

MA8109 Stokastiske metoder i systemteori

Autumn 2007

Suggested solution and extra comments

(Revised version December 10)

1 Problem

Consider the probability space $\{\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P\}$ and three sets $A_1, A_2, A_3 \in \mathcal{F}$ where $A_1 \cup A_2 \cup A_3 = \Omega$. Moreover, the sets are disjoint ($A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset$ whenever $i \neq j$), and $P(A_i) > 0$ for $i = 1, 2, 3$.

(a) List the sets in the σ -algebra \mathcal{H} generated by A_1, A_2 , and A_3 .

(b) The function Y from Ω into \mathbb{R} is \mathcal{H} -measurable. Show that Y is equal to a constant on each of the sets A_1, A_2 , and A_3 . (Hint: Consider $\{\omega; X(\omega) = a\}$)

(c) Using the result from (b), compute the conditional expectation $E(X|\mathcal{H})(\omega)$ for an arbitrary stochastic variable X .

Solution:

(a) The definition of a σ -algebra is found in the notes. The σ -algebra \mathcal{H} generated by A_1, A_2 , and A_3 is the formally smallest σ -algebra containing A_1, A_2 and A_3 . Using the definition, it is obvious that \mathcal{H} contains $A_1, A_2, A_3, \Omega, \emptyset$, and, in addition the 3 sets $A_1^c = A_2 \cup A_3, A_2^c = A_1 \cup A_3$, and $A_3^c = A_1 \cup A_2$.

(b) When Y is \mathcal{H} -measurable, then for all sets B in the Borel algebra of \mathbb{R} ,

$$X^{-1}(B) = \{\omega; X(\omega) \in B\} \in \mathcal{H}. \quad (1)$$

Thus, if $X(\omega_1) = a$ for an $\omega_1 \in A_1$, then $\{\omega; X(\omega) = a\}$ will have to be equal to $A_1, A_1 \cup A_2, A_1 \cup A_3$, or Ω . In any case, X will have to be constant on A_1 . The same argument works for A_2 , and A_3 .

(c) If we do not differ between functions equal a.s., the conditional expectation $E(X|\mathcal{H})$ will be \mathcal{H} -measurable. From (b), we then know that it is constant on each of the sets A_1, A_2 , and A_3 , and it remains to determine the constants, say $a_i = X(\omega)$ for $\omega \in A_i$. Applying the definition, we have for all $H \in \mathcal{H}$,

$$\int_H E(X|\mathcal{H}) dP = \int_H X dP. \quad (2)$$

Then, using $H = A_1, A_2$, and A_3 , we obtain

$$\int_{A_i} a_i dP = a_i P(A) = \int_{A_i} X dP, \quad (3)$$

or

$$a_i = \frac{\int_{A_i} X dP}{P(A)}, \quad i = 1, 2, 3. \quad (4)$$

2 Problem

(a) Give a brief explanation of an adapted, elementary function, ϕ , and define the corresponding Itô integral,

$$I(\omega) = \int_S^T \phi(t, \omega) dB_t(\omega). \quad (5)$$

State the expectation and variance of I .

(b) Compute the expectation and the variance of the Itô integral

$$\int_0^1 (B_t^2 - t) dB_t \quad (6)$$

(Hint: If X is normal with mean μ and variance σ^2 , then $E(X - \mu)^4 = 3\sigma^4$)

(c) Let F_t be the filtration w.r.t. 1D Brownian motion. Prove that

$$M_t = B_t^2 - t \quad (7)$$

is an F_t -Martingale.

