

Chapter 3

Stochastic Integration

3.1 Stochastic Integrals

If y_1, \dots, y_n is a martingale relative to the σ -fields \mathcal{F}_j , and if $e_j(\omega)$ are random functions that are \mathcal{F}_j measurable, the sequence

$$z_j = \sum_{k=0}^{j-1} e_k(\omega)[y_{k+1} - y_k]$$

is again a martingale with respect to the σ -fields \mathcal{F}_j , provided the expectations are finite. A computation shows that if

$$a_j(\omega) = E^P[(y_{j+1} - y_j)^2 | \mathcal{F}_j]$$

then

$$E^P[z_j^2] = \sum_{k=0}^{j-1} E^P[a_k(\omega) | e_k(\omega)|^2]$$

or more precisely

$$E^P[(z_{j+1} - z_j)^2 | \mathcal{F}_j] = a_j(\omega) | e_j(\omega)|^2 \quad \text{a.e. } P$$

Formally one can write

$$\delta z_j = z_{j+1} - z_j = e_j(\omega) \delta y_j = e_j(\omega)(y_{j+1} - y_j)$$

z_j is called a martingale transform of y_j and the size of z_n measured by its mean square is exactly equal to $E^P[\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} |e_j(\omega)|^2 a_j(\omega)]$. The stochastic integral is just the continuous analog of this.

Theorem 3.1. *Let $y(t)$ be an almost surely continuous martingale relative to $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}_t, P)$ such that $y(0) = 0$ a.e. P , and*

$$y^2(t) - \int_0^t a(s, \omega) ds$$

is again a martingale relative to $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}_t, P)$, where $a(s, \omega)ds$ is a bounded progressively measurable function. Then for progressively measurable functions $e(\cdot, \cdot)$ satisfying, for every $t > 0$,

$$E^P \left[\int_0^t e^2(s) a(s) ds \right] < \infty$$

the stochastic integral

$$z(t) = \int_0^t e(s) dy(s)$$

makes sense as an almost surely continuous martingale with respect to $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}_t, P)$ and

$$z^2(t) - \int_0^t e^2(s) a(s) ds$$

is again a martingale with respect to $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}_t, P)$. In particular

$$E^P [z^2(t)] = E^P \left[\int_0^t e^2(s) a(s) ds \right] \quad (3.1)$$

Proof.

Step 1. The statements are obvious if $e(s)$ is a constant.

Step 2. Assume that $e(s)$ is a simple function given by

$$e(s, \omega) = e_j(\omega) \quad \text{for } t_j \leq s < t_{j+1}$$

where $e_j(\omega)$ is \mathcal{F}_{t_j} measurable and bounded for $0 \leq j \leq N$ and $t_{N+1} = \infty$. Then we can define inductively

$$z(t) = z(t_j) + e(t_j, \omega)[y(t) - y(t_j)]$$

for $t_j \leq t \leq t_{j+1}$. Clearly $z(t)$ and

$$z^2(t) - \int_0^t e^2(s, \omega) a(s, \omega) ds$$

are martingales in the interval $[t_j, t_{j+1}]$. Since the definitions match at the end points the martingale property holds for $t \geq 0$.

Step 3. If $e_k(s, \omega)$ is a sequence of uniformly bounded progressively measurable functions converging to $e(s, \omega)$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$ in such a way that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t |e_k(s)|^2 a(s) ds = 0$$

for every $t > 0$, because of the relation (3.1)

$$\lim_{k, k' \rightarrow \infty} E^P \left[|z_k(t) - z_{k'}(t)|^2 \right] = \lim_{k, k' \rightarrow \infty} E^P \left[\int_0^t |e_k(s) - e_{k'}(s)|^2 a(s) ds \right] = 0.$$

Combined with Doob's inequality, we conclude the existence of an almost surely continuous martingale $z(t)$ such that

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} E^P \left[\sup_{0 \leq s \leq t} |z_k(s) - z(s)|^2 \right] = 0$$

and clearly

$$z^2(t) - \int_0^t e^2(s) a(s) ds$$

is an $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}_t, P)$ martingale.

