

### Example

- Consider the stochastic process

$$\{ Z_n \equiv \sum_{i=1}^n X_i, n \geq 1 \},$$

where  $X_i$  are independent random variables with zero mean.

- This process is a martingale because

$$\begin{aligned} E[ Z_{n+1} | Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n ] \\ &= E[ Z_n + X_{n+1} | Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n ] \\ &= E[ Z_n | Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n ] + E[ X_{n+1} | Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_n ] \\ &= Z_n + E[ X_{n+1} ] = Z_n. \end{aligned}$$

### Probability Measure (continued)

- A stochastic process  $\{ X(t), t \geq 0 \}$  is a martingale with respect to information sets  $\{ I_t \}$  if, for all  $t \geq 0$ ,  $E[ | X(t) | ] < \infty$  and

$$E[ X(u) | I_t ] = X(t)$$

for all  $u > t$ .

- The discrete-time version: For all  $n > 0$ ,

$$E[ X_{n+1} | I_n ] = X_n,$$

given the information sets  $\{ I_n \}$ .

### Probability Measure

- A martingale is defined with respect to a probability measure, under which the expectation is taken.
  - A probability measure assigns probabilities to states of the world.
- A martingale is also defined with respect to an information set.
  - In the characterizations (41)–(42) on p. 397, the information set contains the current and past values of  $X$  by default.
  - But it needs not be so.

### Probability Measure (concluded)

- The above implies  $E[ X_{n+m} | I_n ] = X_n$  for any  $m > 0$  by Eq. (16) on p. 136.
  - A typical  $I_n$  is the price information up to time  $n$ .
  - Then the above identity says the FVs of  $X$  will not deviate systematically from today's value given the price history.

### Example

- Consider the stochastic process  $\{Z_n - n\mu, n \geq 1\}$ .
  - $Z_n \equiv \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$ .
  - $X_1, X_2, \dots$  are independent random variables with mean  $\mu$ .
- Now,

$$\begin{aligned}
 & E[Z_{n+1} - (n+1)\mu \mid X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n] \\
 &= E[Z_{n+1} \mid X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n] - (n+1)\mu \\
 &= Z_n + \mu - (n+1)\mu \\
 &= Z_n - n\mu.
 \end{aligned}$$

### Martingale Pricing

- Recall that the price of a European option is the expected discounted future payoff at expiration in a risk-neutral economy.
- This principle can be generalized using the concept of martingale.
- Recall the recursive valuation of European option via

$$C = [pC_u + (1-p)C_d]/R.$$

- $p$  is the risk-neutral probability.
- \$1 grows to  $\$R$  in a period.

### Example (concluded)

- Define
 
$$I_n \equiv \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}.$$
- Then
 
$$\{Z_n - n\mu, n \geq 1\}$$
 is a martingale with respect to  $\{I_n\}$ .

### Martingale Pricing (continued)

- Let  $C(i)$  denote the value of the option at time  $i$ .
- Consider the discount process

$$\{C(i)/R^i, i = 0, 1, \dots, n\}.$$

- Then,

$$E \left[ \frac{C(i+1)}{R^{i+1}} \mid C(i) = C \right] = \frac{pC_u + (1-p)C_d}{R^{i+1}} = \frac{C}{R^i}.$$

### Martingale Pricing (continued)

- In general,

$$E \left[ \frac{C(k)}{R^k} \middle| C(i) = C \right] = \frac{C}{R^i}, \quad i \leq k. \quad (44)$$

- The discount process is a martingale:

$$\frac{C(i)}{R^i} = E_i^\pi \left[ \frac{C(k)}{R^k} \right], \quad i \leq k. \quad (45)$$

- $E_i^\pi$  is taken under the risk-neutral probability conditional on the price information up to time  $i$ .
- This risk-neutral probability is also called the EMM, or the equivalent martingale (probability) measure.

### Martingale Pricing (concluded)

- If interest rates are stochastic, then  $M(j)$  is a random variable.
  - $M(0) = 1$ .
  - $M(j)$  is known at time  $j - 1$ .
- Identity (46) on p. 411 is the general formulation of risk-neutral valuation.

