

## Chapter 2

# Conditional Expectation

Please see Hull's book (Section 9.6.)

### 2.1 A Binomial Model for Stock Price Dynamics

Stock prices are assumed to follow this simple binomial model: The initial stock price during the period under study is denoted  $S_0$ . At each time step, the stock price either goes up by a factor of  $u$  or down by a factor of  $d$ . It will be useful to visualize tossing a coin at each time step, and say that

- the stock price moves up by a factor of  $u$  if the coin comes out heads ( $H$ ), and
- down by a factor of  $d$  if it comes out tails ( $T$ ).

Note that we are not specifying the probability of heads here.

Consider a sequence of 3 tosses of the coin (See Fig. 2.1) The collection of all possible outcomes (i.e. sequences of tosses of length 3) is

$$\Omega = \{HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT, THH, THT, TTH, TTT\}.$$

A typical sequence of  $\Omega$  will be denoted  $\omega$ , and  $\omega_k$  will denote the  $k$ th element in the sequence  $\omega$ . We write  $S_k(\omega)$  to denote the stock price at "time"  $k$  (i.e. after  $k$  tosses) under the outcome  $\omega$ . Note that  $S_k(\omega)$  depends only on  $\omega_1, \omega_2, \dots, \omega_k$ . Thus in the 3-coin-toss example we write for instance,

$$S_1(\omega) \triangleq S_1(\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3) \triangleq S_1(\omega_1),$$
$$S_2(\omega) \triangleq S_2(\omega_1, \omega_2, \omega_3) \triangleq S_2(\omega_1, \omega_2).$$

Each  $S_k$  is a *random variable* defined on the set  $\Omega$ . More precisely, let  $\mathcal{F} = \mathcal{P}(\Omega)$ . Then  $\mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra and  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  is a measurable space. Each  $S_k$  is an  $\mathcal{F}$ -measurable function  $\Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , that is,  $S_k^{-1}$  is a function  $\mathcal{B} \rightarrow \mathcal{F}$  where  $\mathcal{B}$  is the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $\mathbb{R}$ . We will see later that  $S_k$  is in fact

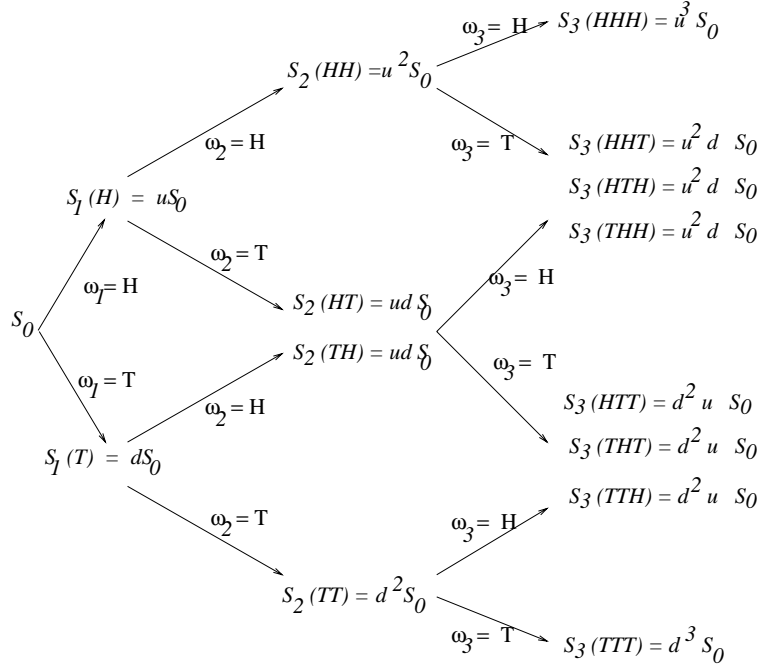


Figure 2.1: A three coin period binomial model.

measurable under a sub- $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathcal{F}$ . Recall that the Borel  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{B}$  is the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by the open intervals of  $\mathbb{R}$ . In this course we will always deal with subsets of  $\mathbb{R}$  that belong to  $\mathcal{B}$ .