Step 4. All we need to worry now is about approximating $e(\cdot, \cdot)$. Any bounded progressively measurable almost surely continuous $e(s, \omega)$ can be approximated by $e_k(s, \omega) = e(\frac{[ks] \wedge k^2}{k}, \omega)$ which is piecewise constant and levels off at time k . It is trivial to see that for every $t > 0$,

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \int_0^t |e_k(s) - e(s)|^2 a(s) ds = 0$$

Step 5. Any bounded progressively measurable $e(s, \omega)$ can be approximated by continuous ones by defining

$$e_k(s, \omega) = k \int_{(s - \frac{1}{k}) \vee 0}^s e(u, \omega) du$$

and again it is trivial to see that it works.

Step 6. Finally if $e(s, \omega)$ is unbounded we can approximate it by truncation,

$$e_k(s, \omega) = f_k(e(s, \omega))$$

where $f_k(x) = x$ for $|x| \leq k$ and 0 otherwise.

This completes the proof of the theorem. \square

If we have a continuous diffusion process $x(t, \omega)$ defined on $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}_t, P)$, corresponding to coefficients $a(t, \omega)$ and $b(t, \omega)$, then we can define stochastic integrals with respect to $x(t)$. We write

$$x(t, \omega) = x(0, \omega) + \int_0^t b(s, \omega) ds + y(t, \omega)$$

and the stochastic integral $\int_0^t e(s) dx(s)$ is defined by

$$\int_0^t e(s) dx(s) = \int_0^t e(s) b(s) ds + \int_0^t e(s) dy(s)$$

For this to make sense we need for every t ,

$$E^P \left[\int_0^t |e(s)b(s)|ds \right] < \infty \quad \text{and} \quad E^P \left[\int_0^t |e(s)|^2 a(s)ds \right] < \infty$$

If we assume for simplicity that e is bounded then eb and e^2a are uniformly bounded functions in t and ω . It then follows, that for any \mathcal{F}_0 measurable $z(0)$, that

$$z(t) = z(0) + \int_0^t e(s)dx(s)$$

is again a diffusion process that corresponds to the coefficients be, ae^2 . In particular all of the equivalent relations hold good.

Exercise 3.1. If e is such that eb and e^2a are bounded, then prove directly that the exponentials

$$\exp \left[\lambda(z(t) - z(0)) - \lambda \int_0^t e(s)b(s)ds - \frac{\lambda^2}{2} \int_0^t a(s)e^2(s)ds \right]$$

are $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}_t, P)$ martingales.

We can easily do the multidimensional generalization. Let $y(t)$ be a vector valued martingale with n components $y_1(t), \dots, y_n(t)$ such that

$$y_i(t)y_j(t) - \int_0^t a_{i,j}(s, \omega)ds$$

are again martingales with respect to $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}_t, P)$. Assume that the progressively measurable functions $\{a_{i,j}(t, \omega)\}$ are symmetric and positive semidefinite for every t and ω and are uniformly bounded in t and ω . Then the stochastic integral

$$z(t) = z(0) + \int_0^t \langle e(s), dy(s) \rangle = z(0) + \sum_i \int_0^t e_i(s)dy_i(s)$$

is well defined for vector valued progressively measurable functions $e(s, \omega)$ such that

$$E^P \left[\int_0^t \langle e(s), a(s)e(s) \rangle ds \right] < \infty$$

In a similar fashion to the scalar case, for any diffusion process $x(t)$ corresponding to $b(s, \omega) = \{b_i(s, \omega)\}$ and $a(s, \omega) = \{a_{i,j}(s, \omega)\}$ and any $e(s, \omega) = \{e_i(s, \omega)\}$ which is progressively measurable and uniformly bounded

$$z(t) = z(0) + \int_0^t \langle e(s), dx(s) \rangle$$

is well defined and is a diffusion corresponding to the coefficients

$$\tilde{b}(s, \omega) = \langle e(s, \omega), b(s, \omega) \rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{a}(s, \omega) = \langle e(s, \omega), a(s, \omega)e(s, \omega) \rangle$$

It is now a simple exercise to define stochastic integrals of the form

$$z(t) = z(0) + \int_0^t \sigma(s, \omega) dx(s)$$

where $\sigma(s, \omega)$ is a matrix of dimension $m \times n$ that has the suitable properties of boundedness and progressive measurability. $z(t)$ is seen easily to correspond to the coefficients

$$\tilde{b}(s) = \sigma(s)b(s) \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{a}(s) = \sigma(s)a(s)\sigma^*(s)$$

The analogy here is to linear transformations of Gaussian variables. If ξ is a Gaussian vector in R^n with mean μ and covariance A , and if $\eta = T\xi$ is a linear transformation from R^n to R^m , then η is again Gaussian in R^m and has mean $T\mu$ and covariance matrix TAT^* .