**Theorem 14** *A discrete-time model is arbitrage-free if and only if there exists a probability measure such that the discount process is a martingale. This probability measure is called the risk-neutral probability measure.*

### Martingale Pricing (continued)

- In general, Eq. (45) holds for all assets, not just options.
- When interest rates are stochastic, the equation becomes

$$\frac{C(i)}{M(i)} = E_i^\pi \left[ \frac{C(k)}{M(k)} \right], \quad i \leq k. \quad (46)$$

- $M(j)$  is the balance in the money market account at time  $j$  using the rollover strategy with an initial investment of \$1.
- So it is called the bank account process.
- It says the discount process is a martingale under  $\pi$ .

### Futures Price under the BOPM

- Futures prices form a martingale under the risk-neutral probability.
  - The expected futures price in the next period is

$$p_f F u + (1 - p_f) F d = F \left( \frac{1 - d}{u - d} u + \frac{u - 1}{u - d} d \right) = F$$

(p. 374).

- Can be generalized to

$$F_i = E_i^\pi [F_k], \quad i \leq k,$$

where  $F_i$  is the futures price at time  $i$ .

- It holds under stochastic interest rates.

## Martingale Pricing and Numeraire

- The martingale pricing formula (46) on p. 411 uses the money market account as numeraire.<sup>a</sup>
  - It expresses the price of any asset *relative to* the money market account.
- The money market account is not the only choice for numeraire.
- Suppose asset  $S$ 's value is positive at all times.

<sup>a</sup>Leon Walras (1834–1910).

## Example

- Take the binomial model with two assets.
- In a period, asset one's price can go from  $S$  to  $S_1$  or  $S_2$ .
- In a period, asset two's price can go from  $P$  to  $P_1$  or  $P_2$ .
- Assume

$$\frac{S_1}{P_1} < \frac{S}{P} < \frac{S_2}{P_2}$$

to rule out arbitrage opportunities.

## Martingale Pricing and Numeraire (concluded)

- Choose  $S$  as numeraire.
- Martingale pricing says there exists a risk-neutral probability  $\pi$  under which the relative price of any asset  $C$  is a martingale:

$$\frac{C(i)}{S(i)} = E_i^\pi \left[ \frac{C(k)}{S(k)} \right], \quad i \leq k.$$

- $S(j)$  denotes the price of  $S$  at time  $j$ .
- So the discount process remains a martingale.

## Example (continued)

- For any derivative security, let  $C_1$  be its price at time one if asset one's price moves to  $S_1$ .
- Let  $C_2$  be its price at time one if asset one's price moves to  $S_2$ .
- Replicate the derivative by solving

$$\alpha S_1 + \beta P_1 = C_1,$$

$$\alpha S_2 + \beta P_2 = C_2,$$

using  $\alpha$  units of asset one and  $\beta$  units of asset two.

### Example (continued)

- This yields

$$\alpha = \frac{P_2 C_1 - P_1 C_2}{P_2 S_1 - P_1 S_2} \quad \text{and} \quad \beta = \frac{S_2 C_1 - S_1 C_2}{S_2 P_1 - S_1 P_2}.$$

- The derivative costs

$$\begin{aligned} C &= \alpha S + \beta P \\ &= \frac{P_2 S - P S_2}{P_2 S_1 - P_1 S_2} C_1 + \frac{P S_1 - P_1 S}{P_2 S_1 - P_1 S_2} C_2. \end{aligned}$$

### Brownian Motion<sup>a</sup>

- Brownian motion is a stochastic process  $\{X(t), t \geq 0\}$  with the following properties.

1.  $X(0) = 0$ , unless stated otherwise.
2. for any  $0 \leq t_0 < t_1 < \cdots < t_n$ , the random variables

$$X(t_k) - X(t_{k-1})$$

for  $1 \leq k \leq n$  are independent.<sup>b</sup>

3. for  $0 \leq s < t$ ,  $X(t) - X(s)$  is normally distributed with mean  $\mu(t - s)$  and variance  $\sigma^2(t - s)$ , where  $\mu$  and  $\sigma \neq 0$  are real numbers.

