

Lecture: Financial Modelling

– *Preparation knowledge*

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1 **Rate of return and volatility**

2 **Basic stochastic calculus**

§1 Rate of return and volatility

The time value of money

- The time value of money is the greater benefit of receiving money **now** rather than **later**. It is the so-called **time preference**.
- The principle of the time value of money explains why interest is paid or earned: **Interest**, whether it is on a bank deposit (or debt), compensates the depositor (or lender) for the time value of money.
- It also underlies investment: investors are willing to forgo spending their money **now**, if they expect a favorable return on their investment in the **future**.

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Simple interest

- *Simple interest* is calculated **only** on the *principal* amount.
- Suppose FV is the *final value*, B is the initial balance, i is the interest rate, n is the number of time periods, then, we have

$$FV = B(1 + i \times n).$$

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Compound interest

- *Compound interest* includes **interest earned on the interest** which was previously accumulated.
- Suppose FV is the *final value*, B is the initial balance, i is the interest rate, n is the number of time periods, then, we have

$$FV = B(1 + i) \times (1 + i) \times \dots(1 + i) = B(1 + i)^n.$$

§1 Rate of return and volatility

Example of simple and compound interest

Suppose an investor deposits 10,000 yuan in the bank account for 5 years, the annual interest rate is 2.5%.

- Simple interest:

$$FV = 10,000 \times (1 + 2.5\% \times 5) = 11,250.$$

- Compound interest:

$$FV = 10,000 \times (1 + 2.5\%)^5 = 11,314.$$

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Continuous compound interest

- As n , the number of compounding periods **per year**, increases to **infinity**, we have the limiting case known as *continuous compounding*, i.e.,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} B \left(1 + \frac{r}{n}\right)^{nt} = Be^{rt}.$$

- Final value at time T is

$$FV_T = PV_t \times e^{r(T-t)}, \quad T > t.$$

- Present value at time t is

$$PV_t = FV_T \times e^{-r(T-t)}, \quad T > t.$$

§1 Rate of return and volatility

Volatility

- **Volatility** (often denoted by symbol σ) is the degree of **variation** of a asset price (or return) series over time.
- Volatility is an important factor in options trading:
 - Black-Scholes (BS) option pricing formula.
- Volatility has many other financial applications:
 - Calculating value at risk (VaR) in risk management;
 - Asset allocation under the mean-variance framework.

Since asset price (return) is a stochastic process, the actual volatility is always an **unknown (unobservable)**. We only can get its estimations from **historical** observations based on e.g. some financial time-series models:

- *Moving average (MA) model;*
- *Generalized autoregressive conditional heteroskedasticity (GARCH) model (Engle, 1982; Bollerslev, 1986).*

§1 Rate of return and volatility

Moving average model

We may get its estimations from e.g. moving average models based on M observations:

- Equally-weighting scheme:

$$\sigma_t^2 = \frac{1}{M-1} \times \sum_{i=1}^M \left(r_{t-i} - \frac{\sum_{j=1}^M r_{t-j}}{M} \right)^2 ;$$

- General weighting scheme:

$$\sigma_t^2 = \frac{1}{M-1} \times \sum_{i=1}^M \omega_{t-i} \left(r_{t-i} - \frac{\sum_{j=1}^M r_{t-j}}{M} \right)^2 .$$

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GARCH model

- If an *autoregressive moving average* (ARMA) model is assumed for the **error variance**, then, the model is a *generalized autoregressive conditional heteroskedasticity* (GARCH) model.
- The *GARCH* (p, q) *model*, following the notation of original paper (Bollerslev, 1986), is given by

$$y_t = x_t' b + \varepsilon_t, \quad \varepsilon_t | \psi_{t-1} \sim N(0, \sigma_t^2);$$
$$\sigma_t^2 = \omega + \sum_{i=1}^q \alpha_i \varepsilon_{t-i}^2 + \sum_{i=1}^p \beta_i \sigma_{t-i}^2,$$

where p is the order of the GARCH terms σ^2 , q is the order of the ARCH terms ε^2 .

