

PDE for Finance Notes, Spring 2000 – Section 3

Notes by Robert V. Kohn, Courant Institute of Mathematical Sciences. For use only in connection with the NYU course PDE for Finance, G63.2706, Spring 2000.

Note on office hours: I'm out of town Wed-Fri, 2/16-18; therefore I won't be holding office hours Thursday 2/17. In addition, I must shift the time of my office hours on Thursday 2/24: they'll be 10-11 AM instead of 4-5 PM. I'm also available by appointment as usual.

Comments on the Section 2 notes:

- (a) On page 10 I applied the Pontryagin maximum principle to Example 3 (the example with transaction costs). The version of Section 2 handed out in class got this wrong: I forgot to take into account the discounting of utility. This has been corrected in the version now on my web page.
- (b) On page 4 I applied the Pontryagin maximum principle to Example 1 (our simplest example with investment and consumption). My analysis was right, however it sailed too quickly past an interesting, potentially confusing point. Our general (formal) discussion "showed" that $\pi(T) = \nabla g(y(T))$. In the example, where $g = 0$, we obtained $\pi(s) = \pi(t)e^{-r(s-t)}$. But then $\pi(T)$ cannot be zero! Evidently our formal argument obtained a wrong result in this case. Why? Because the behavior at time T is rather singular in this problem. What's true is that $\pi(s) = u_x(y(s), s)$. But $u = \phi(t)x^\gamma$ for a suitable function ϕ of time (with $\phi(T) = 0$). So $u_x = \gamma\phi x^{\gamma-1}$, which is singular at $x = 0$ (since $\gamma < 1$). Moreover $y(s) \rightarrow 0$ as $s \rightarrow T$, since we assigned no utility to final-time wealth. Thus $u = 0$ at $t = T$, but $\lim_{s \rightarrow 0} u_x(y(s), s) \neq 0$. This issue would not have arisen if we had included a positive "bequest term" in the utility.

Introduction to stochastic dynamic programming. Stochastic dynamic programming is like deterministic dynamic programming except the equation of state is a stochastic differential equation, and the goal is to maximize or minimize the expected utility or cost. To see what new issues this raises we set up and discuss two examples, namely: (a) perturbation of a deterministic problem by small noise, and (b) Merton's optimal consumption problem for one risky asset and a risk-free account. Our treatment basically follows Chapter VI of Fleming and Rishel.

The continuous-time setting is powerful, but many interesting problems can be approached as well or better in a discrete-time framework. Discrete-time problems will be discussed in Section 4.

We shall be using some basic facts from stochastic calculus, mainly Ito's Lemma. Chapters 9, 10, and 11 of Neftci's book provide an accessible introduction to stochastic integration and Ito's lemma, for those who don't already know it. Mainly what we'll be using in this section is

- The fact that $E \int_a^b f dw = 0$. (Here w is Brownian motion, E is expectation, and $\int_a^b f dw$ is a stochastic integral.)
- The fact that if y solves the stochastic differential equation $dy = f ds + g dw$ then $z = \phi(y)$ solves the stochastic differential equation $dz = \phi'(y) dy + \frac{1}{2} \phi''(y) dy dy = [\phi'(y)f + \frac{1}{2} \phi''(y)g^2] ds + \phi'(y)g dw$. (This is Ito's lemma specialized to scalar-valued processes.) We'll also be using the vector-valued version of Ito's formula.

You won't need to know how to prove these facts – our plan is to accept them as tools and explore their consequences for stochastic control. Chapters 9, 10, and 11 of Neftci's book provide a good introduction to stochastic calculus at a level appropriate to this course. Section 4 of my 1999 PDE for Finance notes (on my web page) may also be helpful. I will give one lecture on stochastic differential equations in a few weeks; but it will be intended to pull things together, not to start from scratch.

Perturbation of a deterministic problem by small noise. We've discussed at length the deterministic dynamic programming problem with state equation

$$dy/ds = f(y(s), \alpha(s)) \text{ for } t < s < T, \quad y(t) = x,$$

controls $\alpha(s) \in A$, and objective

$$\max_{\alpha} \left\{ \int_t^T h(y(s), \alpha(s)) ds + g(y(T)) \right\}.$$

Its value function satisfies the HJB equation

$$u_t + H(\nabla u, x) = 0 \text{ for } t < T, \quad u(x, T) = g(x),$$

with Hamiltonian

$$H(p, x) = \max_{a \in A} \{ f(x, a) \cdot p + h(x, a) \}. \tag{1}$$

Let us show (heuristically) that when the state is perturbed by a little noise, the value function of resulting stochastic control problem solves the perturbed HJB equation

$$u_t + H(\nabla u, x) + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 \Delta u = 0 \tag{2}$$

where H is still given by (1), and $\Delta u = \sum_i \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x_i^2}$. (Thus the “viscosity solution” of the deterministic HJB – obtained by letting $\epsilon \rightarrow 0$ – is a natural thing to consider. It corresponds to introducing a little noise, which serves to regularize the solution.)

