

Lecture_16

den 27 november 2020 10:02



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Options and Mathematics: Lecture 16

November 27, 2020

Review of finite probability theory

Expectation and Variance

We may think of the expectation of X as an estimate on the average value of X and the variance of X as a measure of how far is this estimate from the precise value of X .

Definition 5.9

Let (Ω, \mathbb{P}) be a finite probability space and $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ a random variable. The **expectation** (or **expected value**) of X is defined by

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{i=1}^M X(\omega_i) \mathbb{P}(\omega_i).$$

We shall write the definition of $\mathbb{E}[X]$ also as

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} X(\omega) \mathbb{P}(\{\omega\})$$

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$$\underbrace{\omega \in \Omega} \Rightarrow X(\omega) \in \text{Im}(X) \\ x \in \text{Im}(X)$$

NOTATION $\mathbb{E}[X(x)]$

$$= \sum_{x \in \text{Im}(X)} x \cdot \mathbb{P}(X=x)$$

$$\Omega_N = \{H, T\}^N = \left\{ \omega = (\gamma_1, \gamma_2, \dots, \gamma_N) \mid \gamma_i = H \text{ or } T \right\}$$

$$P \in (0, 1) \quad \mathbb{P}_p(\{\omega\}) = p^{N_H(\omega)} (1-p)^{N_T(\omega)}$$

$N_T(\omega) = N - N_H(\omega)$
 $p \equiv$ PROBABILITY TO GET A HEAD IN EACH Toss

Example In the N -coin toss probability space (Ω_N, \mathbb{P}_p) we have

$$\mathbb{E}_p[X] = \sum_{\omega \in \Omega_N} X(\omega) p^{N_H(\omega)} (1-p)^{N_T(\omega)},$$

where $N_H(\omega)$ is the number of heads and $N_T(\omega) = N - N_H(\omega)$ is the number of tails in the N -toss $\omega \in \Omega_N$.

We can rewrite the definition of expectation as

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{x \in \text{Im}(X)} x \mathbb{P}(X = x),$$

or equivalently

$$\boxed{\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{x \in \text{Im}(X)} x f_X(x)}$$

The importance of the previous formula is that it allows to compute the expectation of X from its distribution, without any reference to the original probability space.

Example

If we are told that a random variable X takes the following values:

$$\text{Im}(X) = \{1, 2, -1\} \quad X = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{with probability } 1/4 \\ 2 & \text{with probability } 1/4 \\ -1 & \text{with probability } 1/2 \end{cases}$$

$X(\omega)$
REALIZATION
OF THE R.V. X

then we can compute $\mathbb{E}[X]$ as

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{4} - 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{4}.$$

$$\text{Var}[X] = \sum_{x \in \text{Im}(X)} x^2 \frac{1}{f_X(x)} - \mathbb{E}[X]^2 = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + (-1)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} - \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^2 = \frac{27}{16}$$

Some simple properties of the expectation are collected in the following theorem.

Theorem 5.2

Let X, Y be random variables on a finite probability space (Ω, \mathbb{P}) , $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$. The following holds:

1. $\mathbb{E}[aX + bY] = a\mathbb{E}[X] + b\mathbb{E}[Y]$ (linearity).
2. If $X \geq 0$ and $\mathbb{E}[X] = 0$, then $X = 0$.
3. If X, Y are independent, then $\mathbb{E}[XY] = \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]$.
4. If $Y = g(X)$, i.e., if Y is X -measurable, then

$$\mathbb{E}[g(X)] = \mathbb{E}[Y] = \sum_{x \in \text{Im}(X)} g(x) f_X(x). \quad (1)$$

$g(z) = z^2$

PROOF
IN THE
BOOK

Definition 5.10

Let (Ω, \mathbb{P}) be a finite probability space. The **variance** of a random variable $X : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is defined by

$$\text{Var}[X] = \mathbb{E}[(\mathbb{E}[X] - X)^2].$$

$\mathbb{E}[X]$

Using the linearity of the expectation, we obtain easily the formula

$$\text{Var}[X] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2$$

BY 2 OF THEOREM
5.2, $\text{Var}[X] = 0$
IFF $X = \mathbb{E}[X]$, i.e.,
IFF X IS
A DETERMINISTIC
CONSTANT

