

Review: Brownian motion

- ▶ A process $\{B_t\}_{t \geq 0}$ where $B_t \sim \text{Normal}(0, t)$. No parameters.
- ▶ Independent normally distributed increments.
- ▶ Continuous paths that are nowhere differentiable.
- ▶ Connection to random walks: The Donsker principle.
- ▶ Gaussian processes.
- ▶ Restarting Brownian motions at stopping times.

The distribution of the first hitting time

- ▶ Given $a \neq 0$ what is the distribution of the first hitting time $T_a = \min \{t : B_t = a\}$?
- ▶ We prove below that

$$\frac{1}{T_a} \sim \text{Gamma} \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{a^2}{2} \right)$$

- ▶ Assuming that $a > 0$ and using that T_a is a stopping time we get for any $t > 0$ that $\Pr(B_{1/t} > a \mid T_a < 1/t) = \Pr(B_{1/t-T_a} > 0) = \frac{1}{2}$.
- ▶ We also have

$$\Pr(B_{1/t} > a \mid T_a < 1/t) = \frac{\Pr(B_{1/t} > a, T_a < 1/t)}{\Pr(T_a < 1/t)} = \frac{\Pr(B_{1/t} > a)}{\Pr(T_a < 1/t)}.$$

- ▶ It follows that $\Pr(T_a < 1/t) = 2 \Pr(B_{1/t} > a)$ and so

$$\Pr\left(\frac{1}{T_a} < t\right) = 2 \Pr(B_{1/t} < a) - 1 = 2 \Pr(B_1 < at^{1/2}) - 1.$$

- ▶ Taking the derivative w.r.t. t we get the Gamma density

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

Maximum of Brownian motion

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

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

- ▶ 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 $\Pr(M_t \leq 4) = 0.9$.

MVE550 2022 Lecture 13
Dobrow Sections 8.4 - 8.6
Zeros of Brownian motion. Brownian bridge.
Modelling stocks and options.
Martingales. Black Scholes

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Zeros of Brownian motion

- ▶ Let L be the *last zero* in $(0, 1)$ of Brownian motion. (In other words, $L = \max\{t : 0 < t < 1, B_t = 0\}$). Then

$$L \sim \text{Beta}\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right).$$

- ▶ Outline of proof on next page.
- ▶ Consequence: Let L_t be the last zero in $(0, t)$. Then

$$L_t/t \sim \text{Beta}\left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right).$$

- ▶ Note: The probability that Brownian motion has at least one zero in (r, t) for $0 \leq r < t$ is $1 - \Pr(L_t < r)$.
- ▶ Note: The cumulative distribution for the Beta density can be computed with the arcsin function:

$$\Pr(L_t < r) = \int_0^{r/t} \text{Beta}\left(s; \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) ds = \frac{2}{\pi} \arcsin\left(\sqrt{\frac{r}{t}}\right)$$

Outline of proof

$$\begin{aligned}\Pr(L > s) &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Pr(L > s \mid B_s = t) \text{Normal}(t; 0, s) dt \\&= 2 \int_0^{\infty} \Pr(M_{1-s} > t) \text{Normal}(t; 0, s) dt \\&= 2 \int_0^{\infty} 2 \Pr(B_{1-s} > t) \text{Normal}(t; 0, s) dt \\&= 4 \int_0^{\infty} \int_t^{\infty} \text{Normal}(r; 0, 1-s) \text{Normal}(t; 0, s) dr dt \\&= \dots \\&= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_s^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{x(1-x)}} dx \\&= \int_s^1 \text{Beta}\left(x; \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right) dx\end{aligned}$$

Brownian bridge

- ▶ Define a Gaussian process X_t by conditioning Brownian motion B_t on $B_1 = 0$. Then X_t is a *Brownian bridge*.
- ▶ If $0 < s < t < 1$ then (B_s, B_t, B_1) is multivariate normal with

$$E((B_s, B_t, B_1)) = (0, 0, 0), \quad \text{Var}((B_s, B_t, B_1)) = \Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} s & s & s \\ s & t & t \\ s & t & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Conditioning on $B_1 = 0$ and using properties of the multivariate normal (or see Dobrow) we get $E(X_t) = 0$ and

$$\text{Cov}(X_s, X_t) = s - st.$$

- ▶ Define another Gaussian process with $Y_t = B_t - tB_1$. Then we see that $E(Y_t) = 0$ and (when $0 < s < t < 1$)

$$\text{Cov}(Y_s, Y_t) = s - st.$$

It follows that this is identical to the Brownian bridge defined above.