<sup>a</sup>Robert Brown (1773–1858).

<sup>b</sup>So  $X(t) - X(s)$  is independent of  $X(r)$  for  $r \leq s < t$ .

### Example (concluded)

- It is easy to verify that

$$\frac{C}{P} = p \frac{C_1}{P_1} + (1 - p) \frac{C_2}{P_2}.$$

– Above,

$$p \equiv \frac{(S/P) - (S_2/P_2)}{(S_1/P_1) - (S_2/P_2)}.$$

- The derivative's price using asset two as numeraire is thus a martingale under the risk-neutral probability  $p$ .
- The expected returns of the two assets are irrelevant.

### Brownian Motion (concluded)

- Such a process will be called a  $(\mu, \sigma)$  Brownian motion with drift  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ .
- The existence and uniqueness of such a process is guaranteed by Wiener's theorem.<sup>a</sup>
- Although Brownian motion is a continuous function of  $t$  with probability one, it is almost nowhere differentiable.
- The  $(0, 1)$  Brownian motion is also called the Wiener process.

<sup>a</sup>Norbert Wiener (1894–1964).

### Example

- If  $\{X(t), t \geq 0\}$  is the Wiener process, then  $X(t) - X(s) \sim N(0, t - s)$ .
- A  $(\mu, \sigma)$  Brownian motion  $Y = \{Y(t), t \geq 0\}$  can be expressed in terms of the Wiener process:

$$Y(t) = \mu t + \sigma X(t).$$

- As  $Y(t + s) - Y(t) \sim N(\mu s, \sigma^2 s)$ , uncertainty about the future value of  $Y$  grows as the square root of how far we look into the future.

### Brownian Motion as Limit of Random Walk (continued)

- (continued)
  - Here

$$X_i \equiv \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if the } i\text{th move is to the right,} \\ -1 & \text{if the } i\text{th move is to the left.} \end{cases}$$

- $X_i$  are independent with  $\text{Prob}[X_i = 1] = p = 1 - \text{Prob}[X_i = -1]$ .

- Recall  $E[X_i] = 2p - 1$  and  $\text{Var}[X_i] = 1 - (2p - 1)^2$ .

### Brownian Motion Is a Random Walk in Continuous Time

**Claim 1** A  $(\mu, \sigma)$  Brownian motion is the limiting case of random walk.

- A particle moves  $\Delta x$  to the left with probability  $1 - p$ .
- It moves to the right with probability  $p$  after  $\Delta t$  time.
- Assume  $n \equiv t/\Delta t$  is an integer.
- Its position at time  $t$  is

$$Y(t) \equiv \Delta x (X_1 + X_2 + \cdots + X_n).$$

### Brownian Motion as Limit of Random Walk (continued)

- Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y(t)] &= n(\Delta x)(2p - 1), \\ \text{Var}[Y(t)] &= n(\Delta x)^2 [1 - (2p - 1)^2]. \end{aligned}$$

- With  $\Delta x \equiv \sigma\sqrt{\Delta t}$  and  $p \equiv [1 + (\mu/\sigma)\sqrt{\Delta t}]/2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y(t)] &= n\sigma\sqrt{\Delta t}(\mu/\sigma)\sqrt{\Delta t} = \mu t, \\ \text{Var}[Y(t)] &= n\sigma^2\Delta t [1 - (\mu/\sigma)^2\Delta t] \rightarrow \sigma^2 t, \end{aligned}$$

as  $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ .

## Brownian Motion as Limit of Random Walk (concluded)

- Thus,  $\{Y(t), t \geq 0\}$  converges to a  $(\mu, \sigma)$  Brownian motion by the central limit theorem.
- Brownian motion with zero drift is the limiting case of symmetric random walk by choosing  $\mu = 0$ .