§2 Basic stochastic calculus

Outline

- 1 Stochastic process
- 2 Markov process
- 3 Martingale process
- 4 Brownian motion
- 5 Itô process and Itô's lemma

Random variable:

- A random variable $X : \Omega \rightarrow E$ is a measurable function from a set of all possible outcomes Ω to a measurable space E .
- Usually X is real-valued, i.e., $E \subseteq \mathbb{R}$.

Stochastic process:

- For a given probability space and a measurable space, $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{P})$, a stochastic process X is a collection of real-valued random variables, indexed by some set \mathbb{T} , which can be written as

$$\{X(\omega, t) : t \in \mathbb{T}\},$$

or,

$$\{X(t) : t \in \mathbb{T}\}.$$

- Stochastic process $\{X(t)\}_{t \in \mathbb{T}}$ is a binary function defined on $\Omega \times \mathbb{T}$.

- A **Markov process** is a stochastic process that has *Markov property*, which means the **next** value of the Markov process depends on the **current** (most recent) value, but it is conditionally **independent** of **all** previous values of the stochastic process:

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr \{ X(t_n) \leq x_n \mid X(t_1) = x_1, X(t_2) = x_2, \dots, X(t_{n-1}) = x_{n-1} \} \\ = & \Pr \{ X(t_n) \leq x_n \mid X(t_{n-1}) = x_{n-1} \}. \end{aligned}$$

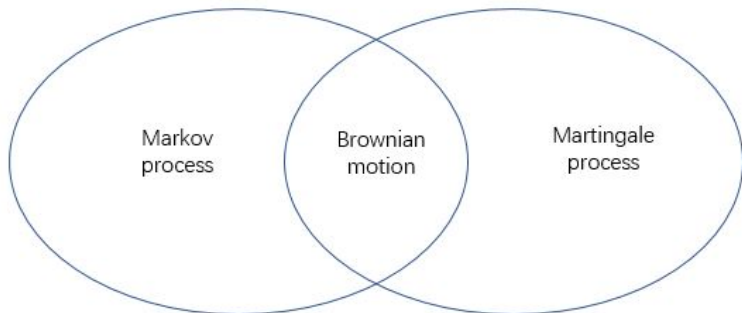
- A **martingale process** is a stochastic process with the property that, the expectation of the **next** value of a martingale is equal to the **current** value given all the previous values of the process, i.e.,

$$\mathbb{E}[X(t) \mid X(s)] = X(s), \quad s < t.$$

- Martingales mathematically formalize the idea of a **fair game**, and they were originally developed to show that it is not possible to win a fair game on average.

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Markov process v.s. martingale process



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Brownian motion or Wiener process

- *Brownian motion* (BM) is named after Robert Brown, a British botanist, who observed the random movement of pollen grains in water.
- Brownian motion was analysed mathematically by the American mathematician Norbert Wiener, so is also called a *Wiener process*.
- As early as 1900, Louis Bachelier, in his thesis *Theory of Speculation*, proposed Brownian motion as a model for the fluctuations of stock prices.

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Standard Brownian motion

The definition of a standard **Brownian motion** $W(t)$ or W_t :

- 1 The path is **continuous**.
- 2 The path increments follow a **normal distribution**, i.e., for any time $t \geq 0$ and time period $\Delta t \geq 0$,

$$\Delta W(t) := W(t + \Delta t) - W(t) = \varepsilon_i \sqrt{\Delta t}, \quad \varepsilon_i \sim N(0, 1),$$

