

Part III

Basic Stochastic Calculus

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Probability Theory

Probability Theory - The Basics

- Financial models in continuous time are modelled using tools from **stochastic calculus**. This is a branch of mathematics that operates on **stochastic processes**.
 - Calculus is concerned with analysing functions. Stochastic calculus analyses functions that can be random (stochastic processes).
- It would be too time-consuming to formally develop this theory. Instead, we will rely on some rules to calculate what we want.
- The main topics we want to introduce are (filtered) probability spaces, conditional expectation, and martingales.

Probability Theory - Probability Spaces

- We have seen from the discussion on general market models that random variables are (measurable) functions on a state space Ω . This is in line with the official definition of a probability space from probability theory:

Definition (Probability Space)

A **probability space** is a triple $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, where:

- Ω is a state space (i.e. a set representing future states of the world),
- \mathcal{F} is a σ -algebra on Ω , which represents the **amount of information available to us**,
- \mathbb{P} is a probability measure.

- We will use the letter X to denote a random variable on the probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. Usually, X will represent the price of a financial instrument.

Probability Theory - Stochastic Processes

Definition (Stochastic Process)

Let $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ be a probability space. Then a (continuous) **stochastic process** is a collection

$$\{X_t : t \in [0, +\infty)\}$$

of random variables on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. We will also use the notation $\{X_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ to denote a stochastic process.

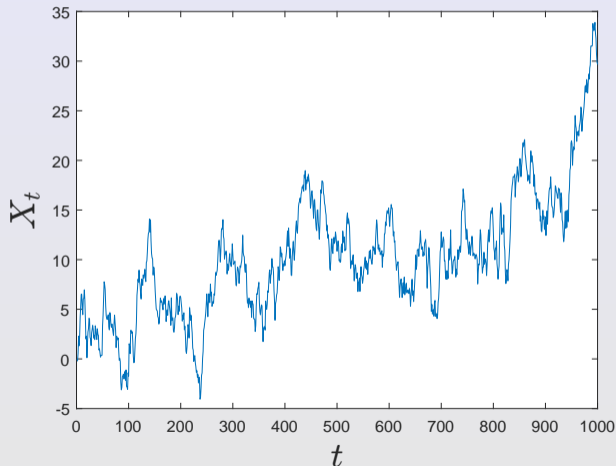
- For a specific state $\omega \in \Omega$, the realization of the stochastic process is

$$\{X_t(\omega)\}_{t \geq 0}.$$

- This is a function from $[0, \infty)$ to \mathbb{R} , defined by $t \mapsto X_t(\omega)$. This is called the **sample path** of the process at ω .

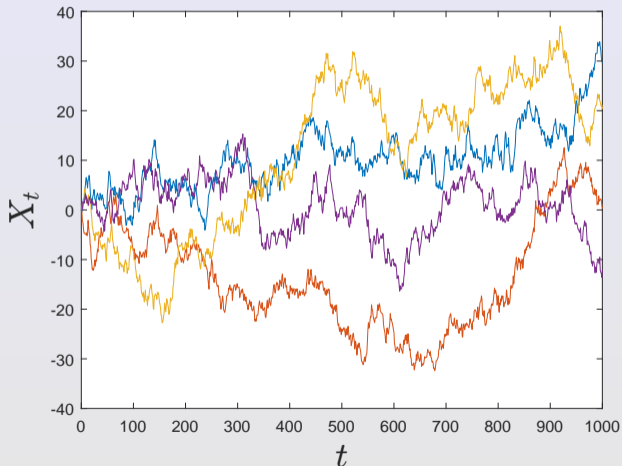
Probability Theory - Stochastic Processes

- In other words, each different state of the world $\omega \in \Omega$ produces a different path of the price of the instrument X . A sample path of a stochastic process is given below:



Probability Theory - Stochastic Processes

- Some more sample paths (representing different states of the world ω) are shown below:



Probability Theory - Stochastic Processes

- We will assume the following on stochastic processes:
- Each sample path is **continuous**. That is, there are no jumps in sample paths.
- X_t is a continuous random variable for all t .
 - In particular, this means that the state space Ω is a continuum. This is different from the models we saw in Part II, where Ω had finitely many states.

Probability Theory - Information and Filtration

- We have mentioned before that the σ -algebra component of a probability space represents information.
- Suppose $\{X_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ represents the price of some instrument.
- As time passes, we can observe the value of X_t and accumulate more “information”. At each time t , define the information set \mathcal{F}_t to represent the **information available at time t** .