- Note that

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{Var}[Y(t + \Delta t) - Y(t)] \\ &= \text{Var}[\Delta x X_{n+1}] = (\Delta x)^2 \times \text{Var}[X_{n+1}] \rightarrow \sigma^2 \Delta t. \end{aligned}$$

- Similarity to the the BOPM: The  $p$  is identical to the probability in Eq. (25) on p. 234 and  $\Delta x = \ln u$ .

## Geometric Brownian Motion (continued)

- In particular,

$$\begin{aligned} E[Y(t)] &= e^{\mu t + (\sigma^2 t/2)}, \\ \text{Var}[Y(t)] &= E[Y(t)^2] - E[Y(t)]^2 \\ &= e^{2\mu t + \sigma^2 t} (e^{\sigma^2 t} - 1). \end{aligned}$$

## Geometric Brownian Motion

- Let  $X \equiv \{X(t), t \geq 0\}$  be a Brownian motion process.
- The process

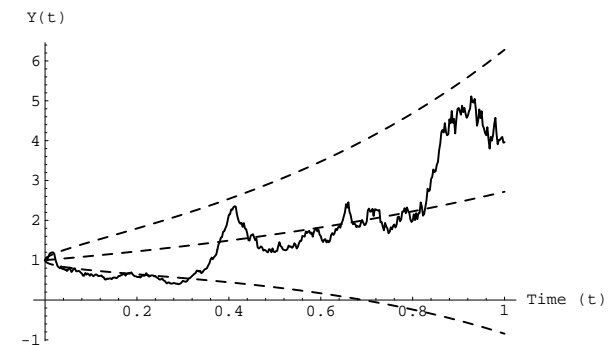
$$\{Y(t) \equiv e^{X(t)}, t \geq 0\},$$

is called geometric Brownian motion.

- Suppose further that  $X$  is a  $(\mu, \sigma)$  Brownian motion.
- $X(t) \sim N(\mu t, \sigma^2 t)$  with moment generating function

$$E[e^{sX(t)}] = E[Y(t)^s] = e^{\mu ts + (\sigma^2 ts^2/2)}$$

from Eq. (17) on p 138.



### Geometric Brownian Motion (continued)

- It is useful for situations in which percentage changes are independent and identically distributed.
- Let  $Y_n$  denote the stock price at time  $n$  and  $Y_0 = 1$ .
- Assume relative returns

$$X_i \equiv \frac{Y_i}{Y_{i-1}}$$

are independent and identically distributed.

### *Continuous-Time Financial Mathematics*

### Geometric Brownian Motion (concluded)

- Then

$$\ln Y_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \ln X_i$$

is a sum of independent, identically distributed random variables.

- Thus  $\{\ln Y_n, n \geq 0\}$  is approximately Brownian motion.
  - And  $\{Y_n, n \geq 0\}$  is approximately geometric Brownian motion.

A proof is that which convinces a reasonable man;  
a rigorous proof is that which convinces an  
unreasonable man.  
— Mark Kac (1914–1984)

The pursuit of mathematics is a  
divine madness of the human spirit.  
— Alfred North Whitehead (1861–1947),  
*Science and the Modern World*



## Stochastic Integrals

- Use  $W \equiv \{W(t), t \geq 0\}$  to denote the Wiener process.
- The goal is to develop integrals of  $X$  from a class of stochastic processes,<sup>a</sup>

$$I_t(X) \equiv \int_0^t X dW, \quad t \geq 0.$$

- $I_t(X)$  is a random variable called the stochastic integral of  $X$  with respect to  $W$ .
- The stochastic process  $\{I_t(X), t \geq 0\}$  will be denoted by  $\int X dW$ .

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<sup>a</sup>Ito (1915-).