with zero initial value $W(0) = 0$, which implies that

$$\Delta W(t) \sim N(0, \Delta t),$$

or,

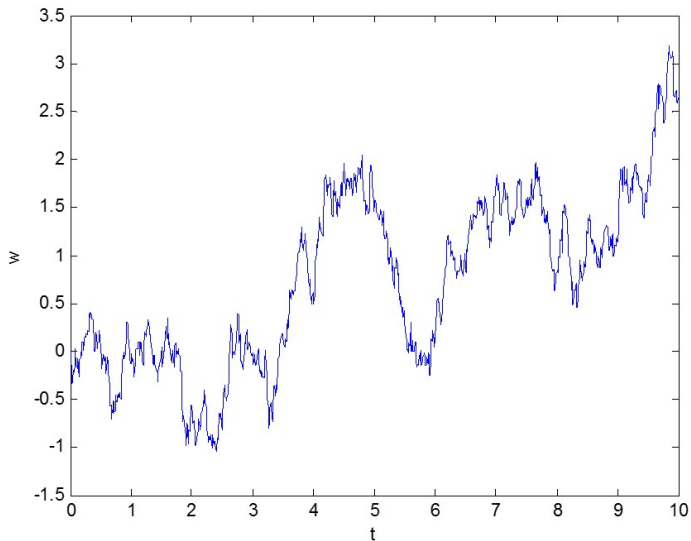
$$W(T) - W(t) \sim N(0, T - t), \quad T \geq t \geq 0.$$

- 3 The path increments are **independent**.

These are necessary and sufficient conditions for a process to be identified as a standard Brownian motion.

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Standard Brownian motion



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Properties of Standard Brownian motion

- $W(t)$ is a Markov process, since for any $s, t \geq 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} & \Pr\{W(s+t) \leq a \mid W(s) = x, W(u), 0 \leq u \leq s\} \\ = & \Pr\{W(s+t) - W(s) \leq a - x \mid W(s) = x, W(u), 0 \leq u \leq s\} \\ = & \Pr\{W(s+t) - W(s) \leq a - x \mid W(s) = x\} \\ = & \Pr\{W(s+t) \leq a \mid W(s) = x\}. \end{aligned}$$

- $W(t)$ is a martingale process, since for any $t \geq s \geq 0$,

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbb{E}[W(t) \mid W(s)] \\ = & \mathbb{E}[W(s) + (W(t) - W(s)) \mid W(s)] \\ = & \mathbb{E}[W(s)] + \mathbb{E}[W(t) - W(s) \mid W(s)] \\ = & W(s). \end{aligned}$$

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Normal Brownian motion

A *normal Brownian motion* $X(t)$ is defined by the stochastic differential equation (SDE)

$$dX(t) = at + b dW(t),$$

or,

$$X(t) = X(0) + at + bW(t),$$

where

- adt is a deterministic term, a is *drift rate*;
- $b dW(t)$ is a random term, b is *volatility*;
- $X(0)$ is the *initial value* of $X(t)$ at time 0.

More generally, $X(t)$ is a *Itô process* if it satisfies the SDE

$$dX(t) = a(X, t) dt + b(X, t) dW(t),$$

or,

$$X(t) = X(0) + \int_0^t a(X, s) ds + \int_0^t b(X, s) dW(s),$$

where

- $a(\cdot, \cdot)$ is drift rate, a function of X and t ;
- $b(\cdot, \cdot)$ is volatility, a function of X and t .

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Itô's lemma

If $X(t)$ is a Itô process, and $G(X, t)$ is a given function of $X(t)$ and t , then, $G(X, t)$ satisfies the SDE

$$dG = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial X} a + \frac{\partial G}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial X^2} b^2 \right) dt + \frac{\partial G}{\partial X} b dW(t),$$

which is the so-called *Itô's lemma*.

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Proof of Itô's lemma

- 2-D Taylor expansion for the given function $G(X, t)$ is

$$\Delta G = \frac{\partial G}{\partial x} \Delta X + \frac{\partial G}{\partial t} \Delta t + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial x^2} \Delta X^2 + \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial x \partial t} \Delta X \Delta t + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial t^2} \Delta t^2 + \dots,$$

where

$$\Delta G := G(X + \Delta X, t + \Delta t) - G(X, t),$$

and the terms with orders greater than Δt can be neglected.

