

Lecture 27. Markov processes and martingales. Martingales and stopping times.

Example 27.1 (a class of examples, in fact). Let $\xi_0, \xi_1, \xi_2, \dots, \xi_n, \dots$ be a Markov chain on a countable space X with one-step transition matrix P . Let f be a column vector with components $f(x)$, $\|f\| = \sup_x |f(x)| < \infty$ (I don't denote column vectors with bold-faces letters anymore: they are just functions). Then

$$\eta_n = f(\xi_n) - \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (Pf - f)(\xi_k) \quad (27.1)$$

is a martingale with respect to $\mathcal{F}_{\leq n} = \sigma(\xi_0, \dots, \xi_n)$.

Adaptedness: trivial. Now:

$$E(\eta_{n+1} - \eta_n | \mathcal{F}_{\leq n}) = E[f(\xi_{n+1}) | \mathcal{F}_{\leq n}] - (Pf)(\xi_n) = 0, \quad (27.2)$$

which follows immediately from the Markov property.

Example 27.2. Let $\xi_t, t \geq 0$, be a Markov process with respect to (\mathcal{F}_t) such that for every $t \geq 0$ the function $\xi_s(\omega), 0 \leq s \leq t, \omega \in \Omega$, is measurable in (s, ω) with respect to the σ -algebra $\mathcal{B}_{[0, t]} \times \mathcal{F}_t$. Suppose $f \in D_A$.

Then the random function

$$\eta_t = f(\xi_t) - \int_0^t Af(\xi_s) ds \quad (27.3)$$

is a martingale with respect to (\mathcal{F}_t) .

First of all, Af is measurable and bounded; $Af(\xi_s(\omega)), 0 \leq s \leq t, \omega \in \Omega$, is $(\mathcal{B}_{[0, t]} \times \mathcal{F}_t)$ -measurable; the integral $\int_0^t Af(\xi_s(\omega)) ds$ exists, and by Fubini's Theorem this random variable is \mathcal{F}_t -measurable: so η_t is adapted to (\mathcal{F}_t) . Now we have to prove that for $t_2 \geq t_1$

$$E(\eta_{t_2} - \eta_{t_1} | \mathcal{F}_{t_1}) = E\left(f(\xi_{t_2}) - f(\xi_{t_1}) - \int_{t_1}^{t_2} Af(\xi_s) ds \middle| \mathcal{F}_{t_1}\right) = 0. \quad (27.4)$$

Of course, $E(f(\xi_{t_1}) | \mathcal{F}_{t_1}) = f(\xi_{t_1})$; by the Markov property we have almost surely

$$E(f(\xi_{t_2}) | \mathcal{F}_{t_1}) = P^{t_2-t_1} f(\xi_{t_1}). \quad (27.5)$$

It seems plausible that

$$E\left(\int_{t_1}^{t_2} Af(\xi_s) ds \middle| \mathcal{F}_{t_1}\right) = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} P^{s-t_1} Af(\xi_{t_1}) ds = \int_0^{t_2-t_1} P^u Af(\xi_{t_1}) du. \quad (27.6)$$

Is this so? The integral in the left-hand side is the θ_{t_1} -shift: $\int_{t_1}^{t_2} Af(\xi_s(\omega)) ds = \int_0^{t_2-t_1} Af(\xi_u(\theta_{t_1}\omega)) du$; so by the Markov property (the formula (15.6) rewritten with random variables and expectations) we have:

$$E\left(\int_{t_1}^{t_2} Af(\xi_s) ds \middle| \mathcal{F}_{t_1}\right) = E_{\xi_{t_1}} \int_0^{t_2-t_1} Af(\xi_u) du. \quad (27.7)$$

Using Fubini's Theorem, we get:

$$E_x \int_0^{t_2-t_1} Af(\xi_u) du = \int_0^{t_2-t_1} E_x Af(\xi_u) du = \int_0^{t_2-t_1} P^u Af(x) du. \quad (27.8)$$

Putting here ξ_{t_1} in the place of x , we get (27.6).

So we have almost surely:

$$E(\eta_{t_2} - \eta_{t_1} \middle| \mathcal{F}_{t_1}) = P^{t_2-t_1} f(\xi_{t_1}) - f(\xi_{t_1}) - \int_0^{t_2-t_1} P^u Af(\xi_{t_1}) du. \quad (27.9)$$

But we have, by (22.14): $P^{t_2-t_1} f - f = \int_0^{t_2-t_1} \frac{d}{du} P^u f du = \int_0^{t_2-t_1} P^u Af du$, so the expectation (27.4) is equal to 0.