For any random variable  $X$  defined on a sample space  $\Omega$  and any  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ , we will use the notation:

$$\{X \leq y\} \triangleq \{\omega \in \Omega; X(\omega) \leq y\}.$$

The sets  $\{X < y\}$ ,  $\{X \geq y\}$ ,  $\{X = y\}$ , etc, are defined similarly. Similarly for any subset  $B$  of  $\mathbb{R}$ , we define

$$\{X \in B\} \triangleq \{\omega \in \Omega; X(\omega) \in B\}.$$

**Assumption 2.1**  $u > d > 0$ .

## 2.2 Information

**Definition 2.1 (Sets determined by the first  $k$  tosses.)** We say that a set  $A \subset \Omega$  is *determined by the first  $k$  coin tosses* if, knowing only the outcome of the first  $k$  tosses, we can decide whether the outcome of *all* tosses is in  $A$ . In general we denote the collection of sets determined by the first  $k$  tosses by  $\mathcal{F}_k$ . It is easy to check that  $\mathcal{F}_k$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra.

Note that the random variable  $S_k$  is  $\mathcal{F}_k$ -measurable, for each  $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

**Example 2.1** In the 3 coin-toss example, the collection  $\mathcal{F}_1$  of sets determined by the first toss consists of:

1.  $A_H \triangleq \{HHH, HHT, HTH, HTT\}$ ,
2.  $A_T \triangleq \{THH, THT, TTH, TTT\}$ ,
3.  $\phi$ ,
4.  $\Omega$ .

The collection  $\mathcal{F}_2$  of sets determined by the first two tosses consists of:

1.  $A_{HH} \triangleq \{HHH, HHT\}$ ,
2.  $A_{HT} \triangleq \{HTH, HTT\}$ ,
3.  $A_{TH} \triangleq \{THH, THT\}$ ,
4.  $A_{TT} \triangleq \{TTH, TTT\}$ ,
5. The complements of the above sets,
6. Any union of the above sets (including the complements),
7.  $\phi$  and  $\Omega$ .

■

**Definition 2.2 (Information carried by a random variable.)** Let  $X$  be a random variable  $\Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . We say that a set  $A \subset \Omega$  is *determined by the random variable  $X$*  if, knowing only the value  $X(\omega)$  of the random variable, we can decide whether or not  $\omega \in A$ . Another way of saying this is that for every  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ , either  $X^{-1}(y) \subset A$  or  $X^{-1}(y) \cap A = \phi$ . The collection of subsets of  $\Omega$  determined by  $X$  is a  $\sigma$ -algebra, which we call the  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $X$ , and denote by  $\sigma(X)$ .

If the random variable  $X$  takes finitely many different values, then  $\sigma(X)$  is generated by the collection of sets

$$\{X^{-1}(X(\omega)) \mid \omega \in \Omega\};$$

these sets are called the *atoms* of the  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\sigma(X)$ .

In general, if  $X$  is a random variable  $\Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\sigma(X)$  is given by

$$\sigma(X) = \{X^{-1}(B); B \in \mathcal{B}\}.$$

**Example 2.2 (Sets determined by  $S_2$ )** The  $\sigma$ -algebra generated by  $S_2$  consists of the following sets:

1.  $A_{HH} = \{HHH, HHT\} = \{\omega \in \Omega; S_2(\omega) = u^2 S_0\}$ ,
2.  $A_{TT} = \{TTH, TTT\} = \{S_2 = d^2 S_0\}$ ,
3.  $A_{HT} \cup A_{TH} = \{S_2 = ud S_0\}$ ,
4. Complements of the above sets,
5. Any union of the above sets,
6.  $\phi = \{S_2(\omega) \in \phi\}$ ,
7.  $\Omega = \{S_2(\omega) \in \mathbb{R}\}$ .

■

## 2.3 Conditional Expectation

In order to talk about conditional expectation, we need to introduce a probability measure on our coin-toss sample space  $\Omega$ . Let us define

- $p \in (0, 1)$  is the probability of  $H$ ,
- $q \triangleq (1 - p)$  is the probability of  $T$ ,
- the coin tosses are *independent*, so that, e.g.,  $\mathbb{P}(HHT) = p^2q$ , etc.
- $\mathbb{P}(A) \triangleq \sum_{\omega \in A} \mathbb{P}(\omega), \forall A \subset \Omega$ .

**Definition 2.3 (Expectation.)**

$$\mathbb{E}X \triangleq \sum_{\omega \in \Omega} X(\omega)\mathbb{P}(\omega).$$

If  $A \subset \Omega$  then

$$I_A(\omega) \triangleq \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \omega \in A \\ 0 & \text{if } \omega \notin A \end{cases}$$

and

$$\mathbb{E}(I_A X) = \int_A X d\mathbb{P} = \sum_{\omega \in A} X(\omega)\mathbb{P}(\omega).$$

We can think of  $\mathbb{E}(I_A X)$  as a *partial average* of  $X$  over the set  $A$ .