Our phrase “perturbing the state by a little noise” means this: we replace the ODE governing the state by the stochastic differential equation (SDE)

$$dy = f(y, \alpha) ds + \epsilon dw,$$

keeping the initial condition $y(t) = x$. Here dw is a standard, vector-valued Brownian motion (each component w_i is a scalar-valued Brownian motion, and different components are independent).

The evolution of the state is now stochastic, hence so is the value of the utility. Our goal in the stochastic setting is to maximize the *expected* utility. The value function is thus

$$u(x, t) = \max_{\alpha} E_{y(t)=x} \left\{ \int_t^T h(y(s), \alpha(s)) ds + g(y(T)) \right\}.$$

There is some subtlety to the question: what is the class of admissible controls? Of course we still restrict $\alpha(s) \in A$. But since the state is random, it's natural for the control to be random as well – however its value at time s should depend only on the past and present, not on the future (which is after all unknown to the controller). Such controls are called “non-anticipating.” A simpler notion, sufficient for most purposes, is to restrict attention to *feedback* controls, i.e. to assume that $\alpha(s)$ is a deterministic function of s and $y(s)$. One can show (under suitable hypotheses, when the state equation is a stochastic differential equation) that these two different notions of “admissible control” lead to the same optimal value.

Courage. Let's look for the HJB by applying the usual heuristic argument, based on the principle of dynamic programming applied to a short time interval:

$$u(x, t) \approx \max_{a \in A} \left\{ h(x, a)\Delta t + E_{y(t)=x} u(y(t + \Delta t), t + \Delta t) \right\}.$$

The term $h(x, a)\Delta t$ approximates $\int_t^{t+\Delta t} h(y(s), a) ds$, because we assume h is smooth and $y(s) = x +$ terms tending to 0 with Δt . Notice that $h(x, a)\Delta t$ is deterministic. The expression $u(y(t + \Delta t), t + \Delta t)$ is the optimal expected utility starting from time $t + \Delta t$ and spatial point $y(t + \Delta t)$. We must take its expected value, because $y(t + \Delta t)$ is random. (If you think carefully you'll see that the Markov property of the process $y(s)$ is being used here.)

We're almost in familiar territory. In the deterministic case the next step was to express $u(y(t + \Delta t), t + \Delta t)$ using the state equation and the Taylor expansion of u . Here we do something analogous: use Ito's lemma and the stochastic differential equation. Ito's lemma says the process $\phi(s) = u(y(s), s)$ satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} d\phi &= \frac{\partial u}{\partial s} ds + \sum_i \frac{\partial u}{\partial y_i} dy_i + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y_i \partial y_j} dy_i dy_j \\ &= u_t(y(s), s) ds + \nabla u \cdot (f(y(s), \alpha(s)) ds + \epsilon dw) + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 \Delta u ds. \end{aligned}$$

The real meaning of this statement is that

$$\begin{aligned} u(y(t'), t') - u(y(t), t) &= \int_t^{t'} [u_t(y(s), s) + \nabla u(y(s), s) \cdot (f(y(s), \alpha(s)) + \frac{1}{2} \epsilon^2 \Delta u(y(s), s))] ds \\ &\quad + \int_t^{t'} \epsilon \nabla u(y(s), s) \cdot dw. \end{aligned}$$

The expected value of the second integral is 0, so

$$E_{y(t)=x}[u(y(t + \Delta t), t + \Delta t)] - u(x, t) \approx [u_t(x, t) + \nabla u(x, t) \cdot f(x, a) + \frac{1}{2}\epsilon^2 \Delta u(x, t)]\Delta t.$$

Assembling these ingredients, we have

$$u(x, t) \approx \max_{a \in A} \left\{ h(x, a)\Delta t + u(x, t) + [u_t(x, t) + \nabla u(x, t) \cdot f(x, a) + \frac{1}{2}\epsilon^2 \Delta u(x, t)]\Delta t \right\}.$$

This is almost identical to the relation we got in the deterministic case. The only difference is the new term $\frac{1}{2}\epsilon^2 \Delta u(x, t)\Delta t$ on the right. It doesn't depend on a , so the optimal a is unchanged – it still maximizes $h(x, a) + f(x, a) \cdot \nabla u$ – and we conclude, as asserted, that u solves (2).

Optimal portfolio selection and consumption. This is the simplest of a class of problems solved by Robert Merton in his paper “Optimal consumption and portfolio rules in a continuous-time model”, *J. Economic Theory* 3, 1971, 373-413 (reprinted in his book *Continuous Time Finance*.) As you'll see, the math is almost the same as our Example 1 – though the finance is more interesting.