Exercise 3.2. If $x(t)$ is Brownian motion in R^n and $\sigma(s, \omega)$ is a progressively measurable bounded function then

$$z(t) = \int_0^t \sigma(s, \omega) dx(s)$$

is again a Brownian motion in R^n if and only if σ is an orthogonal matrix for almost all s (with respect to Lebesgue Measure) and ω (with respect to P)

Exercise 3.3. We can mix stochastic and ordinary integrals. If we define

$$z(t) = z(0) + \int_0^t \sigma(s) dx(s) + \int_0^t f(s) ds$$

where $x(s)$ is a process corresponding to $b(s), a(s)$, then $z(t)$ corresponds to

$$\tilde{b}(s) = \sigma(s)b(s) + f(s) \quad \text{and} \quad \tilde{a}(s) = \sigma(s)a(s)\sigma^*(s)$$

The analogy is again to affine linear transformations of Gaussians $\eta = T\xi + \gamma$.

Exercise 3.4. Chain Rule. If we transform from x to z and again from z to w , it is the same as making a single transformation from x to w .

$$dz(s) = \sigma(s)dx(s) + f(s)ds \quad \text{and} \quad dw(s) = \tau(s)dz(s) + g(s)ds$$

can be rewritten as

$$dw(s) = [\tau(s)\sigma(s)]dx(s) + [\tau(s)f(s) + g(s)]ds$$

3.2 Ito's Formula.

The chain rule in ordinary calculus allows us to compute

$$df(t, x(t)) = f_t(t, x(t))dt + \nabla f(t, x(t)) \cdot dx(t)$$

We replace $x(t)$ by a Brownian path, say in one dimension to keep things simple and for f take the simplest nonlinear function $f(x) = x^2$ that is independent of t . We are looking for a formula of the type

$$\beta^2(t) - \beta^2(0) = 2 \int_0^t \beta(s) d\beta(s) \quad (3.2)$$

We have already defined integrals of the form

$$\int_0^t \beta(s) d\beta(s) \quad (3.3)$$

as Ito's stochastic integrals. But still a formula of the type (3.2) cannot possibly hold. The left hand side has expectation t while the right hand side as a stochastic integral with respect to $\beta(\cdot)$ is mean zero. For Ito's theory it was important to evaluate $\beta(s)$ at the back end of the interval $[t_{j-1}, t_j]$ before multiplying by the increment $(\beta(t_j) - \beta(t_{j-1}))$ to keep things progressively measurable. That meant the stochastic integral (3.3) was approximated by the sums

$$\sum_j \beta(t_{j-1})(\beta(t_j) - \beta(t_{j-1}))$$

over successive partitions of $[0, t]$. We could have approximated by sums of the form

$$\sum_j \beta(t_j)(\beta(t_j) - \beta(t_{j-1})).$$

In ordinary calculus, because $\beta(\cdot)$ would be a continuous function of bounded variation in t , the difference would be negligible as the partitions became finer leading to the same answer. But in Ito calculus the difference does not go to 0. The difference D_π is given by

$$\begin{aligned} D_\pi &= \sum_j \beta(t_j)(\beta(t_j) - \beta(t_{j-1})) - \sum_j \beta(t_{j-1})(\beta(t_j) - \beta(t_{j-1})) \\ &= \sum_j (\beta(t_j) - \beta(t_{j-1}))(\beta(t_j) - \beta(t_{j-1})) \\ &= \sum_j (\beta(t_j) - \beta(t_{j-1}))^2 \end{aligned}$$

An easy computation gives $E[D_\pi] = t$ and $E[(D_\pi - t)^2] = 3 \sum_j (t_j - t_{j-1})^2$ tends to 0 as the partition is refined. On the other hand if we are neutral and approximate the integral (3.3) by

$$\sum_j \frac{1}{2}(\beta(t_{j-1}) + \beta(t_j))(\beta(t_j) - \beta(t_{j-1}))$$

then we can simplify and calculate the limit as

$$\lim \sum_j \frac{\beta(t_j)^2 - \beta(t_{j-1})^2}{2} = \frac{1}{2}(\beta^2(t) - \beta^2(0))$$