Remarks

- The variance of a random variable is always non-negative and it is zero if and only if the random variable is a deterministic constant. Hence we may also interpret the variance as a measure of the “randomness” of a random variable.
- $\text{Var}[aX] = a^2 \text{Var}[X]$ holds for all constants $a \in \mathbb{R}$, and

$$\text{Var}[X+Y] = \mathbb{E}[(X+Y)^2] - \mathbb{E}[X+Y]^2 = \text{Var}[X] + \text{Var}[Y] + 2(\mathbb{E}[XY] - \mathbb{E}[X]\mathbb{E}[Y]).$$

It follows by Theorem 5.2(3) that the variance of the sum of two independent random variables is the sum of their variance

Using (3) in Theorem 5.2 with $g(x) = x^2$, we can rewrite the definition of variance in terms of the distribution function of X as

$$\text{Var}[X] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2 = \sum_{x \in \text{Im}(X)} x^2 f_X(x) - \left(\sum_{x \in \text{Im}(X)} x f_X(x) \right)^2,$$

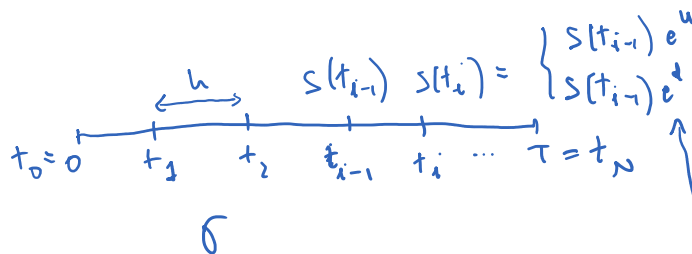
Handwritten notes:
 $\text{Var}[X] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2$
 $\mathbb{E}[g(x)], g(x) = x^2$
 $\mathbb{E}[X^2] = \sum x^2 f_X(x)$
 $\mathbb{E}[X]^2 = \left(\sum x f_X(x) \right)^2$

which allows to compute $\text{Var}[X]$ without any reference to the original probability space.

For instance for the random variable on page 2 we find

$$\text{Var}[X] = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{4} + 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} - \left(\frac{1}{4} \right)^2 = \frac{27}{16}.$$

$$f_X(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \neq u, x \neq d \\ p & \text{if } x = u \\ 1-p & \text{if } x = d \end{cases}$$



Example: mean of log return and volatility of the binomial stock price

Let $0 = t_0 < t_1 < \dots < t_N = T$ be a partition of the interval $[0, T]$ with $t_i - t_{i-1} = h$, for all $i = 1, \dots, N$.

Given $u > d$ and $p \in (0, 1)$, consider a random variable X such that $X = u$ with probability p and $X = d$ with probability $1 - p$.

A POSSIBLE
REALIZATION
OF X

We may think of X as being defined on $\Omega_1 = \{H, T\}$, with $X(H) = u$ and $X(T) = d$.

The binomial stock price at time t_i can be written as $S(t_i) = S(t_{i-1}) \exp(X)$.

Hence the log-return R of the stock in the interval $[t_{i-1}, t_i]$ is

$$R = \log S(t_i) - \log S(t_{i-1}) = \log \frac{S(t_i)}{S(t_{i-1})} = X.$$

It follows that the expectation and the variance of the log-return of the stock in the interval $[t_{i-1}, t_i]$ are

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[R] &= \mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{x \in \text{Im}(X)} x \cdot f_X(x) = (pu + (1-p)d), \\ \text{Var}[R] &= \text{Var}[X] = \mathbb{E}[X^2] - \mathbb{E}[X]^2 = [pu^2 + (1-p)d^2 - (pu + (1-p)d)^2] = p(1-p)(u-d)^2. \end{aligned}$$

Thus the parameters α, σ^2 in the binomial model can be rewritten as

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{h} \mathbb{E}[R], \quad \sigma^2 = \frac{1}{h} \text{Var}[R]$$

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha &= \frac{p u + (1-p) d}{h} \\ \sigma^2 &= \frac{p(1-p)(u-d)^2}{h} \end{aligned}$$

It is part of our assumptions on the binomial model that the parameters α and σ are the same for every interval $[t_{i-1}, t_i]$ of the partition.