## Ito Integral

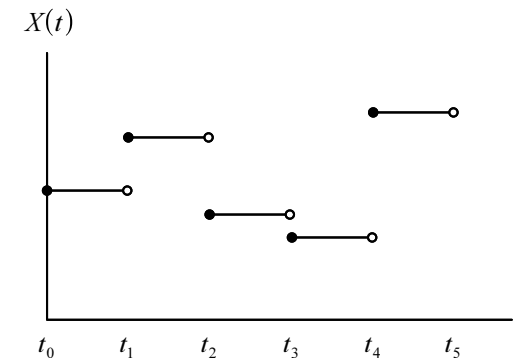
- A theory of stochastic integration.
- As with calculus, it starts with step functions.
- A stochastic process  $\{X(t)\}$  is simple if there exist  $0 = t_0 < t_1 < \dots$  such that

$$X(t) = X(t_{k-1}) \quad \text{for } t \in [t_{k-1}, t_k), k = 1, 2, \dots$$

for any realization (see figure next page).

## Stochastic Integrals (concluded)

- Typical requirements for  $X$  in financial applications are:
  - $\text{Prob}[\int_0^t X^2(s) ds < \infty] = 1$  for all  $t \geq 0$  or the stronger  $\int_0^t E[X^2(s)] ds < \infty$ .
  - The information set at time  $t$  includes the history of  $X$  and  $W$  up to that point in time.
  - But it contains nothing about the evolution of  $X$  or  $W$  after  $t$  (nonanticipating, so to speak).
  - The future cannot influence the present.
- $\{X(s), 0 \leq s \leq t\}$  is independent of  $\{W(t+u) - W(t), u > 0\}$ .



### Ito Integral (continued)

- The Ito integral of a simple process is defined as

$$I_t(X) \equiv \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} X(t_k)[W(t_{k+1}) - W(t_k)], \quad (47)$$

where  $t_n = t$ .

- The integrand  $X$  is evaluated at  $t_k$ , not  $t_{k+1}$ .
- Define the Ito integral of more general processes as a limiting random variable of the Ito integral of simple stochastic processes.

### Ito Integral (concluded)

- It is a fundamental fact that  $\int X dW$  is continuous almost surely.
- The following theorem says the Ito integral is a martingale.
- A corollary is the mean value formula

$$E \left[ \int_a^b X dW \right] = 0.$$

**Theorem 15** *The Ito integral  $\int X dW$  is a martingale.*

### Ito Integral (continued)

- Let  $X = \{X(t), t \geq 0\}$  be a general stochastic process.
- Then there exists a random variable  $I_t(X)$ , unique almost certainly, such that  $I_t(X_n)$  converges in probability to  $I_t(X)$  for each sequence of simple stochastic processes  $X_1, X_2, \dots$  such that  $X_n$  converges in probability to  $X$ .
- If  $X$  is continuous with probability one, then  $I_t(X_n)$  converges in probability to  $I_t(X)$  as  $\delta_n \equiv \max_{1 \leq k \leq n} (t_k - t_{k-1})$  goes to zero.

### Discrete Approximation

- Recall Eq. (47) on p. 438.
- The following simple stochastic process  $\{\hat{X}(t)\}$  can be used in place of  $X$  to approximate the stochastic integral  $\int_0^t X dW$ ,

$$\hat{X}(s) \equiv X(t_{k-1}) \text{ for } s \in [t_{k-1}, t_k), k = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

- Note the nonanticipating feature of  $\hat{X}$ .
  - The information up to time  $s$ ,

$$\{\hat{X}(t), W(t), 0 \leq t \leq s\},$$

cannot determine the future evolution of  $X$  or  $W$ .

### Discrete Approximation (concluded)

- Suppose we defined the stochastic integral as

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} X(t_{k+1})[W(t_{k+1}) - W(t_k)].$$

- Then we would be using the following different simple stochastic process in the approximation,

$$\hat{Y}(s) \equiv X(t_k) \text{ for } s \in [t_{k-1}, t_k), k = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

- This clearly anticipates the future evolution of  $X$ .