Definition (Filtration)

A **filtration** is a series of information sets $\{\mathcal{F}_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ such that if $s \leq t$, then

$$\mathcal{F}_s \subseteq \mathcal{F}_t.$$

- This condition essentially says that the amount of information available to us becomes larger as time goes on.

Probability Theory - Information and Filtration (extra)

- Some more precise definitions are given in the following for those familiar with measure theory. This material is optional.

Definition (σ -algebra)

A σ -algebra or σ -field \mathcal{F} is a collection of subsets of Ω satisfying:

- $\emptyset \in \mathcal{F}$.
- \mathcal{F} is closed under complements.
- \mathcal{F} is closed under countable unions.

Elements of \mathcal{F} are called **events**.

- Information sets are σ -algebras. Specifically, \mathcal{F}_t represents **all the events that we know have happened or not, at time t** .
- A filtration is an increasing collection of σ -algebras.

Probability Theory - Information and Filtration

- We say a random variable X is **measurable** with respect to \mathcal{F} if information contained in \mathcal{F} **can tell us what the realized value of X is**.
- We will generally consider filtrations $\{\mathcal{F}_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ that contain the information of the evolution of a price X_t . Then at time t , we would know what the value of X_t is. Therefore, we would expect X_t to be measurable with respect to \mathcal{F}_t .

Definition (Adapted Process)

The process $\{X_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is **adapted** to the filtration $\{\mathcal{F}_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ if X_t is measurable with respect to \mathcal{F}_t .

Probability Theory - Information and Filtration (extra)

- Some more official definitions are as follows:

Definition (Measurability)

A function $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **measurable** with respect to a σ -algebra \mathcal{F} if for all intervals $I \in \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$X^{-1}(I) \in \mathcal{F},$$

where $X^{-1}(I)$ denotes the pre-image of the set I under X . We say that X is a **random variable** (on a probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$) if it is measurable (with respect to \mathcal{F}).

- This means that given the information set \mathcal{F} , we know whether or not the realized value of X is in the interval I .
- This implies that we would know what the value of X is.

Probability Theory - Information and Filtration (extra)

- We will work with **filtered probability spaces** in this course.

Definition (Filtered Probability Space)

[Probability Space] A **filtered probability space** is a quadruple $(\Omega, \{\mathcal{F}_t\}_{t \geq 0}, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$, where $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is a probability space and $\{\mathcal{F}_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is a filtration. We will also assume that

$$\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{F}_T,$$

for some terminal time T .

- Suppose that X is a random variable on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$. That means that it is \mathcal{F} -measurable. This suggests that the value of X must be known at time T . Recall that this is true for all contingent claims we saw so far in the course.

Conditional Expectation and Martingales

Conditional Expectation

- Recall that the expectation of a random variable X given another random variable Y is $\mathbb{E}[X|Y]$, which is itself a random variable. We will now introduce the corresponding notion for information sets.

Definition (Conditional Expectation)

Let X be a random variable on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and let $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$ be an information set. Then the **conditional expectation** of X given the information set \mathcal{G} is denoted by

$$\mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}],$$

which is itself a random variable.

- In essence, $\mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}]$ is our best guess of the value of X given the information that we have (\mathcal{G}). Generally, we will consider conditional expectations of the form $\mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{F}_t]$.

Conditional Expectation (extra)

- The official definition of condition expectation is fairly complicated to prove and interpret. In any case, it is given by the following:

Theorem (Kolmogorov)

Suppose $X \in L^1(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ and $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{F}$. Then there exists a unique, \mathcal{G} -measurable random variable $Z \in L^1(\Omega, \mathcal{G}, \mathbb{P})$ such that for all events $A \in \mathcal{G}$,

$$\int_A Z d\mathbb{P} = \int_A X d\mathbb{P}.$$

We define $\mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}] = Z$.

Conditional Expectation

The conditional expectation $\mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}]$ exhibits the following:

- $\mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}]$ is \mathcal{G} -measurable. If we know the information \mathcal{G} , then we should know what the value of our best guess is. Alternatively, we do not need to know anything more than \mathcal{G} in order to give our best guess given \mathcal{G} .
- The expectation $\mathbb{E}[X]$ can be interpreted as a conditional expectation with no information given. Formally, $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mathbb{E}[X|\{\emptyset, \Omega\}]$.
- The conditional expectation is **linear**. That is, $\mathbb{E}[aX + Y|\mathcal{G}] = a\mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}] + \mathbb{E}[Y|\mathcal{G}]$.