### 2.3.1 An example

Let us estimate  $S_1$ , given  $S_2$ . Denote the estimate by  $\mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2)$ . From elementary probability,  $\mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2)$  is a random variable  $Y$  whose value at  $\omega$  is defined by

$$Y(\omega) = \mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2 = y),$$

where  $y = S_2(\omega)$ . Properties of  $\mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2)$ :

- $\mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2)$  should depend on  $\omega$ , i.e., it is a *random variable*.
- If the value of  $S_2$  is known, then the value of  $\mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2)$  should also be known. In particular,
  - If  $\omega = HHH$  or  $\omega = HHT$ , then  $S_2(\omega) = u^2 S_0$ . If we know that  $S_2(\omega) = u^2 S_0$ , then even without knowing  $\omega$ , we know that  $S_1(\omega) = u S_0$ . We define

$$\mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2)(HHH) = \mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2)(HHT) = u S_0.$$

- If  $\omega = TTT$  or  $\omega = TTH$ , then  $S_2(\omega) = d^2 S_0$ . If we know that  $S_2(\omega) = d^2 S_0$ , then even without knowing  $\omega$ , we know that  $S_1(\omega) = d S_0$ . We define

$$\mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2)(TTT) = \mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2)(TTH) = d S_0.$$

- If  $\omega \in A = \{HTH, HTT, THH, THT\}$ , then  $S_2(\omega) = udS_0$ . If we know  $S_2(\omega) = udS_0$ , then we do not know whether  $S_1 = uS_0$  or  $S_1 = dS_0$ . We then take a weighted average:

$$\mathbb{P}(A) = p^2q + pq^2 + p^2q + pq^2 = 2pq.$$

Furthermore,

$$\begin{aligned} \int_A S_1 d\mathbb{P} &= p^2quS_0 + pq^2uS_0 + p^2qdS_0 + pq^2dS_0 \\ &= pq(u+d)S_0 \end{aligned}$$

For  $\omega \in A$  we define

$$\mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2)(\omega) = \frac{\int_A S_1 d\mathbb{P}}{\mathbb{P}(A)} = \frac{1}{2}(u+d)S_0.$$

Then

$$\int_A \mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2) d\mathbb{P} = \int_A S_1 d\mathbb{P}.$$

In conclusion, we can write

$$\mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2)(\omega) = g(S_2(\omega)),$$

where

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} uS_0 & \text{if } x = u^2S_0 \\ \frac{1}{2}(u+d)S_0 & \text{if } x = udS_0 \\ dS_0 & \text{if } x = d^2S_0 \end{cases}$$

In other words,  $\mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2)$  is random *only through dependence on*  $S_2$ . We also write

$$\mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2 = x) = g(x),$$

where  $g$  is the function defined above.

The random variable  $\mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2)$  has two fundamental properties:

- $\mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2)$  is  $\sigma(S_2)$ -measurable.
- For every set  $A \in \sigma(S_2)$ ,

$$\int_A \mathbb{E}(S_1|S_2) d\mathbb{P} = \int_A S_1 d\mathbb{P}.$$

### 2.3.2 Definition of Conditional Expectation

Please see Williams, p.83.

Let  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be a probability space, and let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a sub- $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathcal{F}$ . Let  $X$  be a random variable on  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ . Then  $\mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G})$  is defined to be any random variable  $Y$  that satisfies:

- (a)  $Y$  is  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable,

(b) For every set  $A \in \mathcal{G}$ , we have the “partial averaging property”

$$\int_A Y d\mathbb{P} = \int_A X d\mathbb{P}.$$

**Existence.** There is always a random variable  $Y$  satisfying the above properties (provided that  $\mathbb{E}|X| < \infty$ ), i.e., conditional expectations always exist.

**Uniqueness.** There can be more than one random variable  $Y$  satisfying the above properties, but if  $Y'$  is another one, then  $Y = Y'$  almost surely, i.e.,  $\mathbb{P}\{\omega \in \Omega; Y(\omega) = Y'(\omega)\} = 1$ .