This means as we defined it (3.3) can be calculated as

$$\int_0^t \beta(s) d\beta(s) = \frac{1}{2}(\beta^2(t) - \beta^2(0)) - \frac{t}{2}$$

or the correct version of (3.2) is

$$\beta^2(t) - \beta^2(0) = \int_0^t \beta(s) d\beta(s) + t$$

Now we can attempt to calculate $f(\beta(t)) - f(\beta(0))$ for a smooth function of one variable. Roughly speaking, by a two term Taylor expansion

$$\begin{aligned} f(\beta(t)) - f(\beta(0)) &= \sum_j [f(\beta(t_j)) - f(\beta(t_{j-1}))] \\ &= \sum_j f'(\beta(t_{j-1}))(\beta(t_j) - \beta(t_{j-1})) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \sum_j f''(\beta(t_{j-1}))(\beta(t_j) - \beta(t_{j-1}))^2 \\ &\quad + \sum_j O|\beta(t_j) - \beta(t_{j-1})|^3 \end{aligned}$$

The expected value of the error term is approximately

$$E\left[\sum_j O|\beta(t_j) - \beta(t_{j-1})|^3\right] = \sum_j O|t_j - t_{j-1}|^{\frac{3}{2}} = o(1)$$

leading to Ito's formula

$$f(\beta(t)) - f(\beta(0)) = \int_0^t f'(\beta(s))d\beta(s) + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t f''(\beta(s))ds \quad (3.4)$$

It takes some effort to see that

$$\sum_j f''(\beta(t_{j-1}))(\beta(t_j) - \beta(t_{j-1}))^2 \rightarrow \int_0^t f''(\beta(s))ds$$

But the idea is, that because $f''(\beta(s))$ is continuous in t , we can pretend that it is locally constant and use that calculation we did for x^2 where f'' is a constant.

While we can make a proof after a careful estimation of all the errors, in fact we do not have to do it. After all we have already defined the stochastic integral (3.3). We should be able to verify (3.4) by computing the mean square of the difference and showing that it is 0.

In fact we will do it very generally with out much effort. We have the tools already.

Theorem 3.2. *Let $x(t)$ be a Diffusion Process with values on R^d corresponding to $[b, a]$, a collection of bounded, progressively measurable coefficients. For any smooth function $u(t, x)$ on $[0, \infty) \times R^d$*

$$\begin{aligned} u(t, x(t)) - u(0, x(0)) &= \int_0^s u_s(s, x(s))ds + \int_0^t \langle (\nabla u)(s, x(s)), dx(s) \rangle \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t \sum_{i,j} a_{i,j}(s, \omega) \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(s, x(s))ds \end{aligned}$$

Proof. Let us define the stochastic process

$$\begin{aligned} \xi(t) = u(t, x(t)) - u(0, x(0)) - \int_0^s u_s(s, x(s))ds - \int_0^t \langle (\nabla u)(s, x(s)), dx(s) \rangle \\ - \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t \sum_{i,j} a_{i,j}(s, \omega) \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(s, x(s))ds \end{aligned} \quad (3.5)$$

We define a $d + 1$ dimensional process $y(t) = \{u(t, x(t)), x(t)\}$ which is also a diffusion, and has its parameters $[\tilde{b}, \tilde{a}]$. If we number the extra coordinate by 0, then

$$\tilde{b}_i = \begin{cases} [\frac{\partial u}{\partial s} + \mathcal{L}_{s,\omega}u](s, x(s)) & \text{if } i = 0 \\ b_i(s, \omega) & \text{if } i \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

$$\tilde{a}_{i,j} = \begin{cases} \langle a(s, \omega)\nabla u, \nabla u \rangle & \text{if } i = j = 0 \\ [a(s, \omega)\nabla u]_i & \text{if } j = 0, i \geq 1 \\ a_{i,j}(s, \omega) & \text{if } i, j \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