Conditional Expectation

The conditional expectation $\mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}]$ exhibits the following:

- The **tower rule** holds: if $\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{G}$, then $\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}]|\mathcal{H}] = \mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{H}]$. This also implies that $\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}]] = \mathbb{E}[X]$.
- If Y is \mathcal{G} -measurable, then $\mathbb{E}[XY|\mathcal{G}] = Y\mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}]$. If we know \mathcal{G} , then we know the value of Y , so we can take it out of the expectation as if it were a constant.
- If X is independent of \mathcal{G} , then $\mathbb{E}[X|\mathcal{G}] = \mathbb{E}[X]$. This means that \mathcal{G} does not give us any information about X at all.

Martingales

Definition (Martingale)

An adapted process $\{X_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ on a filtered probability space $(\Omega, \{\mathcal{F}_t\}_{t \geq 0}, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ is a **martingale** if

- 1 $\mathbb{E}[|X_t|] < \infty$ for all t (this is a technical condition),
- 2 $\mathbb{E}[X_t | \mathcal{F}_s] = X_s$, for all $s, t \geq 0$ such that $s < t$.

- Essentially, a process is a martingale if **the best guess of its future value is its current value**.
- This also means that the directions of future movements are impossible to forecast. Therefore trajectory must not exhibit any discernible trends or periodicities.

Martingales

Example

We can show that if $\{X_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is a martingale, then for $s < t$,

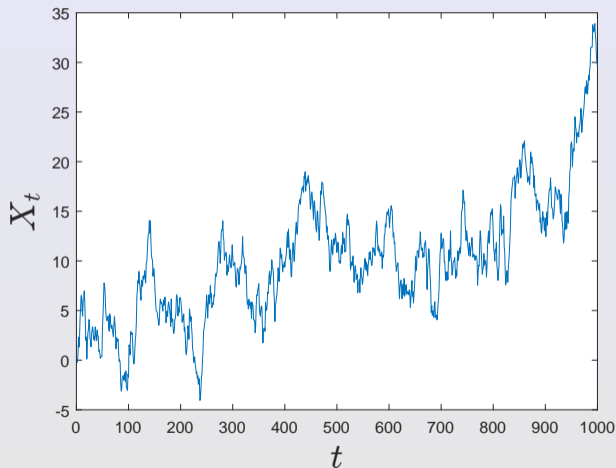
$$\mathbb{E}[X_t - X_s | \mathcal{F}_s] = 0.$$

This means that the expected change over the interval $[s, t]$, even when given all the information at s , is zero. Hence, a martingale can be understood as the **mathematical formalization of a fair game**.

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[X_t - X_s | \mathcal{F}_s] &= \mathbb{E}[X_t | \mathcal{F}_s] - \mathbb{E}[X_s | \mathcal{F}_s] \\ &= X_s - X_s \\ &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

Martingales

- The stochastic process we saw earlier is a martingale. Does it look like there are any discernible trends?



Brownian Motion

Brownian Motion

- The sample paths we saw before are realizations of a very special stochastic process: the one-dimensional **Brownian motion**.
- Brownian motion is the basis of the most commonly used models of asset prices.
- We will see later that stocks are modeled, roughly speaking, as a function of Brownian motion:



Brownian Motion

Definition (Brownian motion)

A stochastic process $\{W_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is a (standard, one-dimensional) **Brownian motion** if it has the following properties.

- $W_0 = 0$.
- Each sample path $t \mapsto W_t(\omega)$ is continuous.
- For each $s < t$, we have $W_t - W_s \sim \mathcal{N}(0, t - s)$.
- It has **independent increments**. That is, for $0 = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_m$,

$$W_{t_1} - W_{t_0}, W_{t_2} - W_{t_1}, \dots, W_{t_m} - W_{t_{m-1}}$$

are independent.