**Notation 2.1** For random variables  $X, Y$ , it is standard notation to write

$$\mathbb{E}(X|Y) \triangleq \mathbb{E}(X|\sigma(Y)).$$

Here are some useful ways to think about  $\mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G})$ :

- A random experiment is performed, i.e., an element  $\omega$  of  $\Omega$  is selected. The value of  $\omega$  is partially but not fully revealed to us, and thus we cannot compute the exact value of  $X(\omega)$ . Based on what we know about  $\omega$ , we compute an estimate of  $X(\omega)$ . Because this estimate depends on the partial information we have about  $\omega$ , it depends on  $\omega$ , i.e.,  $\mathbb{E}[X|Y](\omega)$  is a function of  $\omega$ , although the dependence on  $\omega$  is often not shown explicitly.
- If the  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathcal{G}$  contains finitely many sets, there will be a “smallest” set  $A$  in  $\mathcal{G}$  containing  $\omega$ , which is the intersection of all sets in  $\mathcal{G}$  containing  $\omega$ . The way  $\omega$  is partially revealed to us is that we are told it is in  $A$ , but not told which element of  $A$  it is. We then define  $\mathbb{E}[X|Y](\omega)$  to be the average (with respect to  $\mathbb{P}$ ) value of  $X$  over this set  $A$ . Thus, for all  $\omega$  in this set  $A$ ,  $\mathbb{E}[X|Y](\omega)$  will be the same.

### 2.3.3 Further discussion of Partial Averaging

The partial averaging property is

$$\int_A \mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G}) d\mathbb{P} = \int_A X d\mathbb{P}, \forall A \in \mathcal{G}. \quad (3.1)$$

We can rewrite this as

$$\mathbb{E}[I_A \cdot \mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G})] = \mathbb{E}[I_A \cdot X]. \quad (3.2)$$

Note that  $I_A$  is a  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable random variable. In fact the following holds:

**Lemma 3.10** *If  $V$  is any  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable random variable, then provided  $\mathbb{E}|V \cdot \mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G})| < \infty$ ,*

$$\mathbb{E}[V \cdot \mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G})] = \mathbb{E}[V \cdot X]. \quad (3.3)$$

**Proof:** To see this, first use (3.2) and linearity of expectations to prove (3.3) when  $V$  is a *simple*  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable random variable, i.e.,  $V$  is of the form  $V = \sum_{k=1}^n c_k I_{A_k}$ , where each  $A_k$  is in  $\mathcal{G}$  and each  $c_k$  is constant. Next consider the case that  $V$  is a nonnegative  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable random variable, but is not necessarily simple. Such a  $V$  can be written as the limit of an increasing sequence of simple random variables  $V_n$ ; we write (3.3) for each  $V_n$  and then pass to the limit, using the Monotone Convergence Theorem (See Williams), to obtain (3.3) for  $V$ . Finally, the general  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable random variable  $V$  can be written as the difference of two nonnegative random-variables  $V = V^+ - V^-$ , and since (3.3) holds for  $V^+$  and  $V^-$  it must hold for  $V$  as well. Williams calls this argument the “standard machine” (p. 56). ■

Based on this lemma, we can replace the second condition in the definition of a conditional expectation (Section 2.3.2) by:

(b') For every  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable random-variable  $V$ , we have

$$\mathbb{E}[V \cdot \mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G})] = \mathbb{E}[V \cdot X]. \quad (3.4)$$

### 2.3.4 Properties of Conditional Expectation

Please see Williams p. 88. Proof sketches of some of the properties are provided below.

(a)  $\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G})) = \mathbb{E}(X)$ .

Proof: Just take  $A$  in the partial averaging property to be  $\Omega$ .

The conditional expectation of  $X$  is thus an unbiased estimator of the random variable  $X$ .

(b) If  $X$  is  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable, then

$$\mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G}) = X.$$

Proof: The partial averaging property holds trivially when  $Y$  is replaced by  $X$ . And since  $X$  is  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable,  $X$  satisfies the requirement (a) of a conditional expectation as well.

If the information content of  $\mathcal{G}$  is sufficient to determine  $X$ , then the best estimate of  $X$  based on  $\mathcal{G}$  is  $X$  itself.