→ IF $Y = g(X)$, Y CARRIES THE SAME INFORMATION AS X

X, Y ARE INDEPENDENT, THEN THEY CARRY INDEPENDENT INFORMATION =

Conditional expectation

If X, Y are independent random variables, knowing the value of Y does not help to estimate the random variable X .

However if X, Y are not independent, then we can use the information carried by Y to find an estimate of X which is better than $\mathbb{E}[X]$. This leads to the important concept of **conditional expectation**.

Definition 5.14

→ Let (Ω, \mathbb{P}) be a finite probability space, $X, Y : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ random variables and $y \in \text{Im}(Y)$. The expectation of X conditional to $Y = y$ (or given the event $\{Y = y\}$) is defined as

$$\mathbb{E}[X] = \sum_{x \in \text{Im}(X)} \mathbb{P}(X=x) x$$

$$\mathbb{E}[X|Y=y] = \sum_{x \in \text{Im}(X)} \mathbb{P}(X=x|Y=y) x$$

where $\mathbb{P}(X=x|Y=y)$ is the conditional probability of the event $\{X=x\}$, given the event $\{Y=y\}$.

$$\mathbb{P}(X=x|Y=y) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(X=x, Y=y)}{\mathbb{P}(Y=y)}$$

The random variable

$$\mathbb{E}[X|Y] : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, \quad \mathbb{E}[X|Y](\omega) = \mathbb{E}[X|Y=Y(\omega)] \quad \omega \in \Omega$$

is called the expectation of X conditional to Y .

In a similar fashion one defines the conditional expectation with respect to several random variables, i.e., $\mathbb{E}[X|Y_1 = y_1, Y_2 = y_2, \dots, Y_N = y_N]$ and $\mathbb{E}[X|Y_1, \dots, Y_N]$.

$$\Omega = \{\overset{\omega_1}{1}, \overset{\omega_2}{2}, \overset{\omega_3}{3}, \overset{\omega_4}{4}, \overset{\omega_5}{5}, \overset{\omega_6}{6}\}$$

Example

In the probability space of a fair die, consider

$$\mathbb{P}(\{\omega_i\}) = 1/6$$

$$\text{Im}(X) = \{-1, 1\}$$

$$X(\omega) = (-1)^\omega, \quad Y(\omega) = (\omega-1)(\omega-2)(\omega-3), \quad \omega \in \{1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6\}.$$

Note that $\text{Im}(Y) = \{0, 6, 24, 60\}$. Then we compute

$$\mathbb{E}[X|Y=y]$$

$$\sum_{x \in \text{Im}(X)} \mathbb{P}(X=x|Y=0) x$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[X|Y=0] &= \mathbb{P}(X=1|Y=0) - \mathbb{P}(X=-1|Y=0) \\ &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(X=1, Y=0)}{\mathbb{P}(Y=0)} - \frac{\mathbb{P}(X=-1, Y=0)}{\mathbb{P}(Y=0)} \\ &= \frac{\mathbb{P}(\{2\})}{\mathbb{P}(\{1, 2, 3\})} - \frac{\mathbb{P}(\{1, 3\})}{\mathbb{P}(\{1, 2, 3\})} = -1/3 \end{aligned}$$

$$y \in \{0, 6, 24, 60\}$$

$$\frac{1/6}{1/2} - \frac{1/3}{1/2}$$

Similarly we find

$$\mathbb{E}[X|Y=6] = 1, \quad \mathbb{E}[X|Y=24] = -1, \quad \mathbb{E}[X|Y=60] = 1$$

hence $\mathbb{E}[X|Y]$ is the random variable

$$\mathbb{E}[X|Y=Y(\omega)] = \mathbb{E}[X|Y](\omega) = \begin{cases} -1/3 & \text{if } \omega = 1, 2 \text{ or } 3 \\ 1 & \text{if } \omega = 4 \text{ or } 6 \\ -1 & \text{if } \omega = 5 \end{cases} \quad \begin{matrix} Y(\omega) = 0 \\ Y(4) = 6, Y(6) = 60 \\ Y(5) = 24 \end{matrix}$$

The following theorem collects a few important properties of the conditional expectation that will be used later on.