Brownian Motion - A Brief History

- 1827 BM originates in the work of Scottish botanist **Robert Brown**, who studies the irregular movement of pollen in water.
- 1900 **Louis Bachelier** introduces it to finance. For this reason, Bachelier is considered by many as the founder of modern mathematical finance.
- 1905 **Albert Einstein** introduces Brownian motion to physics, which eventually leads to **conclusive proof of atomic theory**.
- 1923 **Norbert Wiener** gives the first mathematically rigorous proof of the existence of BM. This is why Brownian motion is sometimes called *Wiener process* and denoted by W .
- 1934 **Paul Lévy** extends the notion of BM to more general processes.
- 1940 French army soldier **Vincent Doebelin** develops stochastic calculus: new calculus for stochastic processes.
- 1942 Independently, **Kiyoshi Itô** develops stochastic calculus.
- 1955 **Paul Samuelson** introduces the geometric Brownian motion (GBM) as the underlying model for stock prices.
- 1973 **Fisher Black**, **Myron Scholes** and **Robert Merton** use the GBM for stock prices and come up with the famous option pricing formulas.

Brownian Motion

- Proving that Brownian motion actually exists is a difficult task, and beyond the scope of this course.
- Additionally, we will generally assume that there is a filtration $\{\mathcal{F}_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ for which the Brownian motion $\{W_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is an **adapted process**.
- We will also assume that for $s < t$ that the increment $W_t - W_s$ is independent of \mathcal{F}_s . In other words, **future increments are independent of available information**.

Brownian Motion

A Brownian motion $\{W_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ exhibits the following properties:

- $\mathbb{E}[W_t] = 0$ and $\text{Var}(W_t) = t$.
- $\{W_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is a martingale.
- $\text{Var}(W_t | \mathcal{F}_s) = t - s$ for $s < t$.
- $\text{Cov}(W_t, W_s) = \min\{s, t\}$.
- Sample paths are continuous but nowhere differentiable.

Brownian Motion

Example

When performing calculations involving Brownian motion, it will often be useful to try and **express things in terms of increments**. For example, consider the following proof that Brownian motion is a martingale:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[W_t | \mathcal{F}_s] &= \mathbb{E}[W_t - W_s + W_s | \mathcal{F}_s] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[W_t - W_s | \mathcal{F}_s] + \mathbb{E}[W_s | \mathcal{F}_s] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[W_t - W_s] + W_s \\ &= 0 + W_s \\ &= W_s.\end{aligned}$$

The Ito Integral

Ito Integral - Motivation

- In mathematical finance, we often find that we need to **integrate with respect to random increments**.
- In particular, we will look at objects of this form:

$$\int_0^t f(u) dX_u,$$

where $\{X_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is a stochastic process. We will often use the notation $f(u) = f_u$ to express functions of time.

- We say that the above expression is the **Ito integral** of the function f with respect to the process $\{X_t\}_{t \geq 0}$.
 - As a technical detail, we assume that there is a filtration $\{\mathcal{F}_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ such that X_t and $f(t)$ are both adapted processes. This essentially means that we know the values of X_t and $f(t)$ at time t .

Ito Integral - Motivation

- Recall the multiperiod binomial model with time periods $0, h, 2h, \dots, T$, in which we introduced portfolio strategies $\theta = (\theta_0, \theta_h, \theta_{2h}, \dots, \theta_{T-h})$. At time t , the portfolio $\theta_t = (\Delta_t, b_t)$ represents the composition of the portfolio for the time period $(t, t + h)$.
- The return of the **position in the stock** over $(t, t + h)$ is

$$\Delta_t(S_{t+h} - S_t).$$

- Then the total return from the stock over the time period is (with imprecise notation)

$$\sum_t \Delta_t(S_{t+h} - S_t).$$

- This calculation looks like **the sum of the areas of a series of rectangles**. The height of each rectangle is Δ_t and the width is $S_{t+h} - S_t$.

Ito Integral - Motivation

- In continuous time, we let the **length of each period go to zero**. Therefore the total return from the stock in a continuous model should look something like:

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sum_t \Delta_t (S_{t+h} - S_t).$$

- This is a limit of the sum of the areas of rectangles, as the width of each rectangle approaches zero. That is exactly what a **Riemann(-Stieltjes) integral** is.
- Essentially the only difference here is that S_t is random. The Ito integral can be understood as

$$\int_0^T f(u) dX_u = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sum_t f(t) (X_{t+h} - X_t).$$

- Note that this is not entirely rigorous, and serves mainly to give some intuition.

Ito Integral - Motivation

- A rigorous and formal construction of the Ito integral is beyond the scope of this course.
- We will **assume that the Ito integral is well-defined**, and that expressions that look like $\int_0^T f_u dX_u$ make sense.
- We will most often look at Ito integrals with respect to Brownian motion:

$$\int_0^T f(u) dW_u .$$

These Ito integrals are nice because they satisfy a lot of desirable properties.