(c) (Linearity)

$$\mathbb{E}(a_1 X_1 + a_2 X_2 | \mathcal{G}) = a_1 \mathbb{E}(X_1 | \mathcal{G}) + a_2 \mathbb{E}(X_2 | \mathcal{G}).$$

(d) (Positivity) If  $X \geq 0$  almost surely, then

$$\mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G}) \geq 0.$$

Proof: Take  $A = \{\omega \in \Omega; \mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G})(\omega) < 0\}$ . This set is in  $\mathcal{G}$  since  $\mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G})$  is  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable. Partial averaging implies  $\int_A \mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G}) d\mathbb{P} = \int_A X d\mathbb{P}$ . The right-hand side is greater than or equal to zero, and the left-hand side is strictly negative, unless  $\mathbb{P}(A) = 0$ . Therefore,  $\mathbb{P}(A) = 0$ .

**(h)** (Jensen's Inequality) If  $\phi : R \rightarrow R$  is convex and  $\mathbb{E}|\phi(X)| < \infty$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}(\phi(X)|\mathcal{G}) \geq \phi(\mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G})).$$

Recall the usual Jensen's Inequality:  $\mathbb{E}\phi(X) \geq \phi(\mathbb{E}(X))$ .

**(i)** (Tower Property) If  $\mathcal{H}$  is a sub- $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathcal{G}$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}(\mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G})|\mathcal{H}) = \mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{H}).$$

$\mathcal{H}$  is a sub- $\sigma$ -algebra of  $\mathcal{G}$  means that  $\mathcal{G}$  contains more information than  $\mathcal{H}$ . If we estimate  $X$  based on the information in  $\mathcal{G}$ , and then estimate the estimator based on the smaller amount of information in  $\mathcal{H}$ , then we get the same result as if we had estimated  $X$  directly based on the information in  $\mathcal{H}$ .

**(j)** (Taking out what is known) If  $Z$  is  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable, then

$$\mathbb{E}(ZX|\mathcal{G}) = Z.\mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G}).$$

When conditioning on  $\mathcal{G}$ , the  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable random variable  $Z$  acts like a constant.

Proof: Let  $Z$  be a  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable random variable. A random variable  $Y$  is  $\mathbb{E}(ZX|\mathcal{G})$  if and only if

- (a)  $Y$  is  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable;
- (b)  $\int_A Y d\mathbb{P} = \int_A ZX d\mathbb{P}, \forall A \in \mathcal{G}$ .

Take  $Y = Z.\mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G})$ . Then  $Y$  satisfies (a) (a product of  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable random variables is  $\mathcal{G}$ -measurable).  $Y$  also satisfies property (b), as we can check below:

$$\begin{aligned} \int_A Y d\mathbb{P} &= \mathbb{E}(I_A.Y) \\ &= \mathbb{E}[I_A Z \mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G})] \\ &= \mathbb{E}[I_A Z.X] \text{ ((b') with } V = I_A Z) \\ &= \int_A ZX d\mathbb{P}. \end{aligned}$$

**(k)** (Role of Independence) If  $\mathcal{H}$  is independent of  $\sigma(\sigma(X), \mathcal{G})$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}(X|\sigma(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{H})) = \mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{G}).$$

In particular, if  $X$  is independent of  $\mathcal{H}$ , then

$$\mathbb{E}(X|\mathcal{H}) = \mathbb{E}(X).$$

If  $\mathcal{H}$  is independent of  $X$  and  $\mathcal{G}$ , then nothing is gained by including the information content of  $\mathcal{H}$  in the estimation of  $X$ .



### 2.3.5 Examples from the Binomial Model

Recall that  $\mathcal{F}_1 = \{\phi, A_H, A_T, \Omega\}$ . Notice that  $\mathbb{E}(S_2|\mathcal{F}_1)$  must be constant on  $A_H$  and  $A_T$ .

Now since  $\mathbb{E}(S_2|\mathcal{F}_1)$  must satisfy the partial averaging property,

$$\int_{A_H} \mathbb{E}(S_2|\mathcal{F}_1) d\mathbb{P} = \int_{A_H} S_2 d\mathbb{P},$$

$$\int_{A_T} \mathbb{E}(S_2|\mathcal{F}_1) d\mathbb{P} = \int_{A_T} S_2 d\mathbb{P}.$$

We compute

$$\begin{aligned} \int_{A_H} \mathbb{E}(S_2|\mathcal{F}_1) d\mathbb{P} &= \mathbb{P}(A_H) \cdot \mathbb{E}(S_2|\mathcal{F}_1)(\omega) \\ &= p \mathbb{E}(S_2|\mathcal{F}_1)(\omega), \forall \omega \in A_H. \end{aligned}$$

