Stochastic Processes: Lecture 2

Andrew J. Holbrook

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Theorem 1 There exists a probability distribution over the set of continuous functions $B : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ satisfying the following conditions:

(i)
$$B(0) = 0$$

(ii) for all $0 \le s < t$, $B(t) - B(s) \sim N(0, t - s)$.
(iii) $B(t_i) - B(s_i) \perp B(t_j) - B(s_j)$ for $s_i < t_i \le s_j < t_j$.

Item (ii) is stationarity, where t - s is the variance. Item (iii) is independence over non-overlapping increments.



A sample Brownian path

Strong Markov property

A random variable $\tau \in [0, \infty]$ is a *stopping time* if we can decide whether $\{\tau < t\}$ just by knowing the path of B(t) up to time t. Example: τ might be the first time an event of interest happens.

Theorem 2 For every a.s. finite stopping time τ , the process $\{B(\tau + t) - B(\tau) : t \ge 0\}$ is independent of the history of B(t) up to time τ .

Reflection principle

Theorem 3

If τ is a stopping time and $\{B(t) : t \ge 0\}$ a standard Brownian motion, then the process $\{B^*(t) : t \ge 0\}$ called "Brownian motion reflected at τ " and defined by

$$B^*(t) = B(t)\mathbb{1}_{\{t \le \tau\}} + (2B(\tau) - B(t))\mathbb{1}_{\{t > \tau\}}$$

is also a standard Brownian motion.



The distribution of the maximum

Let $M(t) = \max_{0 \le s \le t} B(s)$. M(t) is well-defined because B is continuous and [0, t] is compact.

Proposition 1

The following holds for a > 0:

$$Pr(M(t) > a) = 2Pr(B(t) > a) = 2 - 2\Phi\left(\frac{a}{\sqrt{t}}\right)$$



The distribution of the maximum

Proposition 1 The following holds for a > 0:

$$Pr(M(t) > a) = 2Pr(B(t) > a) = 2 - 2\Phi\left(\frac{a}{\sqrt{t}}\right)$$

Proof.

Define $\tau_a = \min_s \{s : B(s) = a\}$ and let $\{B^*(t) : t \ge 0\}$ be a Brownian motion reflected at τ_a . Then $\{M(t) > a\}$ is the disjoint union of events $\{B(t) > a\}$ and

$$\{M(t) > a, B(t) \le a\} = \{B^*(t) \ge a\}.$$

Brownian motion is not differentiable

Proposition 2 For $t \ge 0$, the Brownian motion is a.s. not differentiable at t.

Proof.

Assume Brownian motion *B* is differentiable at a fixed t_0 . Then there exists constants *A* and ϵ_0 s.t. for all $0 < \epsilon < \epsilon_0$, $B(t) - B(t_0) < A\epsilon$ holds for all $0 < t - t_0 \le \epsilon$.

Denote this event $E_{\epsilon,A}$ and let $E_A=\cap_\epsilon E_{\epsilon,A}$. But note that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathsf{Pr}(E_{\epsilon,A}) &= \mathsf{Pr}\left(B(t) - B(t_0) < A\epsilon, \text{ for all } 0 < t - t_0 \le \epsilon\right) \\ &= 1 - \mathsf{Pr}(M(\epsilon) > A\epsilon) = 1 - 2\mathsf{Pr}(B(\epsilon) > A\epsilon) \\ &= 1 - 2(1 - \Phi\left(\frac{A\epsilon}{\sqrt{\epsilon}}\right)) = 1 - 2(1 - \Phi(A\sqrt{\epsilon})) \end{aligned}$$

Taking the RHS to 0 takes the LHS to 0, and thus $P(E_A) = 0$.

Quadratic variation: $(dB)^2 = dt$

Theorem 4 For a partition $\Pi = \{t_0, t_1, ..., t_j\}$ of the interval [0, T], let $|\Pi| = \max_i (t_{i+1} - t_i)$. A Brownian motion satisfies the following equation with probability 1:

$$\lim_{|\Pi|\to 0} \sum_{i} (B(t_{i+1}) - B(t_i))^2 = T.$$

Proof.