Ito Integral - Properties

- For each time t and a given stochastic process $\{f_t\}_{t \geq 0}$, define

$$I_t := \int_0^t f_u dW_u$$

to be the **Ito integral** from time 0 to t , of the process $\{f_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ with respect to a Brownian motion $\{W_t\}_{t \geq 0}$.

- Note that there is randomness in this process. Hence, **the Ito integral is a random variable**, and $\{I_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is a **stochastic process**.
- Recall that we also assume the existence of an underlying filtration $\{\mathcal{F}_t\}_{t \geq 0}$. With respect to this filtration, $\{I_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is an **adapted process**.

Ito Integral - Properties

The Ito integral exhibits the following:

- $\{I_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ has **continuous sample paths**.
- The Ito integral is **linear**. That is,

$$\int_0^t af_u + g_u dW_u = a \int_0^t f_u dW_u + \int_0^t g_u dW_u.$$

- The process $\{I_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is a **martingale**. That is, if $s \leq t$,

$$\mathbb{E}[I_t | \mathcal{F}_s] = I_s.$$

- Interestingly, the converse statement is also true: every martingale can be written as an Ito integral with respect to Brownian motion. This result is called the **Martingale Representation Theorem**.

Ito Integral - Properties

Since I_t is a random variable, we can also say a few things about its distribution.

- $\mathbb{E}[I_t] = I_0 = 0$, since the Ito integral is a martingale.
- The variance can be calculated using the following result:

Proposition (Ito Isometry)

$$\mathbb{E}[I_t^2] = \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\int_0^t f_u dW_u \right)^2 \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[\int_0^t f_u^2 du \right].$$

\Rightarrow Hence, $\text{Var}(I_t) = \mathbb{E}[I_t^2] = \mathbb{E} \left[\int_0^t f_u^2 du \right]$.

- More generally, if $s \leq t$,

$$\mathbb{E}[I_t | \mathcal{F}_s] = I_s,$$

$$\text{Var}(I_t | \mathcal{F}_s) = \mathbb{E} \left[\int_s^t f_u^2 du \mid \mathcal{F}_s \right].$$

Ito Integral - Properties

- If f_t is deterministic in t , then I_t is normally distributed:

$$I_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \text{Var}(I_t)).$$

- If f_t is not deterministic in t , then it is not possible to determine the shape of the distribution of I_t in general.

Ito Integral - Properties

Example

We can use the Ito isometry to determine the distribution of W_t , the value of a Brownian motion at time t . Similar to the fundamental theorem of calculus, we can write

$$W_t - W_0 = \int_0^t dW_u.$$

Since $W_0 = 0$, by the Ito isometry, we have

$$\text{Var}(W_t) = \mathbb{E} \left[\left(\int_0^t 1 dW_u \right)^2 \right] = \mathbb{E} \left[\int_0^t 1^2 du \right] = \mathbb{E}[t] = t.$$

We can conclude that

$$W_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, t),$$

which is in line with what we know about the Brownian motion.

Continuous-time Models

Continuous-time Models - Stochastic Differential Equations

- We usually write Ito integrals in **differential form**, using the following notation:

$$I_t = \int_0^t f_t dW_t \iff dl_t = f_t dW_t$$

- A differential equation involving Ito integrals, written in differential form, is a **stochastic differential equation (SDE)**.
- You may remember that an ordinary differential equation is an equation where the derivative is taken with respect to one variable. For example, consider the following ODE in differential form:

$$dB_t = rB_t dt \iff \frac{dB_t}{dt} = rB_t.$$

Continuous-time Models - Differential Form

- You may recall that the solution to this ODE is given by

$$B_t = Ce^{rt},$$

where C is a constant.

- If we impose the initial condition $B_0 = 1$, then we get $B_t = e^{rt}$. This is the value of 1 invested at a continuous interest rate r .
- These three equations are different notation for the same thing:

$$dB_t = rB_t dt$$

$$\frac{dB_t}{dt} = rB_t$$

$$B_T - B_0 = \int_0^T dB_t = \int_0^T rB_t dt.$$

Continuous-time Models - Differential Form

- Perhaps the nicest notation is the equation in its differential form:

$$dB_t = rB_t dt .$$

- In this form, we can more easily interpret the meaning of this equation. Suppose that B_t represents the value of an investment in a risk-free bank account.
- Recall that dB_t means, roughly, the change in the value of B_t . Similarly, dt represents the change in time.
- This equation says that the change in value of the investment is the rate r multiplied by the current value of the investment and the change in time.