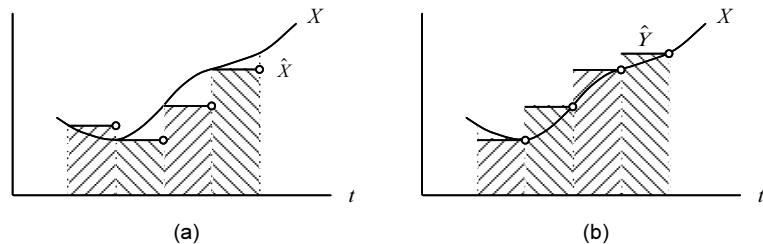
### Ito Process

- The stochastic process  $X = \{X_t, t \geq 0\}$  that solves

$$X_t = X_0 + \int_0^t a(X_s, s) ds + \int_0^t b(X_s, s) dW_s, \quad t \geq 0$$

is called an Ito process.

- $X_0$  is a scalar starting point.
- $\{a(X_t, t) : t \geq 0\}$  and  $\{b(X_t, t) : t \geq 0\}$  are stochastic processes satisfying certain regularity conditions.
- The terms  $a(X_t, t)$  and  $b(X_t, t)$  are the drift and the diffusion, respectively.



### Ito Process (continued)

- A shorthand<sup>a</sup> is the following stochastic differential equation for the Ito differential  $dX_t$ ,

$$dX_t = a(X_t, t) dt + b(X_t, t) dW_t. \quad (48)$$

- Or simply  $dX_t = a_t dt + b_t dW_t$ .
- This is Brownian motion with an instantaneous drift  $a_t$  and an instantaneous variance  $b_t^2$ .
- $X$  is a martingale if the drift  $a_t$  is zero by Theorem 15 (p. 440).

<sup>a</sup>Paul Langevin (1904).

### Ito Process (concluded)

- $dW$  is normally distributed with mean zero and variance  $dt$ .
- An equivalent form to Eq. (48) is

$$dX_t = a_t dt + b_t \sqrt{dt} \xi, \quad (49)$$

where  $\xi \sim N(0, 1)$ .

- This formulation makes it easy to derive Monte Carlo simulation algorithms.

### More Discrete Approximations

- Under fairly loose regularity conditions, approximation (50) on p. 447 can be replaced by

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{X}(t_{n+1}) \\ = \hat{X}(t_n) + a(\hat{X}(t_n), t_n) \Delta t + b(\hat{X}(t_n), t_n) \sqrt{\Delta t} Y(t_n). \end{aligned}$$

- $Y(t_0), Y(t_1), \dots$  are independent and identically distributed with zero mean and unit variance.

### Euler Approximation

- The following approximation follows from Eq. (49),

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{X}(t_{n+1}) \\ = \hat{X}(t_n) + a(\hat{X}(t_n), t_n) \Delta t + b(\hat{X}(t_n), t_n) \Delta W(t_n), \end{aligned} \quad (50)$$

where  $t_n \equiv n\Delta t$ .

- It is called the Euler or Euler-Maruyama method.
- Under mild conditions,  $\hat{X}(t_n)$  converges to  $X(t_n)$ .
- Recall that  $\Delta W(t_n)$  should be interpreted as  $W(t_{n+1}) - W(t_n)$  instead of  $W(t_n) - W(t_{n-1})$ .

### More Discrete Approximations (concluded)

- A simpler discrete approximation scheme:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{X}(t_{n+1}) \\ = \hat{X}(t_n) + a(\hat{X}(t_n), t_n) \Delta t + b(\hat{X}(t_n), t_n) \sqrt{\Delta t} \xi. \end{aligned}$$

- $\text{Prob}[\xi = 1] = \text{Prob}[\xi = -1] = 1/2$ .
- Note that  $E[\xi] = 0$  and  $\text{Var}[\xi] = 1$ .
- This clearly defines a binomial model.
- As  $\Delta t$  goes to zero,  $\hat{X}$  converges to  $X$ .