A concretization of this example: if the trajectories $\xi_t(\omega)$ are right-continuous functions with values in a metric space X , then the $(\mathcal{B}_{[0,t]} \times \mathcal{F}_t)$ -measurability condition is satisfied.

Indeed, let us define, for every $h > 0$, the random function

$$\xi_s^h(\omega) = \begin{cases} \xi_{kh}(\omega), & (k-1)h < s \leq kh < t, \\ \xi_t(\omega), & (n-1)h < s \leq t \leq nh. \end{cases} \quad (27.10)$$

This random function is clearly $(\mathcal{B}_{[0,t]} \times \mathcal{F}_t)$ -measurable on $[0, t] \times \Omega$; and $\xi_s(\omega) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} \xi_s^h(\omega)$.

Let us look at what the situation is with diffusion processes.

I told you that the infinitesimal operator A of a diffusion process in \mathbb{R}^d associated with the differential operator L given by

$$Lf(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^d a_{ij}(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{i=1}^d b_i(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(\mathbf{x}) \quad (27.11)$$

is defined on $D_A \supseteq \mathbf{C}^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$, and for $f \in \mathbf{C}^2(\mathbb{R}^d)$ we have $Af = Lf$; but I did not prove this. Let me do it, with your help (consisting of you solving some problems). The proof will be based on the *forward* Kolmogorov equation for the transition density

$$\frac{\partial p}{\partial t}(t, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = L^* p(t, \mathbf{x}, \bullet)(\mathbf{y}), \quad (27.12)$$

which holds if the coefficients a_{ij} , b_i are bounded and Hölder continuous together with the first and the second derivatives of a_{ij} and the first derivatives of b_i (a fact from the theory of parabolic equations); the estimate that I have already mentioned:

$$p(t, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq \frac{C}{t^{d/2}} e^{-a|\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{x}|^2/2t} \quad (27.13)$$

(see (21.9)), and the one that I did not mention, but which is there in Friedman's book on the same page:

$$\left| \frac{\partial p}{\partial y_i}(t, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \right| \leq \frac{C}{t^{d/2+1}} e^{-a|\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{x}|^2/2t}. \quad (27.14)$$

The formula $P^t f - f = \int_0^t P^u A f \, du$ was a general formula within the Hille–Yosida theory of continuous semigroups of linear operators in a Banach space – in our case the space \mathbf{B} of bounded measurable functions, – and it held for functions f that were bounded together with Af . But in concrete cases we are able to prove, stepping a little outside the framework of this theory, that the expectations $P^t f(x) = E_x f(\xi_t)$ and $P^u A f(x)$ exist for some classes of unbounded functions f .

48 Prove that for a continuous function $f(\mathbf{x})$ that doesn't grow faster than exponentially: $|f(\mathbf{x})| \leq C_1 e^{C_2|\mathbf{x}|}$, $P^t f(\mathbf{x}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} p(t, \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \cdot f(\mathbf{y}) \, d\mathbf{y}$ is defined, and we have $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0^+} P^t f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x})$.

49 Prove that for a twice continuously differentiable function $f(\mathbf{x})$ growing, together with its first and second derivatives, not faster than exponentially: $|f(\mathbf{x})|, \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \right|, \left| \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} \right| \leq C_1 e^{C_2|\mathbf{x}|}$, we have: $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} P^t f(\mathbf{x}) = P^t L f(\mathbf{x})$ for $t > 0$ (prove this by integrating by parts), and $P^t f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}) = \int_0^t P^u f(\mathbf{x}) \, du$.

Just as in Example 27.2, we prove that for functions f growing, together with its first and second derivatives, not faster than exponentially, $\eta_t = f(\xi_t) - \int_0^t L f(\xi_s) \, ds$ is a martingale (with respect to the σ -algebras $\mathcal{F}_{\leq t}$, or to $(\mathcal{F}_{\leq t+})$).

Concrete examples:

Example 27.3. The one-dimensional Wiener process ξ_t is a martingale with respect to the family of σ -algebras generated by it: we take $f(x) = x$ (growing definitely not faster than exponentially), and $L f(x) = \frac{1}{2} f''(x) \equiv 0$.

Example 27.4. For the same process, $\eta_t = \xi_t^2 - t$ is a martingale: $f(x) = x^2$, $L f(x) \equiv 1$.

