) = \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} z(t_i, \omega) [W(t_{i+1}) - W(t_i)]$$

i.e. it's the Riemann sum evaluated at the left endpoints. The Ito integral is a random variable.

Def. Some $a(t, \omega)$ + $m(t, \omega)$ is integrable

$$\text{i.e. } \int_{t_0}^T |m(t, \omega)| ds < \infty$$

so that

$$X_t = X_{t_0} + \int_{t_0}^t \mu(s, \omega) ds + \int_{t_0}^t \sigma(s, \omega) dW_s$$

then we say that $\mu(t, \omega) dt + \sigma(t, \omega) dW$ is the **stochastic differential** of the process and we denote it by dX_t . It is also called an **Ito process**.

Def. A process X_t is a **martingale** if

$$E[X_t | \mathcal{F}_s] = E[X_s | \mathcal{F}_s] = X_s \quad (3.12)$$

(p. 74)

I think for $t > s$.

Note: the Wiener process satisfies (3.12), and so it's a martingale.

$$X_s \leq E[X_s | \mathcal{F}_s] \rightarrow \text{submartingale}$$

$$X_s \geq E[X_s | \mathcal{F}_s] \rightarrow \text{supermartingale}$$

The Ito integral can be used to generate martingales.

Ito's Lemma - Autonomous case p. 77

$$(3.2) : dX_t = \mu(t, X_t) dt + \sigma(t, X_t) dW_t$$

is autonomous when the drift $\mu(t, X_t)$ and the instantaneous variance $\sigma(t, X_t)$ are independent of time:

$$dX_t = \mu(X_t) dt + \sigma(X_t) dW_t \quad (3.13)$$

Ito's Lemma is essentially the stochastic version of the chain rule for differentiation. It answers the question of if X_t satisfies (3.13), and $Y_t = h(X_t)$, then what's dY_t ?

In the deterministic case, if $\dot{x} = f(x)$, $y = h(x)$,

then
$$\frac{dy}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt}[h(x)] = h'(x) \dot{x} = h'(x) f(x).$$

Ito's Lemma If $h(x)$ is twice differentiable, then

$$dY_t = h'(X_t) [\mu(X_t) dt + \sigma(X_t) dW_t] + \frac{1}{2} h''(X_t) \sigma^2(X_t) dt$$

↑ this 2nd order Taylor term shows up


Xiao in Lect 20 says (p. 5, Mac)

If $f \in C^2$, then for $f(W(t))$, where $W(t)$ is a BM, a continuous fct of a BM, it holds that

$$df(W(t)) = f'(W(t)) dW(t) + \underline{\frac{1}{2} f''(W(t)) dt}$$

Or, more generally, for $B(t) \sim \text{BM}(\omega^2)$

$$df(B(t)) = f'(B(t)) dB(t) + \underline{\frac{\omega^2}{2} f''(B(t)) dt}$$

... and Xiao emphasizes that  this 2nd order term in this "stochastic chain rule differentiation" is the reason why the stochastic integral (i.e. the stochastic differential equation) is not a Riemann integral, b/c for Riemann integrals, the 2nd order term would be negligible!

Note that we've made use of the following "multiplication table":

\times	dW	dt
dW	dt	0
dt	0	0

Def. **geometric Brownian motion**

$$dX_t = a X_t dt + b X_t dW_t \quad (3.16)$$

And it has a closed-form sol:

$$X(t) = X(0) \cdot \exp\left\{\left(a - \frac{b^2}{2}\right)t\right\} \exp\{b W(t)\} \quad (3.17)$$

Its discrete time counterpart is

$$X_{t+h} = (1+a) X_t + b X_t \varepsilon_{t+h}$$

Prop. $E(X(t)) = X(0) e^{at}$ for $X_t \sim \text{geom BM}$
 $\text{Var}(X(t)) = X^2(0) e^{2at} (e^{b^2 t} - 1)$

Ex. Population dynamics is described by

$$X_i(t+h) = n_i h + b \eta_i(t, h) + \sigma_i \varepsilon_i(t, h)$$

\uparrow # offspring from person i \uparrow expected pop growth rate \uparrow system-wide shock \uparrow idiosyncratic shock

thus, despite being discrete time, can be approximated using the geom. Brownian motion

$$dL = n L dt + b L dW \quad (3.19)$$

\uparrow pop. and the proportion allows us to characterize it.

