

# Math 5760/6890: Introduction to Mathematical Finance

## A (rather non-technical) intro to Stochastic differential equations

See Petters and Dong 2016, Section 6.6-6.7

Akil Narayan<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Department of Mathematics, and Scientific Computing and Imaging (SCI) Institute  
University of Utah

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We have introduced Brownian motion, a stochastic process  $B(t)$  having the properties:

- $P(B(t) = 0) = 1$
- $B$  is continuous with probability 1
- The  $n$  sequential increments formed by any choice of  $n + 1$  ordered time points  $t_1, \dots, t_{n+1}$  are mutually independent
- For any  $0 \leq s \leq t < \infty$ , then  $B(t) - B(s) \sim \mathcal{N}(0, t - s)$ .
- With probability 1, the sample path  $B(\cdot, \omega)$  is differentiable nowhere.
- For any interval  $I \subset [0, \infty)$  of finite length, with probability 1, the sample path  $B(\cdot, \omega)$  has infinite “variation” on  $I$ .
- $B$  has Markovian structure: Fix  $s > 0$  and define  $A(t) := B(t + s) - B(s)$ . Then  $A(t)$  and  $B(t)$  have the same distribution, and in particular  $A$  is a standard Brownian motion.
- Sample paths of Brownian motion are self-similar/fractals. In particular, for any  $c > 0$ , the process  $\frac{1}{c}B(c^2t)$  is a standard Brownian motion.

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Our next goal: Stochastic calculus.

The standard way this is introduced is first to discuss stochastic integration, followed by concepts of stochastic differentiation.

Calculus is the language of (instantaneous) *change* – modeling change is foundational in many fields, including finance.

Recall that an annual interest rate  $r$  results in a time  $T = 1$  future value of an amount  $S_0$  according to

$$S_1 = S_0 \left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right)^n,$$

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One can also imagine using continuous compounding (taking  $n \rightarrow \infty$ ), which results in the amount,

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The more constructive way to view this result is as a differential equation:

$$S'(t) = rS(t), \quad S(0) = S_0.$$

I.e., we can write this as a calculus/differential equations problem.

What use is calculus for this problem?

Suppose I wanted to know the future value of an asset at time  $T = 1$ , where the interest rate increases linearly from  $r$  to  $2r$  over the  $[0, T]$  time interval.

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$$(T = 1)$$



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The same principles are true for our probabilistic valuation models:

- It rather technical to understand model dependence on complicated drift and volatility for discrete-time models.
- Continuous time is a convenient standardization: it's easy to specialize a continuous-time model to discrete-time trading, but it's harder to specialize a discrete-time model to discrete-time with a different period.
- Calculus provides technical intuition: it's much easier to understand behavior of calculus models than it is to understand the corresponding behavior of discrete-time models.

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- Calculus provides technical intuition: it's much easier to understand behavior of calculus models than it is to understand the corresponding behavior of discrete-time models.
- The downside: stochastic calculus is much more technical and advanced than standard calculus.

## Quadratic variation

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Our first step in the direction of stochastic integration is to introduce quadratic variation.

## Definition

Let  $X(t)$  and  $Y(t)$  be two stochastic processes. The quadratic covariation of  $X_t$  and  $Y_t$  on the interval  $[0, T]$  is the stochastic process given by,

$$[X, Y]_T := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n (X_j - X_{j-1})(Y_j - Y_{j-1}), \quad X_j := X(t_j) = X\left(j \frac{T}{n}\right).$$

The quadratic variation of  $X$  over the same interval is,

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There is a lot of use in understanding quadratic (co)variation, but for us the following simple fact suffices: If  $B$  is a standard Brownian motion, then

$$[B]_T = T \quad \text{cf: } B_T \sim \mathcal{N}(0, T)$$

The fact that

$$[B, B]_T = T$$

suggests some notation that we will use soon.