- ▶ Example: Estimate by simulation: If a Brownian motion fulfills $B_1 = 0$, what is the probability that it has values below -1 ?

Brownian motion with a drift

- ▶ For real μ and $\sigma > 0$ define the Gaussian process X_t as

$$X_t = \mu t + \sigma B_t$$

This is *Brownian motion with a drift*, and is often a more useful model than standard Brownian motion.

- ▶ Examples:
 - ▶ The amount won or lost in a game of chance that is not fair (approximating discrete winnings / losses with continuous changes).
 - ▶ The score difference between two competing sports teams (approximating this difference with a continuous function).
- ▶ This is a Gaussian process with continuous paths and stationary and independent increments.
- ▶ Example: Computing the chance of winning team game based on intermediate score.
- ▶ Note: If a Brownian motion with drift is observed at points $y_1, \dots, y_n$ and μ and σ are not fixed, there are priors so that we can do conjugate analysis, and analytically get a posterior process. However this posterior process is not a Gaussian process.

Geometric Brownian motion

- ▶ The stochastic process

$$G_t = G_0 e^{\mu t + \sigma B_t}$$

where $G_0 > 0$ is called *geometric Brownian motion* with drift parameter μ and variance parameter σ^2 .

- ▶ $\log(G_t)$ is a Gaussian process with expectation $\log(G_0) + \mu t$ and variance $t\sigma^2$.
- ▶ Show that
 - ▶ $E(G_t) = G_0 e^{t(\mu + \sigma^2/2)}$
 - ▶ $\text{Var}(G_t) = G_0^2 e^{2t(\mu + \sigma^2/2)} (e^{t\sigma^2} - 1)$
- ▶ Natural model for things that develop by multiplication of random independent factors, rather than addition of random independent increments. Example: Stock prices.

Modelling stock price with geometric Brownian motion

- ▶ To model the price of a stock, it is reasonable to
 - ▶ use a continuous-time stochastic model.
 - ▶ consider the *factor* with which it changes, not the differences in prices.
 - ▶ consider normal distributions for such factors (?)
 - ▶ use a parameter for the trend of the price, and one for the variability of the price.
 - ▶ make a Markov assumption(???)
- ▶ This leads to using a geometric Brownian motion as model

$$G_t = G_0 e^{\mu t + \sigma B_t}$$

In this context σ is called the *volatility* of the stock.

- ▶ Example: A stock price is modelled with $G_0 = 67.3$, $\mu = 0.08$, $\sigma = 0.3$. What is the probability that the price is above 100 after 3 years?

Discounting future values

- ▶ When making investments, there is always a range of choices, some of which are sometimes called “risk free”. Such investments may pay a fixed interest.
- ▶ When interests are compounded frequently, a reasonable model is that an investment of G_0 has a value $G_0 e^{rt}$ after time t , where r is the “risk free” investment rate of return.
- ▶ A common way to take this alternative into account is to instead “discount” all other investments with the factor e^{-rt} .
- ▶ For example, the value of a stock may be modelled with

$$e^{-rt} G_t = e^{-rt} G_0 e^{\mu t + \sigma B_t} = G_0 e^{(\mu - r)t + \sigma B_t}$$

So discounting corresponds to adjusting the trend parameter from μ to $\mu - r$.

Stock options

- ▶ A (European) stock option is a right (but not obligation) to buy a stock at a given time t in the future for a given price K .
- ▶ How much can you expect to earn from a stock option at that future time?
- ▶ We get that (see next page)

$$E(\max(G_t - K, 0)) = G_0 e^{t(\mu + \sigma^2/2)} \Pr\left(B_1 > \frac{\beta - \sigma t}{\sqrt{t}}\right) - K \Pr\left(B_1 > \frac{\beta}{\sqrt{t}}\right)$$

where $\beta = (\log(K/G_0) - \mu t)/\sigma$.

- ▶ Example: A stock price is modelled with $G_0 = 67.3$, $\mu = 0.08$, $\sigma = 0.3$. What is the expected payoff from an option to buy the stock at 100 in 3 years?