The actual computation is interesting and reveals the connection between ordinary calculus, second order operators and Ito calculus. If we want to know the parametrs of the process $y(t)$, then we need to know what to subtract from $v(t, y(t)) - v(0, y(0))$ to obtain a martingale. But $v(t, y(t)) = w(t, x(t))$, where $w(t, x) = v(t, u(t, x), x)$ and if we compute

$$\begin{aligned} (\frac{\partial w}{\partial t} + \mathcal{L}_{s,\omega}w)(t, x) &= v_t + v_u[u_t + \sum_i b_i u_{x_i} + \sum_i b_i v_{x_i} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} a_{i,j} u_{x_i x_j}] \\ &\quad + v_{u,u} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} a_{i,j} u_{x_i} u_{x_j} + \sum_i v_{u,x_i} \sum_j a_{i,j} u_{x_j} \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} a_{i,j} v_{x_i x_j} \\ &= v_t + \tilde{\mathcal{L}}_{t,\omega}v \end{aligned}$$

with

$$\tilde{\mathcal{L}}_{t,\omega} v = \sum_{i \geq 0} \tilde{b}_i(s, \omega) v_{y_i} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j \geq 0} \tilde{a}_{i,j}(s, \omega) v_{y_i, y_j}$$

We can construct stochastic integrals with respect to the $d + 1$ dimensional process $y(\cdot)$ and $\xi(t)$ defined by (3.5) is again a diffusion and its parameters can be calculated. After all

$$\xi(t) = \int_0^t \langle f(s, \omega), dy(s) \rangle + \int_0^t g(s, \omega) ds$$

with

$$f_i(s, \omega) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = 0 \\ -(\nabla u)_i(s, x(s)) & \text{if } i \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

and

$$g(s, \omega) = -\left[\frac{\partial u}{\partial s} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} a_{i,j}(s, \omega) \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} \right](s, x(s))$$

Denoting the parameters of $\xi(\cdot)$ by $[B(s, \omega), A(s, \omega)]$, we find

$$\begin{aligned} A(s, \omega) &= \langle f(s, \omega), \tilde{a}(s, \omega) f(s, \omega) \rangle \\ &= \langle a \nabla u, \nabla u \rangle - 2 \langle a \nabla u, \nabla u \rangle + \langle a \nabla u, \nabla u \rangle \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} B(s, \omega) &= \langle \tilde{b}, f \rangle + g = \tilde{b}_0(s, \omega) - \langle b(s, \omega), \nabla u(s, x(s)) \rangle \\ &\quad - \left[\frac{\partial u}{\partial s}(s, \omega) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} a_{i,j}(s, \omega) \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(s, x(s)) \right] \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Now all we are left with is the following

Lemma 3.3. *If $\xi(t)$ is a scalar process corresponding to the coefficients $[0, 0]$ then*

$$\xi(t) - \xi(0) \equiv 0 \quad \text{a.e.}$$

Proof. Just compute

$$E[(\xi(t) - \xi(0))^2] = E\left[\int_0^t 0 ds\right] = 0$$

□

This concludes the proof of the theorem. □

Exercise 3.5. Ito's formula is a local formula that is valid for almost all paths. If u is a smooth function i.e. with one continuous t derivative and two continuous x derivatives (3.4) must still be valid a.e. We cannot do it with moments, because for moments to exist we need control on growth at infinity. But it should not matter. Should it?

Application: Local time in one dimension. Tanaka Formula.

If $\beta(t)$ is the one dimensional Brownian Motion, for any path $\beta(\cdot)$ and any t , the occupation measure $L_t(A, \omega)$ is defined by

$$L_t(A, \omega) = m\{s : 0 \leq s \leq t \ \& \ \beta(s) \in A\}$$

Theorem 3.4. *There exists a function $\ell(t, y, \omega)$ such that, for almost all ω ,*

$$L_t(A, \omega) = \int_A \ell(t, y, \omega) dy$$

identically in t .

Proof. Formally

$$\ell(t, y, \omega) = \int_0^t \delta(\beta(s) - y) ds$$

but, we have to make sense out of it. From Ito's formula

$$f(\beta(t)) - f(\beta(0)) = \int_0^t f'(\beta(s)) d\beta(s) + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^t f''(\beta(s)) ds$$

If we take $f(x) = |x - y|$ then $f'(x) = \text{sign } x$ and $\frac{1}{2}f''(x) = \delta(x - y)$. We get the 'identity'

$$|\beta(t) - y| - |\beta(0) - y| - \int_0^t \text{sign } \beta(s) d\beta(s) = \int_0^t \delta(\beta(s) - y) ds = \ell(t, y, \omega)$$

While we have not proved the identity, we can use it to define $\ell(\cdot, \cdot, \cdot)$. It is now well defined as a continuous function of t for almost all ω for each y , and by Fubini's theorem for almost all y and ω .