Solution:

(a) An adapted function needs first of all a filtration. In the present case, this is the filtration \mathcal{F}_t defined by the Brownian motion, that is, \mathcal{F}_t is the σ -algebra generated by $\{B_s\}_{0 \leq s \leq t}$. A function adapted to \mathcal{F}_t is a random process, say $X(t)$, where $X(t)$ is \mathcal{F}_t -measurable for all t -s. An elementary function ϕ is a process that is constant on each set of a partition P of an interval $[S, T]$. The partition consists of all intervals $[t_k, t_{k+1}]$ defined by

$$S = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_{n-1} < t_n = T \quad (8)$$

and

$$\phi(t, \omega) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} e_k(\omega) \chi_{[t_k, t_{k+1})}(t). \quad (9)$$

For ϕ to be \mathcal{F}_t -adapted, we need that $e_k(\omega)$ is \mathcal{F}_{t_k} -adapted for each k . In order to be in $\mathcal{V}[S, T]$, we also require that the variance stated below is finite, and a measurability condition (B.Ø. Def. 3.1.4). The Itô-integral of ϕ is defined as

$$I(\omega) = \int_S^T \phi(t, \omega) dB_t(\omega) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} e_k(\omega) (B_{t_{k+1}}(\omega) - B_{t_k}(\omega)). \quad (10)$$

Since $e_k(\omega)$ and $\Delta B_k = B_{t_{k+1}} - B_{t_k}$ are independent, $E I = 0$. Moreover, using the Itô Isometry,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Var } I^2 &= E I^2 = E \left(\int_S^T |\phi(t, \omega)|^2 dt \right) \\ &= \int_S^T E |\phi(t, \omega)|^2 dt = \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} E |e_k|^2 (t_{k+1} - t_k). \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

(This is also easy to see directly using the properties of e_k and ΔB_k).

(b) This is an Itô-integral since $(B_t^2 - t)$ is \mathcal{F}_t -adapted. Using the Itô Isometry, we first compute

$$E(B_t^2 - t)^2 = E(B_t^4 - 2tB_t^2 + t^2) = 3t^2 - 2t^2 + t^2 = 2t^2. \quad (12)$$

Then,

$$\text{Var} \left(\int_0^1 (B_t^2 - t) dB_t \right) = \int_0^1 2t^2 dt = \frac{2}{3}. \quad (13)$$

(c) The shortest proof of this is to observe (using Itô's Formula) that

$$d(B_t^2 - t) = -dt + 2B_t dB_t + \frac{1}{2}2(dB_t)^2 = 2B_t dB_t. \quad (14)$$

Thus,

$$B_t^2 - t = 2 \int_0^t B_s dB_s, \quad (15)$$

and all Itô-integrals are \mathcal{F}_t -martingales (B.Ø. Cor. 3.2.6).

Alternatively, checking the martingale definitions, $B_t^2 - t \in L^2(\Omega) \subset L^1(\Omega)$, and also adapted to \mathcal{F}_t . Finally, for $0 \leq s < t$, and $\Delta B = B_t - B_s$,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(B_t^2 - t | \mathcal{F}_s) &= \mathbb{E}\left((B_s + \Delta B)^2 - t | \mathcal{F}_s\right) \\ &= \mathbb{E}(B_s^2 + 2B_s \Delta B + \Delta B^2 - t | \mathcal{F}_s) \\ &= B_s^2 + 2B_s \mathbb{E} \Delta B + (t - s) - t \\ &= B_s^2 - s. \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

3 Problem

(a) Solve the 1D stochastic differential equation

$$dX_t = (1 - X_t) dt + dB_t, \quad t \geq 0, \quad (17)$$

where $X_0 = Z$. Here Z has mean μ and variance σ^2 and is independent of the Brownian motion. Write down the time varying mean and the variance of the solution (Hint: Apply a suitable integrating factor).

(b) Assume that X_t and Y_t satisfy the stochastic differential equations ($X_t, Y_t, B_t \in \mathbb{R}$):

$$\begin{aligned} dX_t &= \alpha X_t dt + Y_t dB_t, \quad X_0 = x_0, \\ dY_t &= \alpha Y_t dt - X_t dB_t, \quad Y_0 = y_0. \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

Derive and solve the differential equation for $R_t = X_t^2 + Y_t^2$.