Theorem 5.3

Let $X, Y, Z : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be random variables on the finite probability space (Ω, \mathbb{P}) . Then

OBSVIOUS (0) The random variable $\mathbb{E}[X|Y]$ is Y -measurable; $\mathbb{E}[X|Y] = g(Y)$

OBSVIOUS (1) The conditional expectation is a linear operator, i.e.,

$$\mathbb{E}[\alpha X + \beta Y|Z] = \alpha \mathbb{E}[X|Z] + \beta \mathbb{E}[Y|Z],$$

for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$;

→ (2) If X is independent of Y , then $\mathbb{E}[X|Y] = \mathbb{E}[X]$; Y GIVES NO NEW INFORMATION

→ (3) If X is measurable with respect to \mathcal{Y} , i.e., $X = g(Y)$ for some function g , then $\mathbb{E}[X|Y] = X$; IF I KNOW Y , THEN I KNOW X

→ (4) $\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X|Y]] = \mathbb{E}[X]$; THE INFORMATION ON Y HAS BEEN LOST

$X = g(Z)$ → (5) If X is measurable with respect to Z , then $\mathbb{E}[XY|Z] = X\mathbb{E}[Y|Z]$; TAKE OUT WHAT IS KNOWN

→ (6) If Z is measurable with respect to Y then $\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X|Z]|Z] = \mathbb{E}[X|Z]$. TOWER PROPERTY
 Z CONTAINS LESS INFORMATION THAN Y → I LOSE THE LARGEST INFORMATION

These properties remain true if the conditional expectation is taken with respect to several random variables.

Remarks

- The interpretation of (2) is the following: If X is independent of Y , then the information carried by Y does not help to improve our estimate on X and thus our best estimate for X remains $\mathbb{E}[X]$.
- The interpretation of (3) is the following: if X is measurable with respect of Y , then by knowing Y we also know X and thus our best estimate on X is X itself.

Stochastic processes

$$X(t): \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ \omega \mapsto X(t)(\omega) \in \mathbb{R}$$

Let (Ω, \mathbb{P}) be a finite probability space and $T > 0$.

A one parameter family of random variables, $X(t) : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $t \in [0, T]$, is called a **stochastic process**.

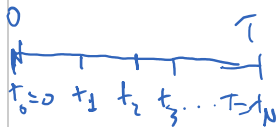
We denote the stochastic process by $\{X(t)\}_{t \in [0, T]}$ and by $X(t, \omega)$ the value of the random variable $X(t)$ on the sample $\omega \in \Omega$.

$$X(t)(\omega) = X(t, \omega) \quad (\text{Not } X(\omega))$$

For each fixed $\omega \in \Omega$, the curve $t \rightarrow X(t, \omega)$, is called a **path** of the stochastic process.

We shall refer to the parameter t as the time variable, as this is what it represents in most applications.

If $X(t, \omega) = C(t)$, for all $\omega \in \Omega$, i.e., if the paths are the same for all sample points, we say that the stochastic process is a **deterministic function** of time.



If t runs over a (possibly finite) discrete set $\{t_0, t_1, \dots\} \subset [0, T]$, then we say that the stochastic process is **discrete**.

$$\{X(t_0), X(t_1), X(t_2), \dots\}$$

Note that a discrete stochastic process is equivalent to a sequence of random variables:

$$\{X_0, X_1, \dots\}, \text{ where } X_i = X(t_i), i = 0, 1, \dots$$

If the discrete stochastic process is finite, i.e., if it runs only for a finite number N of time steps, we shall denote it by $\{X_n\}_{n=0, \dots, N}$ and call it a **N -period stochastic process**. If it runs for infinitely many steps we denote it by $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$.

