

## Calculus Rules

In standard, non-stochastic calculus, one computes a derivative or an integral using various rules. In the Itô stochastic calculus, one extends these rules to the stochastic terms.

Suppose that  $u$  is some function  $u(x)$  of  $x$ . We want to express the differential  $du$  in terms of the differential  $dx$ .

## Taylor Series

Consider the Taylor series expansion of  $u(x)$  about some value  $\bar{x}$ :

$$u(x) = u(\bar{x}) + u'(\bar{x})(x - \bar{x}) + \frac{1}{2}u''(\bar{x})(x - \bar{x})^2 + \frac{1}{3!}u'''(\bar{x})(x - \bar{x})^3 + \dots$$

Under certain general conditions,  $u(x)$  equals this infinite sum exactly.

Rewrite this expression in terms of the changes  $\Delta x := x - \bar{x}$  and  $\Delta u := u(x) - u(\bar{x})$ :

$$\Delta u = u'(\bar{x})\Delta x + \frac{1}{2}u''(\bar{x})(\Delta x)^2 + \frac{1}{3!}u'''(\bar{x})(\Delta x)^3 + \dots$$

Replace the difference by the differential:

$$du = u'(\bar{x})dx + \frac{1}{2}u''(\bar{x})(dx)^2 + \frac{1}{3!}u'''(\bar{x})(dx)^3 + \dots \quad (1)$$

## Non-Stochastic Calculus

In standard, non-stochastic calculus, one computes a differential simply by keeping the first-order terms. For small changes in the variable, second-order and higher terms are negligible compared to the first-order terms. Equation (1) becomes

$$du = u' dx.$$

The change in  $u$  is proportional to the change in  $x$ .

## Stochastic Calculus—Itô's Formula

In stochastic calculus, one must also keep the second-order terms. Equation (1) becomes *Itô's formula*,

$$du = u' dx + \frac{1}{2}u''(dx)^2 \quad (2)$$

This equation is *exact*; the third-order and higher order terms are zero.

## Rules of Stochastic Calculus

One computes Itô's formula (2) using the rules (3). Let  $z$  denote Wiener-Brownian motion, and let  $t$  denote time. One computes using the rules

$$\begin{aligned}(dz)^2 &= dt, \\ dz dt &= 0, \\ (dt)^2 &= 0.\end{aligned}\tag{3}$$

The key rule is the first and is what sets stochastic calculus apart from non-stochastic calculus.

## Computation

Although we prove the rules (3) below, first let us consider the implication of the rules. One computes mechanically, as in ordinary algebra, but using the rules. The second-order terms cannot be dropped, since  $(dz)^2 = dt$ .

## Example

If  $dx = m dt + s dz$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} (dx)^2 &= (m dt + s dz)^2 \\ &= (m dt)^2 + (s dz)^2 + 2(m dt)(s dz) \\ &= 0 + s^2 dt + 0 \\ &= s^2 dt. \end{aligned}$$

The second-order term is non-zero, as long as the instantaneous stochastic part is non-zero ( $s \neq 0$ ).



Therefore Itô's formula (2) says

$$\begin{aligned} du &= u' (m dt + s dz) + \frac{1}{2} u'' (m dt + s dz)^2 \\ &= u' (m dt + s dz) + \frac{1}{2} u'' s^2 dt \\ &= \left( u' m + \frac{1}{2} u'' s^2 \right) dt + u' s dz. \end{aligned}$$

## Third-Order and Higher-Order Terms

Like non-stochastic calculus, third-order and higher-order terms are zero. For example,

$$(dx)^3 = dx (dx)^2 = (m dt + s dz) s^2 dt = ms^2 (dt)^2 + s dz dt = 0,$$

applying the rules.

## Square of Wiener-Brownian Motion

Consider  $u = z^2$ :

$$\begin{aligned} du &= u' dz + \frac{1}{2} u'' (dz)^2 \\ &= 2z dz + \frac{1}{2} 2 (dz)^2 \\ &= 2z dz + dt. \end{aligned}$$

Relative to non-stochastic calculus,  $dt$  is an extra term.