First, note that this is true for  $T$  very small, and this along with the Markovian property of  $B$  suggests that we have the approximation,

$$(B(t + \Delta t) - B(t))^2 \approx \Delta t.$$

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To emphasize that  $B$  depends on  $t$ , one typically uses a subscript:

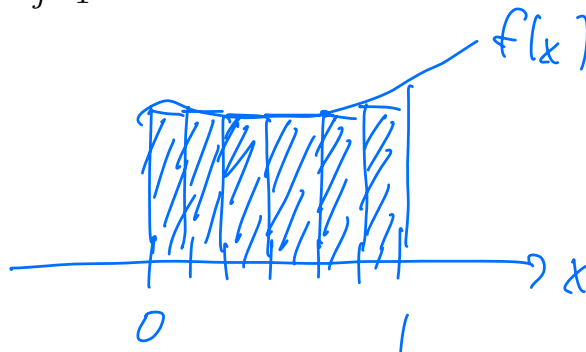
$$(dB_t)^2 = dt.$$

Note that for stochastic processes, subscript notation is *not* differentiation.

We can now introduce integration: our goal will be to integrate *with respect to* Brownian motion.

To gain some understanding of what this means, recall Riemann integration: if  $f : [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , then

$$\int_0^1 f(x) dx = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_{j-1})(x_j - x_{j-1}), \quad x_j := \frac{j}{n}.$$



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This also works just fine if you want to integrate with respect to a different variable:

$$\underbrace{u = x^2}_{??} \implies \int_0^1 f(x) du(x) := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_{j-1})(u_j - u_{j-1}), \quad u_j := u(x_j).$$

$$u = x^2 \rightarrow \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n f(x_{j-1})(x_j^2 - x_{j-1}^2)$$

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This inspires the following definition, which is the cornerstone of stochastic calculus:

### Definition (Itô Integral)

Let  $f(t) = f_t$  be a stochastic process (possibly also a deterministic function). Then we define,

$$\int_0^T f_t dB_t := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^n f(t_{j-1}) (B(t_j) - B(t_{j-1})).$$

where  $B_t$  is a standard Brownian motion. This is called an **Itô Integral**.

The stochastic process,

$$X_t = \int_0^T f_t dB_t$$

is called a process that is *driven by Brownian motion*.

$$f(t) = 1: \int_0^T 1 dB_t = B_t \Big|_{t=0}^T = B(T) - B(0) = B(T)$$

$B(0) = 0$  w.p. 1.

$$\int_0^T 1 dt = t \Big|_0^T = t \Big|_{t=T}$$

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Because Riemann integration statements can be written in terms of differentials, then we are tempted to use differential notation for the above expression:

$$dX_t = f_t dB_t \iff X_t = \int_0^T f_t dB_t$$

$\frac{dX_t}{dt}$  doesn't make sense!

It is important to understand that the differential notation is just notation! The real meaning is an integral statement: a rigorous statement involving standard differentials and derivatives is not possible!

However: this is our first example of a *stochastic* differential equation (SDE).

ODE:  $y' = f(y, t), y = y(t)$   
 $dy = f(y, t) dt$

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## Example

Let  $B_t$  be a standard Brownian motion. Some direct computations involving  $B_t^2$  allow us both to compute  $\int_0^t B_t dB_t$ , and to derive an SDE for  $B_t^2$ .

$B_t^2$ , divide  $[0, t]$  into  $n$  subintervals (take  $n \rightarrow \infty$ )

$$t_j = \frac{j t}{n}, \quad j = 0, \dots, n$$

$$B_{t_j} = B(t_j) = B_j$$

$$\begin{aligned} B_t^2 &= B_n^2 = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (B_{j+1}^2 - B_j^2) \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (B_{j+1} - B_j) \overbrace{(B_{j+1} + B_j)}^{B_{j+1} - B_j + 2B_j} \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} (B_{j+1} - B_j) (B_{j+1} - B_j) + 2 \underbrace{(B_{j+1} - B_j) B_j}_{\text{Itô integral}} \end{aligned}$$

as  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , this is  $[B]_t$

$$\underline{\underline{=}} \quad t + 2 \int_0^t B_t d B_t$$

$$d(B_t^2) = dt + 2 B_t d B_t$$

$$\text{and: } \int_0^t B_t d B_t = \frac{1}{2} B_t^2 - \frac{t}{2}$$





Petters, Arlie O. and Xiaoying Dong (2016). *An Introduction to Mathematical Finance with Applications: Understanding and Building Financial Intuition*. Springer. ISBN: 978-1-4939-3783-7.