For simplicity, assume gaps $t_{i+1} - t_i$ are uniform. Then $t_i = iT/n$ for i = 0, ..., n-1 and $B(t_{i+1}) - B(t_i) \sim N(0, T/n)$. Then by the LLN, for *n* large,

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=0}^{n-1}(B(t_{i+1})-B(t_i))^2\approx T/n.$$

Quadratic variation: $(dB)^2 = dt$

This result suggests that Brownian motion moves around a lot. For reference, assume f is differentiable. Then,

$$\sum_{i} (f(t_{i+1}) - f(t_i))^2 \leq \sum_{i} (t_{i+1} - t_i)^2 f'(s_i)^2 \ \leq \max_{s \in [0,T]} f'(s)^2 \sum_{i} (t_{i+1} - t_i)^2 \ \leq \max_{s \in [0,T]} f'(s)^2 \cdot \max_{i} (t_{i+1} - t_i) \cdot T \,.$$

Sending the $\max_i(t_{i+1} - t_i)$ to 0 sends the LHS to 0.

Brownian motion with drift

We can always add a drift term and consider $X(t) = \mu t + B(t)$. The drift term overpowers diffusion in a certain sense: for any $\epsilon > 0$, as t gets large, X(t) is always within the lines $y = (\mu \pm \epsilon)t$.



Ito's lemma

We know $\frac{dB_t}{dt}$ does not exist: B(t) is nowhere differentiable with probability 1. But we define the infinitesimal df for a smooth function f(B(t))? We know we cannot simply apply the chain rule:

$$df = \left(f'(B_t)\frac{dB_t}{dt}\right)dt$$
.

But maybe we can do this anyway by using dB_t directly instead? Then the previous equation becomes

$$df = f'(B_t)dB_t$$
.

But this only works when $\Delta x \cdot f'(x)$ dominates all other terms in the Taylor expansion

$$f(x + \Delta x) - f(x) = \Delta x \cdot f'(x) + \frac{(\Delta x)^2}{2}f''(x) + \cdots$$

lto's lemma

Let's plug ΔB_t into the Taylor expansion:

$$\Delta f = \Delta B_t \cdot f'(B_t) + rac{(\Delta B_t)^2}{2} f''(B_t) + \cdots$$

But we know that $\mathsf{E}(\Delta B_t)^2 = \Delta t$ (quadratic variation), so

$$\Delta f = \Delta B_t \cdot f'(B_t) + \frac{\Delta t}{2} f''(B_t) + \cdots$$

This gives us the simplest statement of Ito's lemma:

$$df(B_t) = f'(B_t)dB_t + \frac{1}{2}f''(B_t)dt.$$

Ito's lemma

More generally, for a smooth function f(t, x), we have

$$df = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t}dt + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}dx$$

In Ito calculus, this becomes:

$$df(t, B_t) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dB_t + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} (dB_t)^2$$
$$= \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}\right) dt + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dB_t.$$

Ito's lemma

Theorem 5 Let f(t, x) be a smooth function, and let X_t be a stochastic process satisfying $dX_t = \mu_t dt + \sigma_t dB_t$. Then

$$df(t, X_t) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} dt + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dX_t + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} (dX_t)^2$$

= $\left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \mu_t \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} + \frac{1}{2} \sigma_t^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \right) dt + \sigma_t \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} dB_t.$

Define integration as the inverse of differentiation, i.e.,

$$F(t, B_t) = \int f(t, B_t) dB_t + \int g(t, B_t) dt$$
$$\iff$$
$$dF(t, B_t) = f(t, B_t) dB_t + g(t, B_t) dt.$$

Fundamental theorem of calculus

If
$$f(x)=x^2/2$$
, then $df(B_t)=B_t dB_t+rac{1}{2}dt$.

This means that

$$B_T^2/2 = \int_0^T B_t dB_t + \int_0^T \frac{1}{2} dt = \int_0^T B_t dB_t + T/2$$

and thus

$$\int_0^T B_t dB_t = B_T^2/2 - T/2 \,.$$

Solving an SDE

If
$$f(t,x) = \exp(\mu t + \sigma x)$$
, then
 $df(t,B_t) = (\mu + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2)f(t,B_t)dt + \sigma f(t,B_t)dB_t$.

Question: which stochastic process $X_t(t, B_t)$ satisfies the SDE

$$dX_t = \sigma X_t dB_t ?$$

Solution: set $\mu = -\sigma^2/2$ to get

$$X(t,B_t) = \exp\left(-\sigma^2 t/2 + \sigma B_t\right)$$
.

Theorem 6 Let $\Delta(t)$ be a nonrandon function of time. Suppose the stochastic process I(t) satisfies

$$dI(t) = \Delta_s dB_s$$
, i.e., $I(t) = \int_0^t \Delta_s dB_s$,

where I(0) = 0. Then for each t > 0, I(t) is normally distributed.