Continuous-time Models - Ito Processes

- We are finally ready to formulate a model of the market.
- Continuous-time models are formulated in terms of **Ito processes**:

Definition (Ito Process)

An **Ito process** $\{X_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is a stochastic process of the form

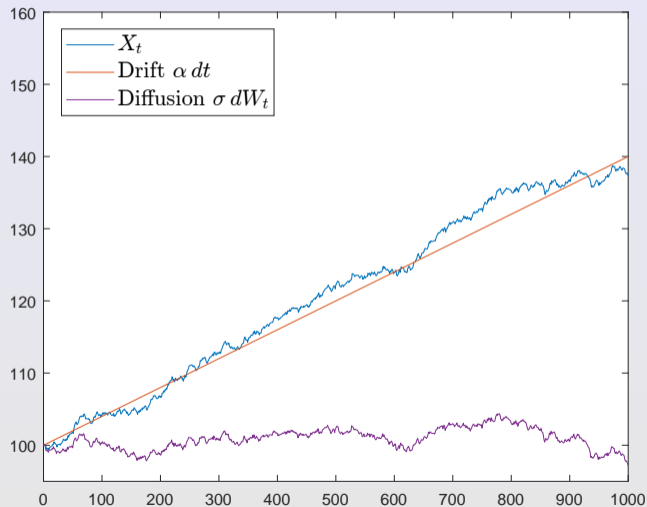
$$dX_t = \alpha_t dt + \sigma_t dW_t,$$

such that

- X_0 is a non-random initial condition,
- W_t is a Brownian motion,
- $\{\alpha_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is an adapted process, called the **drift**,
- $\{\sigma_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is also an adapted process, called the **diffusion** or **volatility**.

Continuous-time Models - Ito Processes

- A sample path of an Ito process is given below:



Continuous-time Models - Market Model

- Note that the equation $dX_t = \alpha_t dt + \sigma_t dW_t$ is just another way of writing

$$X_t = X_0 + \int_0^t \alpha_t dt + \int_0^t \sigma_t dW_t.$$

- The interpretation here is that the change in X at time t is driven by two factors:
 - A factor of α_t multiplied by the **change in time**,
 - A factor of σ_t multiplied by the **change in value of an underlying random process**.

Continuous-time Models - Ito Processes

- Consider a market with two assets: a risk-free asset B and a risky asset S . A **continuous-time market model** is a specification of the behaviour of these assets as Ito processes. These are also called the **dynamics** of these assets.
- We have seen that a risk-free asset earning continuous interest is specified by

$$dB_t = rB_t dt .$$

- On the other hand, the risky asset's dynamics are specified more generally, by

$$dS_t = \alpha_t dt + \sigma_t dW_t .$$

Continuous-time Models - Arithmetic Brownian Motion

- One of the simplest Ito processes is the following:

Definition (Arithmetic Brownian Motion)

A stochastic process $\{X_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is an **arithmetic Brownian motion (ABM)** if it satisfies the following SDE:

$$dX_t = \alpha dt + \sigma dW_t,$$

where α, σ are constants.

- The example sample path from a few slides ago was an ABM.
- We can show (as an exercise) that under this model, $X_t \sim \mathcal{N}(X_0 + \alpha t, \sigma^2 t)$.

Ito's Lemma and Geometric Brownian Motion

Arithmetic Brownian Motion - Weaknesses

- It turns out that the ABM $dS_t = \alpha dt + \sigma dW_t$ is **not a great model for a stock price** S_t .
 - ① Since S_t is normally distributed, it could take negative values, which is not realistic.
 - ② Additionally, we see that the drift and diffusion do not depend on the level of S_t . This may not be realistic either. We would typically expect that the return would scale with the price of the stock.
- To address the first issue, we could model the **instantaneous rate of return** as an ABM instead:

$$d \ln(S_t) = \alpha dt + \sigma dW_t .$$

Since a rate of return can be negative, this is not an issue.

Geometric Brownian Motion

- To address the second issue, we could introduce a factor of S_t in the drift and diffusion terms:

$$dS_t = \alpha S_t dt + \sigma S_t dW_t.$$

- Our goal for the remainder of this section is to show that **these two models are actually the same thing**.
- This model is the most important model of stock dynamics, and has a special name:

Definition (Geometric Brownian Motion)

A stochastic process $\{X_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is an **geometric Brownian motion (GBM)** if it satisfies the following SDE:

$$dX_t = \alpha X_t dt + \sigma X_t dW_t,$$

where α, σ are constants.