Example 27.5. For the multidimensional Wiener process $L f = \frac{1}{2} \Delta f$; whereas in the one-dimensional case the only functions satisfying the equation $\Delta f = 0$ (*harmonic* functions) are linear ones, it's not so in the multidimensional case. For example, for $d = 2$ the function $f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x^1, x^2) = e^{ax^1} \cdot \cos(ax^2)$ is harmonic (you can understand

why I am writing the numbers of coordinates as *superscripts* rather than subscripts), so $\eta_t = f(\boldsymbol{\xi}_t) = e^{a\xi_t^1} \cdot \cos(a\xi_t^2)$ is a martingale.

50 Check that the function $f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{x}|}$ in \mathbb{R}^3 satisfies the equation $\Delta f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ for $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$. Check that for the three-dimensional Wiener process $E_{\mathbf{x}}f(\boldsymbol{\xi}_t) < \infty$ for $t > 0$.

Find $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} E_{\mathbf{x}}f(\boldsymbol{\xi}_t)$.

51 Is the random function $\eta_t = f(\boldsymbol{\xi}_t)$ a martingale? (This function is not covered by Example 27.5: there is no constant C_1 such that $f(\mathbf{x}) \leq C_1 e^{C_2|\mathbf{x}|}$; but the expectation is finite! And f is not differentiable – but at one point only!...)

A little theory of martingales. First a very little theorem:

Theorem 27.1. *If η_t is a martingale, its expectation is a constant.*

Proof. For $t < s$ we have:

$$E\eta_s = E(E(\eta_s|\mathcal{F}_t)) = E\eta_t. \quad (27.15)$$

Theorem 27.2. *If ζ_t is a submartingale, its expectation $E\zeta_t$ is a non-decreasing function.*

The **proof** is the same with the obvious change.

The use of martingales relies on the relation between them and *stopping times*.

We start with the discrete case (the continuous case is more complicated):

Theorem 27.3. *Let η_t , $t \in T$, be a martingale with respect to the family of σ -algebras \mathcal{F}_t . Let τ be a stopping time taking finitely many values $t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_n$ (all in T , not $+\infty$).*

Then for an arbitrary $t_ \in T$*

$$E\eta_\tau = E\eta_{t_*}. \quad (27.16)$$

Proof. We have:

$$E\eta_\tau = \sum_{i=1}^n E(I_{\{\tau=t_i\}} \cdot \eta_\tau) = \sum_{i=1}^n E(I_{\{\tau=t_i\}} \cdot \eta_{t_i}). \quad (27.17)$$

For $i > 1$ the event $\{\tau = t_i\}$ whose indicator is used in this formula is equal to the difference of two:

$$\{\tau = t_i\} = \{\tau \leq t_i\} \setminus \{\tau \leq t_{i-1}\}; \quad (27.18)$$

and for $i = 1$ it is just

$$\{\tau = t_1\} = \{\tau \leq t_1\}. \quad (27.19)$$

So the i -th summand in (27.17) can be written as

$$E((I_{\{\tau \leq t_i\}} - I_{\{\tau \leq t_{i-1}\}}) \cdot \eta_{t_i}) \quad (27.20)$$

for $i > 1$, and as

$$E(I_{\{\tau \leq t_1\}} \cdot \eta_{t_1}) \quad (27.21)$$

for $i = 1$. So we get:

$$\begin{aligned} E\eta_\tau &= E(I_{\{\tau \leq t_1\}} \cdot \eta_{t_1}) + E(I_{\{\tau \leq t_2\}} \cdot \eta_{t_2}) - E(I_{\{\tau \leq t_1\}} \cdot \eta_{t_2}) \\ &\quad + E(I_{\{\tau \leq t_3\}} \cdot \eta_{t_3}) - E(I_{\{\tau \leq t_2\}} \cdot \eta_{t_3}) + \dots \\ &\quad + E(I_{\{\tau \leq t_{n-1}\}} \cdot \eta_{t_{n-1}}) - E(I_{\{\tau \leq t_{n-2}\}} \cdot \eta_{t_{n-1}}) \\ &\quad + E(I_{\{\tau \leq t_n\}} \cdot \eta_{t_n}) - E(I_{\{\tau \leq t_{n-1}\}} \cdot \eta_{t_n}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} E(I_{\{\tau \leq t_i\}} \cdot (\eta_{t_i} - \eta_{t_{i+1}})) + E(I_{\{\tau \leq t_n\}} \cdot \eta_{t_n}). \end{aligned} \quad (27.22)$$