Solution:

(a) The equation may be transformed into the class of linear equations we have considered by introducing $Y_t = X_t - 1$. The trick with an integrating factor may also be applied directly by multiplying the equation with a function $h(t)$ and observe that $h(t) dX_t = d(h(t) X_t) - X_t h'(t) dt$:

$$d(h(t) X_t) - X_t h'(t) dt = h(t) dt - X_t h(t) dt + h(t) dB_t.$$

For $h(t) = e^t$ we obtain

$$d(e^t X_t) = e^t dt + e^t dB_t,$$

or

$$X_t = Ze^{-t} + (1 - e^{-t}) + \int_0^t e^{s-t} dB_s.$$

Finally,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}X_t &= e^{-t}\mathbf{E}Z + (1 - e^{-t}) + \mathbf{E} \int_0^t e^{s-t} dB_s = e^{-t}\mu + (1 - e^{-t}), \\ \text{Var } X_t &= e^{-2t}\sigma^2 + \text{Var} \int_0^t e^{s-t} dB_s = e^{-2t}\sigma^2 + \int_0^t e^{2(s-t)} ds \\ &= e^{-2t}\sigma^2 + \frac{1}{2}(1 - e^{-2t}). \end{aligned}$$

(Note that Z is also independent of $\int_0^t e^{s-t} dB_s$).

(b) In this case, the 2D process (X_t, Y_t) is transformed into the 1D process $R_t = X_t^2 + Y_t^2$. We need the multidimensional Itô Formula for $g(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$, which in this case, since $\partial^2 g / \partial x \partial y = 0$, will be

$$dg(x, y) = 2xdx + 2ydy + \frac{2}{2}(dx)^2 + \frac{2}{2}(dy)^2. \quad (19)$$

Thus, also introducing the rule $(dB_t)^2 = dt$,

$$\begin{aligned} dR_t &= 2X_t(\alpha X_t dt + Y_t dB_t) + 2Y_t(\alpha Y_t dt - X_t dB_t) + Y_t^2 dt + X_t^2 dt \\ &= (2\alpha + 1)(X_t^2 + Y_t^2) dt = (2\alpha + 1)R_t dt \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

The solution of this (ordinary) diff. equation follows immediately

$$R_t = (x_0^2 + y_0^2) e^{(2\alpha+1)t}. \quad (21)$$

4 Problem

(a) Define the generator A of an autonome Itô diffusion

$$dX_t = b(X_t) dt + \sigma(X_t) dB_t, \quad X_t \in \mathbb{R}^n, B_t \in \mathbb{R}^m. \quad (22)$$

Express the solution $u(t, x)$, $t > 0$, $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, of the problem

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} &= Au, \\ u(0, x) &= f(x), \end{aligned} \quad (23)$$

in terms of f and X_t . Show how this gives an explicit formula for the solution when the diffusion is ordinary Brownian motion.

The Ornstein–Uhlenbeck process is an Itô diffusion and a simple 1D model for physical Brownian motion. Consider the special case

$$dX_t = -X_t dt + dB_t. \quad (24)$$

Let $0 < c < C$ and consider the stopping time

$$\tau_{c,C} = \inf \{t \geq 0; X_0 = c, X_t = 0 \text{ or } X_t = C\}. \quad (25)$$

It is known that $E(\tau_{c,C}) < \infty$.

(Hint for (b) and (c): The differential equation $-xy' + \frac{1}{2}y'' = 1$ has the general solution

$$y(x) = C_1 + C_2g(x) + y_p(x), \quad (26)$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} g(x) &= \int_0^x e^{s^2} ds, \\ y_p(x) &= \sqrt{\pi} \int_0^x \operatorname{erf}(s) e^{s^2} ds, \\ \operatorname{erf}(x) &= \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-s^2} ds. \end{aligned} \quad (27)$$

(b) Compute the probability that X_t hits the level C before it hits 0.

(c) Express $E(\tau_{c,C})$ in terms of the functions in Eqn. 27. Determine $E(\tau_c)$, where $\tau_c = \inf\{t \geq 0; X_0 = c, X_t = 0\}$.