RECALL THAT A RANDOM VARIABLE Y IS SAID TO BE MEASURABLE W.R.T. A SECOND R.V. X IF $Y = g(X)$ FOR SOME FUNCTION $g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Definition 5.15

Let $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ and $\{Y_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be two discrete stochastic processes on a finite probability space.

The process $\{Y_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is said to be **measurable** with respect to $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ if for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ there exists a function $g_n: \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that $Y_n = g_n(X_0, X_1, \dots, X_n)$.

If $Y_n = h_n(X_0, \dots, X_{n-1})$ for some function $h_n: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then $\{Y_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is said to be **predictable** from the process $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$.

Example: The random walk.

Consider the following (discrete and finite) stochastic process $\{X_n\}_{n=1, \dots, N}$ defined on the N -coin toss probability space (Ω_N, \mathbb{P}_p) :

$$n = 1, \dots, N \quad \omega = (\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_N) \in \Omega_N, \quad X_n(\omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \gamma_n = H \\ -1 & \text{if } \gamma_n = T \end{cases}$$

Clearly, the random variables X_1, \dots, X_N are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d), namely

$$I_{\{X_n = 1\}} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } X_n = 1 \\ 0 & \text{if } X_n = -1 \end{cases}$$

$$f_{X_n}(x) = \begin{cases} p & \text{if } x = 1 \\ 1-p & \text{if } x = -1 \\ 0 & \text{if } x \neq \pm 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\mathbb{P}_p(X_n = 1) = p, \quad \mathbb{P}_p(X_n = -1) = 1 - p, \quad \text{for all } n = 1, \dots, N.$$

$$\text{Hence } \mathbb{E}[X_n] = 1 \cdot p + (-1) \cdot (1-p) = 2p - 1$$

$$\mathbb{E}[X_n] = 2p - 1, \quad \text{Var}[X_n] = 4p(1-p), \quad \text{for all } n = 1, \dots, N.$$

Now, for $n = 1, \dots, N$, let

$$\{M_n\}_{n=0, \dots, N}$$

$$M_0 = 0, \quad M_n = \sum_{i=1}^n X_i.$$

The stochastic process $\{M_n\}_{n=0, \dots, N}$ is called the $(N\text{-period})$ random walk.

$$M_0 = 0, \quad M_1 = X_1, \quad M_2 = X_1 + X_2, \quad M_3 = X_1 + X_2 + X_3, \quad \dots$$

$$\begin{aligned} \omega \in \Omega_N, \quad \omega = (\gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_N) \\ \text{WHERE } \gamma_i = H \text{ or } T \\ \Omega_N = \{H, T\}^N \\ \mathbb{P}_p(\omega) = p^{N_H(\omega)} (1-p)^{N_T(\omega)} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[M_n] &= \mathbb{E}[X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[X_1] + \dots + \mathbb{E}[X_n]\end{aligned}$$

It satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}[M_n] = n(2p - 1), \quad \text{for all } n = 0, \dots, N. \quad = n(2p - 1)$$

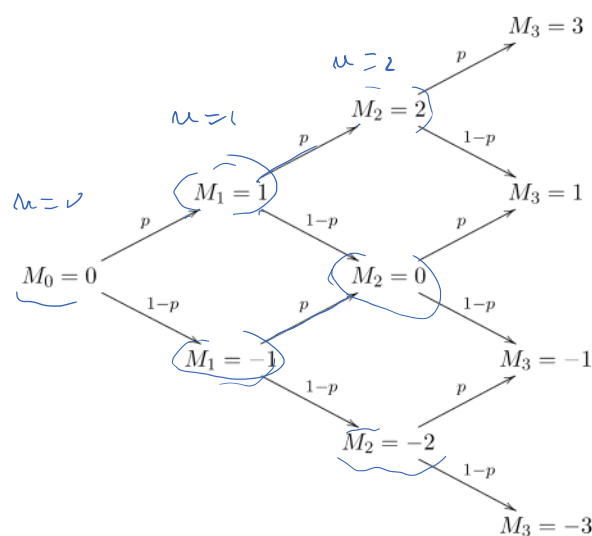
Moreover, being the sum of independent random variables, the random walk has variance given by

$$\text{Var}[M_0] = 0, \quad \text{Var}[M_n] = \text{Var}(X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{Var}[X_i] = np(1-p).$$

BECAUSE X_1, \dots, X_n ARE INDEPENDENT

When $p = 1/2$, the random walk is said to be **symmetric**. In this case $\{M_n\}_{n=0, \dots, N}$ satisfies $\mathbb{E}[M_n] = 0$, $n = 0, \dots, N$ and $\text{Var}[M_n] = n$. When $p \neq 1/2$, $\{M_n\}_{n=0, \dots, N}$ is called **asymmetric** random walk, or random walk with **drift**.