Let X_t be a stochastic process. A process Δ_t is an *adapted* process w.r.t. X_t if for all $t \ge 0$, the random variable Δ_t depends only on X_s for $s \le t$.

- The process $\Delta_t = X_t$ is an adapted process.
- The process $\Delta_t = \min(X_t, c)$ for c constant is an adapted process.
- The process $\Delta_t = \max_{0 \le t \le T} X_t$ is not an adapted process.
- If τ is a stopping time, then X_{τ} is an adapted process.

Recall that a stochastic process X_t is a martingale if $E|X_t| < \infty$ and $E(X_t|\{X_{\tau}, \tau \leq s\}) = X_s$ for all $s \leq t$.

Theorem 7 For all adapted processes $g(t, B_t)$ satisfying the L^2 bound

$$\int \int_0^t g^2(s, B_s) ds \, dB_s < \infty$$

the integral

$$\int_0^t g(s, B_s) dB_s$$

is a martingale.

The process B_t itself is an adapted process. Recall that

$$\int_0^t B_s dB_s = rac{1}{2}(B_t^2-t)$$
 and $\mathsf{E}B_t^2=t$.

Hence

$$\mathsf{E}\left(\int_0^t B_s dB_s\right) = 0\,.$$

More generally,

$$\mathsf{E}\left(\int_{t_1}^{t_2} B_s dB_s \left| \mathcal{F}_{t_1} \right) = \mathsf{E}\left(\frac{1}{2}(B_{t_2}^2 - t_2) \left| \mathcal{F}_{t_1} \right) - \frac{1}{2}(B_{t_1}^2 - t_1) \right. \\ \left. = \frac{1}{2}(t_2 - t_1) + \frac{1}{2}B_{t_1}^2 - \frac{t_2}{2} - \frac{1}{2}(B_{t_1}^2 - t_1) = 0 \,.$$

The theorem is confirmed for $g(s, B_s) = B_s$.

Ito isometry

Theorem 8 For all adapted processes Δ_t w.r.t. B_t

$$E\left(\left(\int_0^t \Delta_s dB_s\right)^2\right) = E\left(\int_0^t \Delta_s^2 ds\right).$$

Let
$$\Delta(t)=1.$$
 Then ${\sf E}\left(\left(\int_0^t\Delta_s dB_s
ight)^2
ight)={\sf E}(B_t^2)=t\,,$

and

$$\mathsf{E}\left(\int_0^t \Delta_s^2 ds\right) = t \, .$$

Stochastic differential equations

We wish to solve equations of the form

$$dX(t) = \mu(t, X(t))dt + \sigma(t, X(t))dB(t).$$

A function X satisfies this equation if

$$X_T = \int_0^T \mu(t, X_t) dt + \int_0^T \sigma(t, X_t) dB(t) \, .$$

Stochastic differential equations

Theorem 9 (Existence and uniqueness) *If the coefficients of the SDE*

$$\begin{aligned} dX(t) &= \mu(t,X(t))dt + \sigma(t,X(t))dB(t) \\ X(0) &= x_0, \quad 0 \leq t \leq T \end{aligned}$$

satisfy the conditions

$$\left|\mu(t,x)-\mu(t,y)
ight|^{2}+\left|\sigma(t,x)-\sigma(t,y)
ight|^{2}\leq K|x-y|^{2}$$

and

$$\left|\mu(t,x)\right|^2+\left|\sigma(t,x)\right|^2\leq \mathcal{K}(1+\left|x
ight|^2)\,,$$

then there is an adapted process solution X(t) that satisfies the L^2 bound. If X and Y are both continuous solutions satisfying the L^2 bound, then

 $Pr(X(t) = Y(t), \forall t \in [0, T]) = 1.$

Solving
$$dX(t) = \mu X(t)dt + \sigma X(t)dB(t)$$
, $X(0) = x_0 > 0$

Step 1: assume X(t) = f(t, B(t)), then

$$dX(t) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}\right)dt + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}dB(t).$$

Step 2: equate

$$\mu X(t) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2}\right) \text{ and } \sigma X(t) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}.$$

Step 3: solve the second equation with

$$f(t,x) = x_0 \exp(\sigma x + g(t)) .$$

Step 4: plug this into first equation

$$\mu f = g'(t)f + rac{\sigma^2}{2}f$$
 to get $g'(t) = \mu - \sigma^2/2$.

Step 5: recognize that

$$f(t,x) = x_0 \exp(\sigma x + (\mu - \sigma^2/2)t)$$
 or $X(t) = x_0 \exp(\sigma B(t) + (\mu - \sigma^2/2)t)$.