- If $X(t)$ is a **deterministic** process, we get

$$\Delta G = \frac{\partial G}{\partial x} \Delta X + \frac{\partial G}{\partial t} \Delta t.$$

- If $X(t)$ is a **stochastic** process, we get

$$\Delta G = \frac{\partial G}{\partial x} \Delta X + \frac{\partial G}{\partial t} \Delta t + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial x^2} (\Delta X)^2,$$

where the last term is of order Δt .

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Proof of Itô's lemma

- Substituting the time-discretized Itô process,

$$\Delta X(t) = a\Delta t + b\varepsilon\sqrt{\Delta t}, \quad \varepsilon \sim N(0, 1),$$

we derive

$$\Delta G = \frac{\partial G}{\partial X}\Delta X + \frac{\partial G}{\partial t}\Delta t + \frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial X^2}b^2\varepsilon^2\Delta t,$$

since $\varepsilon \sim N(0, 1)$,

$$\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon] = 0, \quad \text{Var}[\varepsilon] = 1 = \mathbb{E}[\varepsilon^2] - (\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon])^2,$$

hence, we have $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon^2] = 1$, and $\mathbb{E}[\varepsilon^2\Delta t] = \Delta t$.

- Since the order of variance of $\varepsilon^2\Delta t$ is the same as Δt^2 which can be neglected, we have

$$\Delta G = \frac{\partial G}{\partial X}\Delta X + \frac{\partial G}{\partial t}\Delta t + \frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial X^2}b^2\Delta t.$$

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Proof of Itô's lemma

- Let $\Delta t \rightarrow dt$, we derive the SDE

$$dG = \frac{\partial G}{\partial X} dX + \frac{\partial G}{\partial t} dt + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial X^2} b^2 dt.$$

- Substituting

$$dX(t) = a dt + b dW(t),$$

we derive *Itô's lemma*

$$dG = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial X} a + \frac{\partial G}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial X^2} b^2 \right) dt + \frac{\partial G}{\partial X} b dW(t).$$

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Example: the log stock price $\ln S$

- We often assume the stock price $S(t)$ follows a *geometric Brownian motion* (GBM),

$$dS(t) = \mu S(t)dt + \sigma S(t)dW(t),$$

where σ is the volatility of **log-price**.

- Let $G = \ln S$, we obtain

$$\frac{\partial G}{\partial S} = \frac{1}{S}, \quad \frac{\partial^2 G}{\partial S^2} = -\frac{1}{S^2}, \quad \frac{\partial G}{\partial t} = 0.$$

- By Itô's lemma, we derive

$$dG(t) = d(\ln S(t)) = \left(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \right) dt + \sigma dW(t) \sim N \left(\left(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \right) dt, \sigma^2 dt \right),$$

since $dW(t) \sim N(0, dt)$.

§2 Basic stochastic calculus

Why do we often assume the stock price follows a geometric Brownian motion?

- $S(t)$ is **non-negative**, which is consistent with the **limited liability** of a firm.
- The continuously compounded rate of stock returns follows a normal distribution:
 - The continuously compounded rate of stock returns on the time period $[t, T]$ is

$$\eta := \frac{\ln S(T) - \ln S(t)}{T - t},$$

since $S(T)/S(t) = e^{\eta(T-t)}$.

- η follows a normal distribution, i.e.,

$$\eta \sim N\left(\mu - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}, \frac{\sigma^2}{T-t}\right).$$

- Empirical evidence shows that, the continuously compounded rate of stock returns **approximately** follows a **normal** distribution under a **normal** market condition.

- Bollerslev, T. (1986). Generalized autoregressive conditional heteroskedasticity. *Journal of Econometrics*, 31(3):307–327.
- Engle, R. F. (1982). Autoregressive conditional heteroscedasticity with estimates of the variance of United Kingdom inflation. *Econometrica*, 50(4):987–1007.