Now all we need to do is to check that it works. It is enough to check that for any smooth test function ϕ with compact support

$$\int_R \phi(y) \ell(t, y, \omega) dy = \int_0^t \phi(\beta(s)) ds \tag{3.6}$$

The function

$$\psi(x) = \int_R |x - y| \phi(y) dy$$

is smooth and a straight forward calculation shows

$$\psi'(x) = \int_R \text{sign}(x - y) \phi(y) dy$$

and

$$\psi''(x) = -2\phi(x)$$

It is easy to see that (3.6) is nothing but Ito's formula for ψ . \square

Application: Estimating the moments of a Stochastic Integral. If we have a Stochastic integral of the form

$$\xi(t) = \int_0^t e(s, \omega) d\beta(s)$$

with

$$E\left[\int_0^T |e(s, \omega)|^2 ds\right] < \infty$$

with additional hypothesis on e we can estimate higher moments of $\xi(T)$.

Theorem 3.5. *There exist constants C_n depending only on n , such that*

$$E[|\xi(T)|^{2n}] \leq C_n E\left[\left(\int_0^T |e(s, \omega)|^2 ds\right)^n\right]$$

Proof. Assume that e is bounded. Then, by Itô's formula,

$$\begin{aligned} E[|\xi(T)|^{2n}] &= E\left[\frac{2n(2n-1)}{2} \int_0^T \xi(s)^{2n-2} e^2(s, \omega) ds\right] \\ &\leq \frac{2n(2n-1)}{2} E\left[\left[\sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |\xi(t)|\right]^{2n-2} \int_0^T e^2(s, \omega) ds\right] \\ &\leq \frac{2n(2n-1)}{2} \left[E\left[\sup_{0 \leq t \leq T} |\xi(t)|^{2n}\right]\right]^{\frac{2n-2}{2n}} \left[E\left(\int_0^T e^2(s, \omega) ds\right)^n\right]^{\frac{1}{n}} \\ &\leq \frac{2n(2n-1)}{2} \left[\left(\frac{2n}{2n-1}\right)^{2n} E[|\xi(T)|^{2n}]\right]^{\frac{2n-2}{2n}} \left[E\left(\int_0^T e^2(s, \omega) ds\right)^n\right]^{\frac{1}{n}} \end{aligned}$$

This can be unscrambled to provide the estimate claimed in the theorem with

$$C_n = \left(\frac{2n(2n-1)}{2}\right)^n \left(\frac{2n}{2n-1}\right)^{n(2n-2)}$$

\square

Remark 3.1. One can estimate

$$E\left[\int_0^t [\text{sign}(\beta(s) - y) - \text{sign}(\beta(s) - z)] d\beta(s)\right]^4 \leq C|y - z|^2$$

and by Garsia-Rodemich-Rumsey or Kolmogorov one can conclude that for each t , $\ell(t, y, \omega)$ is almost surely a continuous function of y .

Remark 3.2. With a little more work one can get it to be jointly continuous in t and y for almost all ω . This is the content of the next two exercises.

Exercise 3.6. First, extend Kolmogorov's theorem, to stochastic processes indexed by two parameters $t = (t_1, t_2)$. If

$$E[|X(t) - X(s)|^n] \leq C|t - s|^{2+\alpha}$$

for some $\alpha > 0$, then $X(t)$ has an almost surely continuous version. The idea is to do it one dimension at a time. Since $X(t_1, t_2)$ is almost sure continuous in t_1 for each t_2 , think of $X(t_1, t_2)$ as a stochastic process $Y(t_2)$ with values in the Banach space $C[0, T]$. Either from Garsia-Rodemich-Rumsey inequality or by directly tracking the estimate in Kolmogorov's theorem, obtain the following type of estimate.

$$E[\|Y(t_2) - Y(t_1)\|^m] \leq |t_2 - t_1|^{1+\beta}$$

for some $\beta > 0$. Both proofs extend easily from real valued processes to processes with values in any Banach space.

Exercise 3.7. Now show that

$$\begin{aligned} E \left[\left[\int_0^{t_2} [\text{sign}(\beta(s) - z) d\beta(s) - \int_0^{t_1} \text{sign}(\beta(s) - y) d\beta(s)]^6 \right] \right] \\ \leq C[|y - z|^3 + |t_2 - t_1|^3] \end{aligned}$$