Solving
$$dX(t) = -lpha X(t) dt + \sigma dB(t)$$
, $X(0) = x_0$

Try the test function

$$X(t) = a(t) \left(x_0 + \int_0^t b(s) dB(s)
ight), \quad a(0) = 1, \quad a(t) > 0, \ \forall t.$$

Differentiating gives

$$dX(t) = a'(t)dt\left(x_0 + \int_0^t b(s)dB(s)\right) + a(t)b(t)dB(t)$$
$$= \frac{a'(t)}{a(t)}X(t)dt + a(t)b(t)dB(t).$$

Matching this to the original SDE gives

$$-\alpha = \frac{a'(t)}{a(t)}, \quad \sigma = a(t)b(t).$$

Thus $a(t) = \exp(-\alpha t)$, $b(t) = \sigma \exp(\alpha t)$ and

$$X(t) = x_0 \exp(-\alpha t) + \sigma \int_0^t \exp(\alpha(s-t)) dB(s) \, .$$

Euler's method for ODEs

Problem: obtain u(1) for ODE u'(x) = 5u(x) + 2 with u(0) = 0. Solution: select small number h > 0 and use Taylor approximation at each step for times t = 0, 1h, 2h, ..., (1/h - 1)/h, 1.

$$u(t+h)\approx u(t)+h\cdot u'(t)=u(t)+h\cdot (5u(x)+2).$$



Euler-Maruyama

Problem: obtain distribution of X(1) for OU equation $dX(t) = -\alpha X(t)dt + \sigma dB(t)$ with X(0) = 0. Solution: select small number h > 0 and use Taylor approximation at each step for times $t = 0, 1h, 2h, \dots, (1/h - 1)/h, 1$.

$$X(t+h) \approx X(t) + dX(t) = X(t) - h \alpha X(t) + \sigma \sqrt{h} Z_{t+h}$$



Langevin Monte Carlo

We are interested in generating samples from a target distribution

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\pi(\theta) \propto \exp(-U(\theta)),
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so we simulate the diffusion that solves the SDE

$$egin{aligned} d heta(t) &= -
abla U(heta(t))dt + \sqrt{2}dB(t) \ &=
abla \log \pi(heta(t))dt + \sqrt{2}dB(t) \end{aligned}$$

using the Euler-Maruyama method, e.g.,

$$\theta(t+h) = \theta(t) + h\nabla \log \pi(\theta(t)) + \sqrt{2h}Z_{t+h}$$

Langevin Monte Carlo



Justifying LMC

The stochastic process $\theta(t)$ that satisfies

$$d heta(t) =
abla \log \pi(heta(t)) dt + \sqrt{2} dB(t)$$

leaves $\pi(\theta)$ invariant. To see this, we use a PDE that describes the evolution of the probability density function of X(t) with time for the general Ito diffusion

$$dX(t) = \mu(t, X(t))dt + \sigma(t, X(t))dB(t).$$

In 1D, this PDE is the Fokker-Plank equation:

$$rac{\partial}{\partial t} p(t,x) = -rac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\mu(t,x) p(t,x) \right) + rac{1}{2} rac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \left(\sigma^2(t,x) p(t,x)
ight) \, .$$

For us, this becomes

$$rac{\partial}{\partial t} p(t, heta) = -rac{\partial}{\partial heta} \left(rac{\partial}{\partial heta} \log \pi(heta) p(t, heta)
ight) + rac{\partial^2}{\partial heta^2} p(t, heta) \,.$$

Justifying LMC

For us, this becomes:

$$rac{\partial}{\partial t} p(t, heta) = -rac{\partial}{\partial heta} \left(rac{\partial}{\partial heta} \log \pi(heta) p(t, heta)
ight) + rac{\partial^2}{\partial heta^2} p(t, heta) \, .$$

Want to show: if $p(t, \theta) = \pi(\theta)$, then $\frac{\partial}{\partial t}p(t, \theta) = 0$. Plug it in:

$$egin{aligned} &rac{\partial}{\partial t} p(t, heta) = -rac{\partial}{\partial heta} \left(rac{\partial}{\partial heta} \log \pi(heta) \pi(heta)
ight) + rac{\partial^2}{\partial heta^2} \pi(heta) \ &= rac{\partial}{\partial heta} \left(-rac{\partial}{\partial heta} \pi(heta) + rac{\partial}{\partial heta} \pi(heta)
ight) = 0 \,. \end{aligned}$$