MVE550 2020 Lecture 12 Dobrow Sections 8.1, 8.2 Introduction to Brownian motion

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- Definition. Visualization.
- Simulation. Fractal simulation.
- Basic computational rules. Examples.
- Random walks. Donsker invariance.
- Nowhere differentiable paths.

Having looked at

- Discrete-time discrete state space processes. (Discrete Markov chains and Branching processes).
- Discrete-time continuous state space processes (not so much but we had some MCMC examples).
- Continuous-time discrete state space processes (Poisson processes and more generally continuous-time Markov chains).
- we now look at continuous-time continuous state space processes.
- ▶ We will look at two examples:
 - Brownian motion.
 - More generally, Gaussian processes.

Brownian motion

- In a gas, atoms bump into each other and change course. Over time, how does a single atom move, on average?
- ► If f(x, t) represents the probability density for the position x of an atom at time t, Einstein showed that

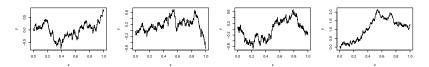
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}f(x,t)=\frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}f(x,t).$$

The solution is

$$f(x,t)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi t}}e^{-x^2/2t}.$$

So $x \sim \text{Normal}(0, t)$ at time t.

It turns out a single atom will move as simulated below. These paths are sampled from a model called Brownian motion.



Standard Brownian motion is a continuous-time stochastic process $\{B_t\}_{t\geq 0}$ with the following properties:

1.
$$B_0 = 0$$
.

- 2. For t > 0, $B_t \sim \text{Normal}(0, t)$ (so the *variance* is t, not the standard deviation).
- 3. For s, t > 0, $B_{t+s} B_s \sim \text{Normal}(0, t)$.
- 4. For $0 \le q < r \le s < t$, $B_t B_s$ is independent from $B_r B_q$.
- 5. The function $t \mapsto B_t$ is continuous with probability 1.

Simulation of Brownian motion

• Given time points $t_1 < t_2 < \cdots < t_n$, we can write

$$B_{t_i} = B_{t_{i-1}} + (B_{t_i} - B_{t_{i-1}}) = B_{t_{i-1}} + Z_i$$

where $Z_i \sim \text{Normal}(0, t_i - t_{i-1})$.

• Writing $t_0 = 0$, we get for independent Z_1, \ldots, Z_n ,

$$B_{t_n}=\sum_{i=1}^n Z_i.$$

▶ A good way to simulate the path $t \mapsto B_t$ on $t \in [0, a]$ is to set $t_i = ai/n$, simulate independently

$$Z_i \sim \text{Normal}(0, a/n)$$

and compute

$$B_{t_i}=\sum_{j=1}^i Z_j.$$

• Note that we can also write $Z_i = \sqrt{a/n}Y_i$, where $Y_i \sim \text{Normal}(0, 1)$.

Zooming in on a Brownian motion realization

- What if we have a Brownian motion path simulated above, and want to zoom in one some detail?
- ► The difference Z_i between the value at t_i and t_{i+1} can be written as a sum

$$Z_i = Z_{i0} + Z_{i1}$$

where $Z_{i0}, Z_{i1} \sim \text{Normal}(0, a/2n)$ independently.

- ▶ We get the value at midpoint between t_i and t_{i+1} by adding only Z_{i0} to the value at t_i.
- ► The simulated path follows the original model, but with a replaced by a/2.
- > This shows that the path is a fractal, i.e., invariant under scaling.

- To compute probabilities for Brownian motion, we generally use the properties in the definition, e.g.,
 - $B_{t+s} B_s \sim \text{Normal}(0, t)$
 - ▶ For $0 \le q < r \le s < t$, $B_t B_s$ is independent from $B_r B_q$.
- Example: Show that $B_1 + B_3 + 2B_7 \sim \text{Normal}(0, 50)$.
- Example: Show that $P(B_2 > 0 | B_1 = 1) = 0.8413$.
- Example: Show that $Cov(B_s, B_t) = min\{s, t\}$.

Connection to random walks

► Consider a symmetric random walk: A discrete time Markov chain S₀, S₁, S₂,... where

$$S_n = X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n$$

where X_1, X_2, \ldots are independent random variables with expectation zero.

- If we assume $Var(X_i) = 1$ we get $Var(S_n) = n$.
- Interpolating between the values S_n we can make this into a continuous time process S_t (see Dobrow). Var(S_t) ≈ t.
- We may scale with an s > 0 to get processes S^(s)_t = S_{st}/√s where we get lim_{s→∞} Var(S^(s)_t) = t.
- It turns out that the processes S^(s)_t when s → ∞ are exactly Brownian motion, no matter what type of X_i we start with.
- This is the Donsker's invariance principle.
- We can see this effect in simulations.
- ▶ We can use this to find approximate properties of random walks.

- We have seen in our simulations that paths of Brownian motion are "jagged".
- We have also seen that this quality is unchanged if we change the scale, i.e., look at smaller intervals.
- Formally note that $B_{t+h} B_t \sim \text{Normal}(0, h)$ so that

$$\frac{B_{t+h}-B_t}{h} \sim \mathsf{Normal}(0,1/h)$$

► Using these observations as starting points, one may show that the path (i.e., the function t → B_t) of a Brownian motion is nowehere differentiable, even though it is everywhere continuous.