Geometric Brownian Motion - Motivating Example

Example

Recall that the risk-free asset B_t has dynamics given by

$$dB_t = rB_t dt.$$

Then by applying the chain rule, we have:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d \ln(B_t)}{dt} &= \frac{1}{B_t} \cdot \frac{dB_t}{dt} \\ &= \frac{1}{B_t} \cdot rB_t \\ &= r \\ d \ln(B_t) &= r dt.\end{aligned}$$

Geometric Brownian Motion - Motivating Example

Example

Hence, we have shown that the two equations

$$dB_t = rB_t dt ,$$

$$d \ln(B_t) = r dt ,$$

are the same model on the risk-free asset.

- However, we used the chain rule to find $d \ln(B_t)$. Can we do the same thing to find $d \ln(S_t)$ if S_t is a GBM?
- The **normal chain rule does not work for stochastic processes**. We can see that dS_t/dt does not exist, since S_t is not differentiable!

Ito-Doeblin Lemma

- The following result serves as the **analogue of the chain rule for stochastic processes**.

Theorem (Ito-Doeblin Lemma)

Let X_t be an Ito process with $dX_t = \alpha_t dt + \sigma_t dW_t$. Suppose $f(t, x)$ is a function such that the partial derivatives $f_t(t, x)$, $f_x(t, x)$, and $f_{xx}(t, x)$ are defined and continuous. Then

$$df(t, X_t) = f_t(t, X_t) dt + f_x(t, X_t) dX_t + \frac{1}{2} f_{xx}(t, X_t) (dX_t)^2.$$

- In this expression, the first two terms come from **the chain rule for total derivatives** for regular functions. The third term is new in this case.
- The proof of the Ito-Doeblin Lemma is beyond the scope of this course. A second-order Taylor approximation plays a role, which is where the new term comes from.

Ito-Doeblin Lemma - Cross-Variation Terms

We see in the Ito-Doeblin Lemma that there is a $(dX_t)^2$ term. Officially, this is the **cross-variation** of X_t with itself, or the **quadratic variation** of X_t . We will use the following rules to calculate these terms.

- ① $dt dt = 0$. Very roughly, this is saying that

$$\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \sum_t ((t+h) - t)^2 = 0.$$

- ② $dt dW_t = 0$.

- ③ $dW_t dW_t = dt$.

- ④ If $W_t^{(1)}$ and $W_t^{(2)}$ are two Brownian motions **with correlation ρ** , then

$$dW_t^{(1)} dW_t^{(2)} = \rho dt$$

Ito-Doeblin Lemma - Multivariate Case

- The Ito-Doeblin Lemma can be extended to multiple variables. The two-variable case is given below.

Theorem (Multivariate Ito-Doeblin Lemma)

Let X_t and Y_t be Ito processes. Suppose $f(t, x, y)$ is a twice-differentiable function. Then

$$\begin{aligned}df(t, X_t, Y_t) &= f_t(t, X_t, Y_t) dt + f_x(t, X_t, Y_t) dX_t + f_y(t, X_t, Y_t) dY_t \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} f_{xx}(t, X_t, Y_t) (dX_t)^2 + \frac{1}{2} f_{yy}(t, X_t, Y_t) (dY_t)^2 \\ &\quad + f_{xy}(t, X_t, Y_t) dX_t dY_t.\end{aligned}$$

Ito-Doeblin Lemma and the GBM

Example (Geometric Brownian Motion)

We can now use the Ito-Doeblin Lemma to determine $d \ln(S_t)$. Suppose that $dS_t = \alpha S_t dt + \sigma S_t dW_t$. Let $f(t, S) = \ln(S)$.