On the other hand,

$$\int_{A_H} S_2 d\mathbb{P} = p^2 u^2 S_0 + pqudS_0.$$

Therefore,

$$\mathbb{E}(S_2|\mathcal{F}_1)(\omega) = pu^2 S_0 + qudS_0, \forall \omega \in A_H.$$

We can also write

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}(S_2|\mathcal{F}_1)(\omega) &= pu^2 S_0 + qudS_0 \\ &= (pu + qd)uS_0 \\ &= (pu + qd)S_1(\omega), \forall \omega \in A_H \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$\mathbb{E}(S_2|\mathcal{F}_1)(\omega) = (pu + qd)S_1(\omega), \forall \omega \in A_T.$$

Thus in both cases we have

$$\mathbb{E}(S_2|\mathcal{F}_1)(\omega) = (pu + qd)S_1(\omega), \forall \omega \in \Omega.$$

A similar argument one time step later shows that

$$\mathbb{E}(S_3|\mathcal{F}_2)(\omega) = (pu + qd)S_2(\omega).$$

We leave the verification of this equality as an exercise. We can verify the Tower Property, for instance, from the previous equations we have

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}(S_3|\mathcal{F}_2)|\mathcal{F}_1] &= \mathbb{E}[(pu + qd)S_2|\mathcal{F}_1] \\ &= (pu + qd)\mathbb{E}(S_2|\mathcal{F}_1) \quad (\text{linearity}) \\ &= (pu + qd)^2 S_1. \end{aligned}$$

This final expression is  $\mathbb{E}(S_3|\mathcal{F}_1)$ .

## 2.4 Martingales

The ingredients are:

- A probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ .
- A sequence of  $\sigma$ -algebras  $\mathcal{F}_0, \mathcal{F}_1, \dots, \mathcal{F}_n$ , with the property that  $\mathcal{F}_0 \subset \mathcal{F}_1 \subset \dots \subset \mathcal{F}_n \subset \mathcal{F}$ . Such a sequence of  $\sigma$ -algebras is called a *filtration*.
- A sequence of random variables  $M_0, M_1, \dots, M_n$ . This is called a *stochastic process*.

Conditions for a martingale:

1. Each  $M_k$  is  $\mathcal{F}_k$ -measurable. If you know the information in  $\mathcal{F}_k$ , then you know the value of  $M_k$ . We say that the process  $\{M_k\}$  is *adapted* to the filtration  $\{\mathcal{F}_k\}$ .
2. For each  $k$ ,  $\mathbb{E}(M_{k+1}|\mathcal{F}_k) = M_k$ . Martingales tend to go neither up nor down.

A *supermartingale* tends to go *down*, i.e. the second condition above is replaced by  $\mathbb{E}(M_{k+1}|\mathcal{F}_k) \leq M_k$ ; a *submartingale* tends to go *up*, i.e.  $\mathbb{E}(M_{k+1}|\mathcal{F}_k) \geq M_k$ .

**Example 2.3 (Example from the binomial model.)** For  $k = 1, 2$  we already showed that

$$\mathbb{E}(S_{k+1}|\mathcal{F}_k) = (pu + qd)S_k.$$

For  $k = 0$ , we set  $\mathcal{F}_0 = \{\phi, \Omega\}$ , the “trivial  $\sigma$ -algebra”. This  $\sigma$ -algebra contains no information, and any  $\mathcal{F}_0$ -measurable random variable must be constant (nonrandom). Therefore, by definition,  $\mathbb{E}(S_1|\mathcal{F}_0)$  is that constant which satisfies the averaging property

$$\int_{\Omega} \mathbb{E}(S_1|\mathcal{F}_0) d\mathbb{P} = \int_{\Omega} S_1 d\mathbb{P}.$$

The right hand side is  $\mathbb{E}S_1 = (pu + qd)S_0$ , and so we have

$$\mathbb{E}(S_1|\mathcal{F}_0) = (pu + qd)S_0.$$

In conclusion,

- If  $(pu + qd) = 1$  then  $\{S_k, \mathcal{F}_k; k = 0, 1, 2, 3\}$  is a martingale.
- If  $(pu + qd) \geq 1$  then  $\{S_k, \mathcal{F}_k; k = 0, 1, 2, 3\}$  is a submartingale.
- If  $(pu + qd) \leq 1$  then  $\{S_k, \mathcal{F}_k; k = 0, 1, 2, 3\}$  is a supermartingale.

■