Additive vs. multiplicative shocks

$$dL = nLdt + \sigma L dW \quad (\text{multiplicative}) \quad (3.19)$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{dL}{L} = n dt + \sigma dW$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{then } L(t) > 0 \quad \forall t$$

$$dL = nLdt + \sigma dW \quad (\text{additive})$$

(change to pop. doesn't depend on level)

$$\Leftrightarrow \text{then } L(t) < 0 \quad \text{w/ prob} > 0, \text{ small.}$$

To make life harder, the book now switches to the notation z_t' for the Wiener process $W'(t)$.

Multivariate Ito's Lemma

Let W_t' be a Wiener process satisfying
 $(dz_t)(dz_t') = \lambda dt$, $\lambda = \text{coeff}(z_t, z_t')$

If X_t follows (3.13): $dX_t = \mu(X_t)dt + \sigma(X_t)dz_t$

and Y_t follows $dY_t = \nu(Y_t)dt + \theta(Y_t)dz_t'$, and

$z_t = h(X_t, Y_t)$, $h \in C^2$, then

$$\begin{aligned} dz_t = & h_x(\mu dt + \sigma dz_t) + h_y(\nu dt + \theta dz_t') \\ & + \left[\frac{\sigma^2}{2} h_{xx} dt + \frac{\theta^2}{2} h_{yy} dt + \lambda \sigma \theta h_{xy} dt \right] \end{aligned} \quad (3.22)$$

Non-autonomous Ito's Lemma

X_t follows (3.2):

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

$H(t, X_t) \in C^{1,2}$. Then

$$dH(t, X_t) = \underbrace{H_t dt + H_x(\mu dt + \sigma dz_t)}_{\text{new term compared to autonomous case}} + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 H_{xx} dt$$

(h) Stochastic Dynamic Programming

Lagrange \rightarrow Bellman

The Bellman equation is

$$\max_c \{ U(c) - \rho J(k) + A^c J(k) \} = 0$$

c = control (consumption)

ρ = d.f.

$J(k)$ = value function

$$A^c J(k) = \frac{1}{dt} E \left[J'(k) dk + \frac{1}{2} J''(k) (dk)^2 \right]$$

obtained using
Ito's Lemma

Remark 4.1 p. 118

(!)

Neat result about continuous-time models under uncertainty is that the Bellman equation is a deterministic differential equation b/c the expectation operator disappears. By contrast, in a discrete-time model w/ uncertainty, the Bellman equation is

$$\begin{aligned} J(k_t) &= \max_{C_t} E_{t,k_t} \left\{ U(C_t) + \max_{\{C_{t+s}\}} E_{t+1,k_{t+1}} \sum_{s=1}^{\infty} \beta^s U(C_{t+s}) \right\} \\ &= \max_{C_t} \left\{ U(C_t) + E_{t+1} \beta J(k_{t+1}) \right\} \end{aligned} \quad (4.9)$$

, a stochastic difference equation.

We benefited from 2 characteristics of continuous time:

1) We could take the limit $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$, so that

$$\frac{1}{\Delta t} \int_0^{\Delta t} e^{-\rho t} U(C_t) dt \rightarrow U(C_t)$$

2) Ito's Lemma, which allowed us to get rid of the conditional expectation E_k since

$$\frac{1}{\Delta t} E_k [J(k+\Delta k) - J(k)] \xrightarrow{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} A^c J(k)$$

(call $A^c J(k)$ the "Ito's lemma term")

Dynkin's formula

Let $\Phi(k) := E_k \int_0^\infty e^{-\rho t} u(c_t) dt$

be expected

discounted utility from a control policy $\{c_t\}$.

$$E_k [e^{-\rho T} \Phi(k_T)] - \Phi_k = E_k \int_0^T e^{-\rho s} [A^c \Phi(k_s) - \rho \Phi(k_s)] ds$$

(Present-value form)

It says that the average over a fixed time interval can stand in for the average at a fixed time.

Remark 4.2. Infinite vs. finite horizons.

A finite-horizon problem turns the Bellman equation into a partial differential eq, while for ∞ horizons, it was an ODE — the latter is much easier to solve. Finite horizon (discrete-time) models however can be solved using backward induction. Not so ∞ horizons

Existence p. 132

"If your economic model has more than two state variables, and if the control variable also appears in the variance term, then you can not be sure that the value function w/ the desired properties actually exists."

Bellman eq w/ recursive utility

$$Q = \max_c \{ u(c) - \rho(c) J(k) + A^c J(k) \} \quad (4.52)$$