If $M_n = k$ then M_{n+1} is either $k + 1$ (with probability p), or $k - 1$ (with probability $1 - p$). Hence we can represent the paths of the random walk by using a binomial tree, as in the following example for $N = 3$:



RECOMBINING
BINOMIAL
TREE

Martingales

A martingale is a stochastic process which has no tendency to rise or fall. The precise definition is the following.

Definition 5.16

A discrete stochastic process $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ on the finite probability space (Ω, \mathbb{P}) is called a **martingale** if

$$\mathbb{E}[X_{n+1} | X_0, X_1, \dots, X_n] = X_n, \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Interpretation: The variables X_0, X_1, \dots, X_n contains the information obtained by “looking” at the stochastic process up to the step n . For a martingale process, this information is not enough to estimate whether, in the next step, the process will raise or fall.

Remarks

1. The martingale property depends on the probability being used: if $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a martingale in the probability \mathbb{P} and $\tilde{\mathbb{P}}$ is another probability measure on the sample space Ω , then $\{X_n\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ need not be a martingale with respect to $\tilde{\mathbb{P}}$.
2. Using property 4 in Theorem 5.3 we obtain

$$\mathbb{E}[X_{n+1}] = \mathbb{E}[X_n], \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Thus, iterating, $\mathbb{E}[X_n] = \mathbb{E}[X_0]$, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$, i.e., *martingales have constant expectation.* !!

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X|Y]] = \mathbb{E}[X]$$

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}[X_{n+1} | X_0, \dots, X_n]] = \mathbb{E}[X_n]$$

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$$\mathbb{E}[X_{n+1}]$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[X_{n+1}] &= \mathbb{E}[X_n] = \mathbb{E}[X_{n-1}] \\ &= \dots = \mathbb{E}[X_0] \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbb{P}: 2^{\Omega_N} \rightarrow [0,1]$$

$$\tilde{\mathbb{P}}: 2^{\Omega_N} \rightarrow [0,1]$$

$$\mathbb{E}[M_{n+1} | M_0, M_1, \dots, M_n] = M_n$$

Example

Next we show that the *symmetric* random walk is a martingale.

Using the linearity of the conditional expectation we have, for all $n = 0, \dots, N-1$,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[M_{n+1} | M_0, \dots, M_n] &= \mathbb{E}[M_n + X_{n+1} | M_0, \dots, M_n] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[M_n | M_0, \dots, M_n] + \mathbb{E}[X_{n+1} | M_0, \dots, M_n]. \end{aligned}$$

As M_n is measurable with respect to M_0, \dots, M_n then

$$\mathbb{E}[M_n | M_0, \dots, M_n] = M_n$$

see Theorem 5.3(3).

Moreover, as X_{n+1} is independent of M_0, \dots, M_n , Theorem 5.3(2) gives

$$\mathbb{E}[X_{n+1} | M_0, \dots, M_n] = \mathbb{E}[X_{n+1}] = 0$$

It follows that $\mathbb{E}[M_{n+1} | M_0, \dots, M_n] = M_n$, i.e., the symmetric random walk is a martingale.

However the asymmetric random walk ($p \neq 1/2$) is *not* a martingale, as it follows by the fact that its expectation $\mathbb{E}[M_n] = n(2p-1)$ is not constant (it depends on $n \in \mathbb{N}$).

$X(t)$ STOCHASTIC PROCESS
FIX THE SAMPLE POINT $\omega = \omega_*$
AND LET t RUNS IN $[0, T]$

IF I FIX $\omega = \omega_*$
I GET ANOTHER
PATH