Solution

(a) The generator is the differential operator

$$A = b(x) \cdot \nabla + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^n (\sigma \sigma^t)_{ij} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}. \quad (28)$$

The solution may be expressed as

$$u(t, x) = \mathbf{E}^x f(X_t). \quad (29)$$

The probability density for a Brownian motion at time t starting at 0 for $t = 0$ is

$$\varphi(x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi t)^{n/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{|x|^2}{2t}\right). \quad (30)$$

Thus, in that particular case,

$$u(t, x) = \mathbf{E}^x f(B_t) = \int_y f(y) \varphi(x - y) d^n y. \quad (31)$$

(b) This is an application of Dynkin's formula: If $\mathbf{E}\tau < \infty$, then for an $f \in C_c^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$,

$$\mathbf{E}^x f(X_\tau) = f(x) + \mathbf{E}^x \int_0^\tau Af(X_s) ds. \quad (32)$$

In the present case, the generator is the operator

$$-x \frac{d}{dx} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2}{dx^2}, \quad (33)$$

and the idea is to find a nice $f \in C_c^2(\mathbb{R})$ such that $Af = 0$ on the interval $[0, C]$. Here, the general solution of the equation

$$-x \frac{df}{dx} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 f}{dx^2} = 0 \quad (34)$$

is given, and $g(x)$ will work if we modify it with a smooth transition to 0 outside $[0, C]$, e.g. $f(x) = g(x)\theta(x)$ where $\theta \in C_c^2(\mathbb{R})$, $\theta(x) = 1$ on $[0, C]$. Let p_C be the probability we are looking for. Then from Dynkin's Lemma,

$$p_C g(C) + (1 - p_C) g(0) = g(c) + 0. \quad (35)$$

Since $g(0) = 0$, we obtain

$$p_C = \frac{g(c)}{g(C)}. \quad (36)$$

(c) We still use Dynkin's Formula, and need that $Af = 1$ on the interval $[0, C]$. Therefore, y_p (actually $y_p(x)\theta(x)$) is feasible since $Ay_p(X_t) = 1$ as long as $X_t \in [0, C]$. Then,

$$p_C y_p(C) + (1 - p_C) y_p(0) = y_p(c) + \mathbf{E}^x(\tau_{c,C}). \quad (37)$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{E}^x(\tau_{c,C}) &= p_C y_p(C) - y_p(c) \\ &= \frac{g(c)}{g(C)} y_p(C) - y_p(c) \\ &= \frac{y_p(C)}{g(C)} g(c) - y_p(c). \end{aligned} \quad (38)$$

If we look at the definitions of g and y_p , we observe first of all that

$$\frac{y_p(C)}{g(C)} = \frac{\sqrt{\pi} \int_0^C \operatorname{erf}(s) e^{s^2} ds}{\int_0^C e^{s^2} ds} < \sqrt{\pi}. \quad (39)$$

and, moreover,

$$\lim_{C \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\int_0^C \operatorname{erf}(s) e^{s^2} ds}{\int_0^C e^{s^2} ds} = 1. \quad (40)$$

Thus, $\mathbf{E}^x(\tau_{c,C})$ is uniformly bounded:

$$\mathbf{E}^c(\tau_{c,C}) < \sqrt{\pi} g(c) - y_p(c) = \sqrt{\pi} \int_0^c (1 - \operatorname{erf}(s)) e^{s^2} ds. \quad (41)$$

Since we also have

$$\tau_{c,C}(\omega) \nearrow_{C \rightarrow \infty} \tau_c(\omega) \quad (42)$$

for all paths, we obtain by the Monotone Convergence Theorem that $\mathbf{E}^c(\tau_{c,C}) \nearrow_{C \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{E}^c(\tau_c)$, or

$$\mathbf{E}^c(\tau_c) = \sqrt{\pi} \int_0^c (1 - \operatorname{erf}(s)) e^{s^2} ds. \quad (43)$$

Digression: Observe that it is essential that Af in Dynkin's formula does not cause problems for us when $|x| \rightarrow \infty$. Even if $Ay_p(x) = 1$ for all values of x , we can *not* write something like

$$y_p(0) = y_p(c) + \mathbf{E}^c \int_0^{\tau_c} Ay_p(X_s) ds = y_p(c) + \mathbf{E}^c(\tau_c),$$

which leads to the absurd result

$$\mathbf{E}^c(\tau_c) = -y_p(c)!$$

We need to ensure that we are able to taper off f by a function like θ above, and that is impossible if we just consider the interval $[0, \infty)$.