- Prove the algebraic identity

$$e^{\sigma x} \text{Normal}(x; 0, t) = e^{\sigma^2 t/2} \text{Normal}(x; \sigma t, t)$$

- Then, defining $\beta = (\log(K/G_0) - \mu t) / \sigma$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} E(\max(G_t - K, 0)) &= E(\max(G_0 e^{\mu + \sigma B_t} - K, 0)) \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \max(G_0 e^{\mu t + \sigma x} - K, 0) \text{Normal}(x; 0, t) dx \\ &= \int_{\beta}^{\infty} (G_0 e^{\mu t + \sigma x} - K) \text{Normal}(x; 0, t) dx \\ &= G_0 e^{\mu t} \int_{\beta}^{\infty} e^{\sigma x} \text{Normal}(x; 0, t) dx - K \int_{\beta}^{\infty} \text{Normal}(x; 0, t) dx \\ &= G_0 e^{t(\mu + \sigma^2/2)} \int_{\beta}^{\infty} \text{Normal}(x; \sigma t, t) dx - K \int_{\beta}^{\infty} \text{Normal}(x; 0, t) dx \\ &= G_0 e^{t(\mu + \sigma^2/2)} \Pr\left(B_1 > \frac{\beta - \sigma t}{\sqrt{t}}\right) - K \Pr\left(B_1 > \frac{\beta}{\sqrt{t}}\right) \end{aligned}$$

- ▶ A stochastic process $(Y_t)_{t \geq 0}$ is a *martingale* if for $t \geq 0$
 - ▶ $E(Y_t \mid Y_r, 0 \leq r \leq s) = Y_s$ for $0 \leq s \leq t$.
 - ▶ $E(|Y_t|) < \infty$.
- ▶ Brownian motion is a martingale.
- ▶ $(Y_t)_{t \geq 0}$ is a *martingale with respect to* $(X_t)_{t \geq 0}$ if for all $t \geq 0$
 - ▶ $E(Y_t \mid X_r, 0 \leq r \leq s) = Y_s$ for $0 \leq s \leq t$.
 - ▶ $E(|Y_t|) < \infty$.
- ▶ Example: Define $Y_t = B_t^2 - t$ for $t \geq 0$. Then Y_t is a martingale with respect to Brownian motion.

Geometric Brownian motion can be a martingale

Let G_t be Geometric Brownian motion. We get

$$\begin{aligned} & E(G_t \mid B_r, 0 \leq r \leq s) \\ = & E(G_0 e^{\mu t + \sigma B_t} \mid B_r, 0 \leq r \leq s) \\ = & E\left(G_0 e^{\mu(t-s) + \sigma(B_t - B_s)} e^{\mu s + \sigma B_s} \mid B_r, 0 \leq r \leq s\right) \\ = & E(G_{t-s}) e^{\mu s + \sigma B_s} \\ = & G_0 e^{(t-s)(\mu + \sigma^2/2)} e^{\mu s + \sigma B_s} \\ = & G_s e^{(t-s)(\mu + \sigma^2/2)} \end{aligned}$$

- We see that G_t is a martingale with respect to B_t if and only if $\mu + \sigma^2/2 = 0$.

The Black-Scholes formula for option pricing

- ▶ It is not easy to get a reliable estimate for μ in the model of a stock, even if one can get an estimate of σ , the volatility.
- ▶ A possibility is to *assume* that the *discounted* value of the stock is a martingale relative to Brownian motion: So on average it is not better or worse to invest in the stock than in a “risk free” investment.
- ▶ This means that $\mu - r + \sigma^2/2 = 0$, i.e., $\mu = r - \sigma^2/2$.
- ▶ Plugging this into the formula for the value of a stock option and multiplying with e^{-rt} we get

$$e^{-rt} E(\max(G_t - K, 0)) = G_0 \Pr\left(B_1 > \frac{\beta - \sigma t}{\sqrt{t}}\right) - e^{-rt} K \Pr\left(B_1 > \frac{\beta}{\sqrt{t}}\right)$$

where $\beta = (\log(K/G_0) - (r - \sigma^2/2)t)/\sigma$.

- ▶ This is the Black-Scholes formula for option pricing.
- ▶ With $r = 0.02$, $G_0 = 67.3$, $\sigma = 0.3$, $t = 3$, and $K = 70$, we get the discounted stock option price 3.39.