### Trading and the Ito Integral

- Consider an Ito process  $dS_t = \mu_t dt + \sigma_t dW_t$ .  
–  $S_t$  is the vector of security prices at time  $t$ .
- Let  $\phi_t$  be a trading strategy denoting the quantity of each type of security held at time  $t$ .
- Hence the stochastic process  $\phi_t S_t$  is the value of the portfolio  $\phi_t$  at time  $t$ .
- $\phi_t dS_t \equiv \phi_t(\mu_t dt + \sigma_t dW_t)$  represents the change in the value from security price changes occurring at time  $t$ .

### Ito's Lemma

A smooth function of an Ito process is itself an Ito process.

**Theorem 16** Suppose  $f : R \rightarrow R$  is twice continuously differentiable and  $dX = a_t dt + b_t dW$ . Then  $f(X)$  is the Ito process,

$$\begin{aligned} f(X_t) &= f(X_0) + \int_0^t f'(X_s) a_s ds + \int_0^t f'(X_s) b_s dW \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t f''(X_s) b_s^2 ds \end{aligned}$$

for  $t \geq 0$ .

### Trading and the Ito Integral (concluded)

- The equivalent Ito integral,

$$G_T(\phi) \equiv \int_0^T \phi_t dS_t = \int_0^T \phi_t \mu_t dt + \int_0^T \phi_t \sigma_t dW_t,$$

measures the gains realized by the trading strategy over the period  $[0, T]$ .

### Ito's Lemma (continued)

- In differential form, Ito's lemma becomes

$$df(X) = f'(X) a dt + f'(X) b dW + \frac{1}{2} f''(X) b^2 dt. \quad (51)$$

- Compared with calculus, the interesting part is the third term on the right-hand side.
- A convenient formulation of Ito's lemma is

$$df(X) = f'(X) dX + \frac{1}{2} f''(X) (dX)^2.$$

### Ito's Lemma (continued)

- We are supposed to multiply out  $(dX)^2 = (a dt + b dW)^2$  symbolically according to

$\times$	$dW$	$dt$
$dW$	$dt$	0
$dt$	0	0

- The  $(dW)^2 = dt$  entry is justified by a known result.
- This form is easy to remember because of its similarity to the Taylor expansion.

### Ito's Lemma (continued)

- The multiplication table for Theorem 17 is

$\times$	$dW_i$	$dt$
$dW_k$	$\delta_{ik} dt$	0
$dt$	0	0

in which

$$\delta_{ik} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = k, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

### Ito's Lemma (continued)

**Theorem 17 (Higher-Dimensional Ito's Lemma)** Let  $W_1, W_2, \dots, W_n$  be independent Wiener processes and  $X \equiv (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m)$  be a vector process. Suppose  $f : R^m \rightarrow R$  is twice continuously differentiable and  $X_i$  is an Ito process with  $dX_i = a_i dt + \sum_{j=1}^n b_{ij} dW_j$ . Then  $df(X)$  is an Ito process with the differential,

$$df(X) = \sum_{i=1}^m f_i(X) dX_i + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{k=1}^m f_{ik}(X) dX_i dX_k,$$

where  $f_i \equiv \partial f / \partial x_i$  and  $f_{ik} \equiv \partial^2 f / \partial x_i \partial x_k$ .

### Ito's Lemma (continued)

**Theorem 18 (Alternative Ito's Lemma)** Let  $W_1, W_2, \dots, W_m$  be Wiener processes and  $X \equiv (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_m)$  be a vector process. Suppose  $f : R^m \rightarrow R$  is twice continuously differentiable and  $X_i$  is an Ito process with  $dX_i = a_i dt + b_i dW_i$ . Then  $df(X)$  is the following Ito process,

$$df(X) = \sum_{i=1}^m f_i(X) dX_i + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{k=1}^m f_{ik}(X) dX_i dX_k.$$

### Ito's Lemma (concluded)

- The multiplication table for Theorem 18 is

$\times$	$dW_i$	$dt$
$dW_k$	$\rho_{ik} dt$	0
$dt$	0	0

- Here,  $\rho_{ik}$  denotes the correlation between  $dW_i$  and  $dW_k$ .