Then $f_t = 0$, $f_S = \frac{1}{S}$, and $f_{SS} = -\frac{1}{S^2}$. Therefore by the Ito-Doeblin Lemma, we have

$$\begin{aligned}d \ln(S_t) &= f_t dt + f_S dS_t + \frac{1}{2} f_{SS} (dS_t)^2 \\&= \frac{1}{S_t} dS_t - \frac{1}{2S_t^2} (dS_t)^2 \\&= \frac{1}{S_t} (\alpha S_t dt + \sigma S_t dW_t) - \frac{1}{2S_t^2} (\alpha S_t dt + \sigma S_t dW_t)^2 \\&= \alpha dt + \sigma dW_t - \frac{1}{2S_t^2} \sigma^2 S_t^2 dt \\&= \left(\alpha - \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \right) dt + \sigma dW_t.\end{aligned}$$

Ito-Doeblin Lemma and the GBM

- We have proved the following:

Proposition

The logarithm of a GBM is an ABM. In particular, the following two SDEs have the same solutions:

$$dS_t = \alpha S_t dt + \sigma S_t dW_t$$

$$d \ln(S_t) = \left(\alpha - \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \right) dt + \sigma dW_t$$

GBM - Solution

- In fact, we can get an explicit characterization of the solutions to GBMs.

Proposition (GBM Solution Form)

The unique solution to $dS_t = \alpha S_t dt + \sigma S_t dW_t$ is given by

$$S_t = S_0 e^{\left(\alpha - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)t + \sigma W_t}.$$

Also, for all $s \leq t$,

$$S_t = S_s e^{\left(\alpha - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)(t-s) + \sigma(W_t - W_s)}.$$

GBM - Solution

Proof.

By the result of the previous proposition, we have

$$d \ln(S_t) = \left(\alpha - \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \right) dt + \sigma dW_t.$$

Integrating this equation from time 0 to t gives

$$\int_0^t d \ln(S_u) = \int_0^t \left(\alpha - \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \right) du + \int_0^t \sigma dW_u$$
$$\ln(S_t) - \ln(S_0) = \left(\alpha - \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \right) t + \sigma W_t.$$

The result follows by solving for S_t . The second equation follows similarly, by integrating from s to t . □

GBM - Lognormal Distribution

- We can also identify the distribution of the solution to the Geometric Brownian Motion.

Definition (Lognormal Distribution)

We say that a random variable X is **lognormally distributed** if

$$\ln(X) \sim \mathcal{N}(\tilde{\mu}, \tilde{\sigma}^2).$$

We use the notation

$$X \sim \log\mathcal{N}(\tilde{\mu}, \tilde{\sigma}^2).$$

- Note that the parameters $\tilde{\mu}$ and $\tilde{\sigma}$ **are not the mean and variance of X .**

GBM - Lognormal Distribution

- If $X \sim \log\mathcal{N}(\tilde{\mu}, \tilde{\sigma}^2)$, then

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = e^{\tilde{\mu} + \frac{\tilde{\sigma}^2}{2}},$$
$$\text{Var}(X) = (e^{\tilde{\sigma}^2} - 1)e^{2\tilde{\mu} + \tilde{\sigma}^2}.$$

This can be calculated from the moment generating function of the normal distribution.

Proposition

If $\{S_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ is a GBM with $dS_t = \alpha S_t dt + \sigma S_t dW_t$, then

$$S_t \sim \log\mathcal{N}\left(\ln(S_0) + \left(\alpha - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)t, \sigma^2 t\right).$$

GBM - Lognormal Distribution

Proof.

We have seen that

$$\ln(S_t) - \ln(S_0) = \left(\alpha - \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \right) t + \sigma W_t.$$

Note that $W_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, t)$. It follows immediately that

$$\ln(S_t) \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\ln(S_0) + \left(\alpha - \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \right) t, \sigma^2 t \right),$$

which implies the result. □

GBM - Summary

- The model of stock prices as Geometric Brownian Motion seems to be a reasonable model that addresses shortcomings of the ABM.
- The GBM is central to modern asset pricing theory, and is widely used in practice.
- The GBM was the stochastic model used by Black and Scholes to obtain their option pricing formulas. We will derive these formulas in the next part of this course.

GBM - Summary

However, the GBM is not without its drawbacks:

- The GBM does not allow for jumps in the stock prices. Hence, it cannot model the market impact of “black swan events” such as COVID-19. This is addressed by **jump-diffusion models**.
- The GBM assumes a constant volatility, whereas volatility in practice is stochastic. This is addressed by **stochastic volatility models**.
- Returns are assumed to be normally distributed, but in reality a distribution with a heavier tail is observed. This is addressed by **heavy-tail distributions**.

The specifics of these more sophisticated models are beyond the scope of this course.

GBM - Summary

- This is the chart for the price of the S&P 500 over the last 10 years:



GBM - Summary

- This is a sample path of a Brownian motion $dS_t = 0.07S_t dt + 0.1S_t dW_t$. Does this look like a reasonable model?