We represent the i -th summand ($i < n$) as the expectation of a conditional expectation:

$$E(I_{\{\tau \leq t_i\}} \cdot (\eta_{t_{i+1}} - \eta_{t_i})) = E(E(I_{\{\tau \leq t_i\}} \cdot (\eta_{t_i} - \eta_{t_{i+1}})) \mid \mathcal{F}_{t_i}). \quad (27.23)$$

The event $\{\tau \leq t_i\}$ belongs to \mathcal{F}_{t_i} , so its indicator can be taken from under the sign of the conditional expectation:

$$E(I_{\{\tau \leq t_i\}} \cdot (\eta_{t_i} - \eta_{t_{i+1}})) = E(I_{\{\tau \leq t_i\}} \cdot E(\eta_{t_i} - \eta_{t_{i+1}} \mid \mathcal{F}_{t_i})); \quad (27.24)$$

and by the martingale property, the conditional expectation is equal to 0.

The last summand in (27.22) is equal to $E\eta_{t_n}$, because the event $\{\tau \leq t_n\}$ is the whole Ω , and its indicator is identically 1. And of course, $E\eta_{t_n}$ is equal to $E\eta_{t_*}$ for any other $t_* \in T$.

The same way we prove

Theorem 27.4. *Let η_t , $t \in T$, be a submartingale with respect to (\mathcal{F}_t) . Let τ be a stopping time taking finitely many values $t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_n = t_{\max}$.*

Then

$$E\eta_\tau \leq E\eta_{t_{\max}}. \quad (27.25)$$

Proof. Formulas (27.22), (27.23), (27.24) still hold; but instead of saying ‘‘by the martingale property the conditional expectation is equal to 0’’ we say ‘‘by the submartingale property the conditional expectation is ≤ 0 ’’.

For random times τ that are *not* stopping times, the statements of Theorems 27.3, 27.4 are not necessarily true. E. g., if $\xi_0 \equiv 0$, and ξ_1 is a random variables with density $p(x)$ with $E\xi_1 = 0$, the sequence of two random variables ξ_0, ξ_1 is a martingale (with respect to the σ -algebras generated by them). Let us define the random time τ by

$$\tau = I_{[0, \infty)}(\xi_1). \quad (27.26)$$

This is *not* a stopping time: to know whether $\tau \leq 0$ (which means $= 0$ in this case), it is not enough to watch ξ_0 (as if there were anything to watch here!), but we need to know ξ_1 . We have:

$$E\xi_\tau = E(I_{\{\tau=0\}} \cdot \xi_0 + I_{\{\tau=1\}} \cdot \xi_1) = E(I_{[0, \infty)}(\xi_1) \cdot \xi_1) = \int_0^\infty x \cdot p(x) dx > 0, \quad (27.27)$$

while $E\xi_1 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \cdot p(x) dx = 0$.

Let $\eta_t, t \in T$, be a random function; τ a random variable taking values in $T \cup \{\infty\}$. The random function $\hat{\eta}_t, t \in T$, obtained by stopping η_t at the time τ is defined as

$$\hat{\eta}_t = \begin{cases} \eta_t, & t < \tau, \\ \eta_\tau, & t \geq \tau. \end{cases} \quad (27.28)$$

Theorem 27.5. *If $\eta_t, t \in T$, is a martingale (a submartingale), and τ a stopping time taking finitely many values, the stopped random function $\hat{\eta}_t, t \in T$, is also a martingale (a submartingale).*

The **proof** is similar to that of Theorems 27.3, 27.4; I omit it: we'll not be using this theorem. I gave it only in order to explain why stopping times are called so: you stop the random function at such a time, and still it is a martingale (a submartingale).

Theorem 27.6 (the Kolmogorov-type inequality). *If $\eta_t, t \in T$, is a nonnegative submartingale, and $t_1 < t_2 < \dots < t_n = t_{\max}$ are time points in T , then for every $a > 0$*

$$P\{\max(\eta_{t_1}, \eta_{t_2}, \dots, \eta_{t_n}) \geq a\} \leq \frac{E\eta_{t_{\max}}}{a}. \quad (27.29)$$

This is a strengthening of the Chebyshev-type inequality:

$$P\{\eta_{t_i} \geq a\} \leq \frac{E\eta_{t_i}}{a} \leq \frac{E\eta_{t_{\max}}}{a}; \quad (27.30)$$

the Chebyshev-type inequality is about *one* random variable, while (27.29) is about the maximum of an arbitrarily large number of random variables.