MVE550 2020 Lecture 12.2 Dobrow 8.3, 8.4 Gaussian processes. Properties of Brownian motion.

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- Gaussian processes: Definition.
- Gaussian processes and Brownian motion.
- First hitting time
- Maximum of Brownian motion

The multivariate normal distribution

- ▶ Definition (one of many): A set of random variables X₁,..., X_k has a multivariate normal distribution if, for all real a₁,..., a_k, a₁X₁ + ··· + a_kX_k is normally distributed.
- It is completely determined by the expectation vector $\mu = (E(X_1), \dots, E(X_k))$ and the $(k \times k)$ covariance matrix Σ , where $\Sigma_{ij} = Cov(X_i, X_j)$.
- The joint density function on the vector $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_k)$ is

$$\pi(x) = \frac{1}{|2\pi\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^{T}\Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)\right).$$

where $|2\pi\Sigma|$ is the determinant of the matrix $2\pi\Sigma$.

 All marginal distributions and all conditional distributions are also multivariate normal.

- ▶ A Gaussian process is a continuous-time stochastic process $\{X_t\}_{t\geq 0}$ with the property that for all $n \geq 1$ and $0 \leq t_1 < t_2 < \cdots < t_n$, X_1, \ldots, X_n has a multivariate normal distribution.
- Thus, a Gaussian process is completely determined by its mean function E(X_t) and its covariance function Cov(X_s, X_t).
- Gaussian processes are extremely versatile as models. One may generalize for example so that the index set (the t's) is ℝⁿ.

- ▶ Brownian motion is a Gaussian process, as we can show that any $a_1B_{t_1} + \cdots + a_kB_{t_k}$ is normally distributed.
- ▶ A Gaussian process $\{X_t\}_{t \ge 0}$ is Brownian motion if and only if

1.
$$X_0 = 0$$
.

2.
$$E(X_t) = 0$$
 for all *t*.

- 3. $\operatorname{Cov}(X_s, X_t) = \min\{s, t\}$ for all s, t.
- 4. The function $t \mapsto X_t$ is a continuous with probability 1.
- The proof is fairly straightforward (see Dobrow).
- One may use the above for example when proving that something is Brownian motion, if it is easier than using the definition directly.

- The following transformations of Brownian motion are again Brownian motion:
 - $\blacktriangleright \{-B_t\}_{t\geq 0}.$

•
$$(B_{t+s} - B_s)_{t\geq 0}$$
 for any $s \geq 0$.

•
$$\left\{\frac{1}{\sqrt{a}}B_{at}\right\}_{t\geq 0}$$
 for any $a>0$.

- The process $\{X_t\}_{t\geq 0}$ where $X_0 = 0$ and $X_t = tB_{1/t}$ for t > 0.
- The proofs are fairly straightforward.
- ► The process X_t = x + B_t where B_t is Brownian motion and x is some real number is called "Brownian motion started at x".

- ▶ For any fixed t, $(B_{t+s} B_t)_{s \ge 0}$ is Brownian motion.
- ► Does this also happen if we start the chain anew from *T* when *T* is random? It depends.
- ▶ If *T* is the largest value less than 1 where $B_T = 0$, is $B_{T+s} B_T$ Brownian motion?
- No!
- If T is the smallest value where B_T = a for some constant a, is B_{T+s} − B_T Brownian motion?
- Yes! The reason is that the event T = t can be determined based on B_r where 0 ≤ r ≤ t.
- ► Random T's that have this property are called *stopping times*. For these B_{T+s} B_T is Brownian motion.

The distribution of the first hitting time

- Given $a \neq 0$ what is the distribution of the first hitting time $T_a = \min \{t : B_t = a\}$?
- It turns out that

$$rac{1}{T_a} \sim \mathsf{Gamma}\left(rac{1}{2},rac{a^2}{2}
ight)$$

- ▶ We prove this below, using that *T_a* is a stopping time!
- Assuming below that a > 0, we get $\Pr(B_t > a \mid T_a < t) = \Pr(B_{t-T_a} > 0) = \frac{1}{2}$.
- We also have

$$\Pr\left(B_t > a \mid T_a < t\right) = \frac{\Pr\left(B_t > a, T_a < t\right)}{\Pr\left(T_a < t\right)} = \frac{\Pr\left(B_t > a\right)}{\Pr\left(T_a < t\right)}$$

It follows that

$$\Pr(T_a < t) = 2\Pr(B_t > a) = 2 - 2\Pr(B_t \le a) = 2 - 2\Pr(B_1 \le at^{-1/2})$$

 Taking the derivative w.r.t. t, using the normal density formula, and cleaning up, we get the density

$$\pi(t) = \frac{a}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \left(\frac{1}{t}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}-1} \exp\left(-\frac{a^2}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{t}\right).$$

- Define $M_t = \max_{0 \le s \le t} B_s$.
- We may compute for a > 0 (using results from previous page)

$$\Pr\left(M_t > a\right) = \Pr\left(T_a < t\right) = 2\Pr\left(B_t > a\right) = \Pr\left(|B_t| > a\right)$$

- Thus M_t has the same distribution as $|B_t|$, the absolute value of B_t .
- Example: What is the probability that $M_3 > 5$?
- Example: Find t such that $Pr(M_t \le 4) = 0.9$.