## Confirmation of Previous Result

Essentially the same calculation confirms our earlier limiting result that  $du = 2z dz$ , with initial value  $u(0) = 0$ , has the solution  $u = z^2 - t$ :

$$\begin{aligned} du &= u_z dz + u_t dt + \frac{1}{2} u_{zz} (dz)^2 + u_{zt} dz dt + \frac{1}{2} u_{tt} (dt)^2 \\ &= 2z dz + (-1) dt + \frac{1}{2} 2 (dz)^2 + 0 dz dt + \frac{1}{2} 0 (dt)^2 \\ &= 2z dz - dt + dt \\ &= 2z dz. \end{aligned}$$

## Stochastic Exponential

If  $u = e^{z-t/2}$ , then

$$\begin{aligned}u_z &= u & u_{zz} &= u \\u_t &= -\frac{1}{2}u & u_{zt} &= -\frac{1}{2}u & u_{tt} &= \frac{1}{4}u.\end{aligned}$$

The Taylor series is

$$\begin{aligned} du &= u_z dz + u_t dt + \frac{1}{2} u_{zz} (dz)^2 + u_{zt} dz dt + \frac{1}{2} u_{tt} (dt)^2 \\ &= u dz - \frac{1}{2} u dt + \frac{1}{2} u (dz)^2 - \frac{1}{2} u dz dt + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{1}{4} u \right) (dt)^2 \\ &= u dz - \frac{1}{2} u dt + \frac{1}{2} u dt \\ &= u dz. \end{aligned}$$

## Logarithm

$$\begin{aligned}d \ln x &= \frac{d \ln x}{dx} dx + \frac{1}{2} \frac{d^2 \ln x}{dx^2} (dx)^2 \\ &= \left( \frac{1}{x} \right) dx + \frac{1}{2} \left( -\frac{1}{x^2} \right) (dx)^2 \\ &= \frac{dx}{x} - \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{dx}{x} \right)^2.\end{aligned}$$

Hence the change  $d \ln x$  in the logarithm is *not* the growth rate  $dx/x$ , unless the instantaneous stochastic part of  $dx$  is zero.

## Inverse

We have

$$(1 - dx)^{-1} = 1 + dx + (dx)^2,$$

as

$$(1 - dx) \left[ 1 + dx + (dx)^2 \right] = 1.$$



## Product Rule

$$\begin{aligned}d(xy) &= \frac{\partial (xy)}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial (xy)}{\partial y} dy \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 (xy)}{\partial x^2} (dx)^2 + \frac{\partial^2 (xy)}{\partial x \partial y} dx dy + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 (xy)}{\partial y^2} (dy)^2 \\ &= y dx + x dy + 0 (dx)^2 + 1 dx dy + 0 (dy)^2 \\ &= y dx + x dy + dx dy.\end{aligned}$$

Compared to non-stochastic calculus,  $dx dy$  is an extra term.

## Error Rule

We prove the fundamental error rule  $(dz)^2 = dt$ , by taking the limit of the discrete-time analogue. Divide the time interval from zero to  $t$  into  $n$  periods of length  $\Delta t$ , so  $t = n\Delta t$ . Holding  $t$  fixed, define

$$\int_0^t (dz)^2 := \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \sum_{i=1}^n [\Delta z_{(i-1)\Delta t}]^2.$$

Defining  $e_i := \Delta z_{(i-1)\Delta t} = z_{i\Delta t} - z_{(i-1)\Delta t}$ , we can restate this equation as

$$\int_0^t (dz)^2 := \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (e_1^2 + \cdots + e_n^2).$$

We rewrite the sum of the squared errors as

$$e_1^2 + e_2^2 + \cdots + e_n^2 = t \left\{ \frac{1}{n} \left[ \left( \frac{e_1^2}{\Delta t} \right) + \left( \frac{e_2^2}{\Delta t} \right) + \cdots + \left( \frac{e_n^2}{\Delta t} \right) \right] \right\}.$$

Holding  $t = n\Delta t$  fixed, take the limit as  $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$ ,  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

The expression in braces is the sample mean of  $n$  independent  $\chi^2(1)$  variables. By the law of large numbers, the sample mean converges to the true mean 1 as the sample size increases.

Hence

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} (e_1^2 + e_2^2 + \cdots + e_n^2) = t.$$

Therefore

$$\int_0^t (dz)^2 = t,$$

regardless of  $t$ . Of course

$$\int_0^t dt = t.$$

Comparing the two integrals proves

$$(dz)^2 = dt.$$

## Time Rule

We next prove  $(dt)^2 = 0$ . Divide the time interval from zero to  $t$  into  $n$  periods of length  $\Delta t$ , so  $t = n\Delta t$ . By definition,

$$\begin{aligned}\int_0^t (dt)^2 &:= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \sum^n (\Delta t)^2 \\ &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \left[ n (\Delta t)^2 \right] \\ &= \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} (n\Delta t) \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \Delta t \\ &= t \cdot 0 \\ &= 0,\end{aligned}$$

and the result follows.

## Cross-Product Rule

The rule  $dz dt = 0$  can be shown by a similar limiting argument.