We consider a world with one risky asset and one risk-free asset. The risk-free asset grows at a constant risk-free rate r , i.e. its price per share satisfies $dp_1/dt = p_1r$. The risky asset executes a geometric Brownian motion with constant drift $\mu > r$ and volatility σ , i.e. its price per share solves the stochastic differential equation $dp_2 = \mu p_2 dt + \sigma p_2 dw$.

The control problem is this: an investor starts with initial wealth x at time t . His control variables are

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_1(s) &= \text{fraction of total wealth invested in the risky asset at time } s \\ \alpha_2(s) &= \text{rate of consumption at time } s. \end{aligned}$$

It is natural to restrict these controls by $0 \leq \alpha_1(s) \leq 1$ and $\alpha_2(s) \geq 0$. We ignore transaction costs. The state is the investor's total wealth y as a function of time; it solves

$$dy = (1 - \alpha_1)yrdt + \alpha_1y(\mu dt + \sigma dw) - \alpha_2 dt$$

so long as $y(s) > 0$. We denote by τ the first time $y(s) = 0$ if this occurs before time T , or $\tau = T$ (a fixed horizon time) otherwise. The investor seeks to maximize the discounted total utility of his consumption. We therefore consider the value function

$$u(x, t) = \max_{\alpha_1, \alpha_2} E_{y(t)=x} \int_t^\tau e^{-\rho s} h[\alpha_2(s)] ds$$

where $h[\cdot]$ is a specified utility function (monotone increasing and concave, with $h(0) = 0$). We shall specialize eventually to the power-law utility $h(\alpha_2) = \alpha_2^\gamma$ with $0 < \gamma < 1$. (We

have chosen, as in Example 1, to work with the utility discounted to time 0. It is also possible, as in HW1, to work with the utility discounted to time t . The latter choice would give an autonomous HJB equation, i.e. time would not appear explicitly in the equation.)

We find the HJB equation by essentially the same method used above. The principle of dynamic programming applied on a short time interval gives:

$$u(x, t) \approx \max_{a_1, a_2} \left\{ e^{-\rho t} h(a_2) \Delta t + E_{y(t)=x} u(y(t + \Delta t), t + \Delta t) \right\}.$$

To evaluate the expectation term, we use Ito's lemma again. Using the state equation

$$dy = [(1 - \alpha_1)yr + \alpha_1 y \mu - \alpha_2] dt + \alpha_1 y \sigma dw$$

and skipping straight to the conclusion, we have

$$u(y(t'), t') - u(y(t), t) = \int_t^{t'} [u_t + u_y [(1 - \alpha_1)yr + \alpha_1 y \mu - \alpha_2] + \frac{1}{2} u_{yy} y^2 \alpha_1^2 \sigma^2] dt + \int_t^{t'} \alpha_1 \sigma y u_y dw.$$

The expected value of the second integral is 0, so

$$E_{y(t)=x} [u(y(t + \Delta t), t + \Delta t)] - u(x, t) \approx [u_t + u_y [(1 - \alpha_1)yr + \alpha_1 y \mu - \alpha_2] + \frac{1}{2} u_{yy} y^2 \alpha_1^2 \sigma^2] \Delta t.$$

Assembling these ingredients,

$$u(x, t) \approx \max_{a_1, a_2} \left\{ e^{-\rho t} h(a_2) \Delta t + u(x, t) + [u_t + u_x [(1 - a_1)xr + a_1 x \mu - a_2] + \frac{1}{2} u_{xx} x^2 a_1^2 \sigma^2] \Delta t \right\}.$$

Cleaning up, and taking the limit $\Delta t \rightarrow 0$, we get

$$u_t + \max_{a_1, a_2} \left\{ e^{-\rho t} h(a_2) + [(1 - a_1)xr + a_1 x \mu - a_2] u_x + \frac{1}{2} x^2 a_1^2 \sigma^2 u_{xx} \right\} = 0.$$

This is the relevant HJB equation. It is to be solved for $t < T$, with $u(x, T) = 0$ since we have associated no utility associated to final-time wealth.

That looks pretty horrible, but it isn't really so bad. First of all, if we constrain $a_1 = 0$ it reduces to the HJB equation from Example 1. (Well, it has to: if $a_1 = 0$ then all investment is in the risk-free asset, and the problem *is* Example 1.) So we charge ahead.

Let us assume $u_x > 0$ (practically obvious: larger initial wealth should produce larger total utility; what comparison argument would you use to prove it?). Let's also assume $u_{xx} < 0$ (not quite so obvious: this reflects the concavity of the utility function; it will be easy to check it on our explicit solution at the end). Then the optimal a_1 (ignoring the constraint $0 \leq a_1 \leq 1$) is

$$a_1^* = - \frac{(\mu - r)u_x}{\sigma^2 x u_{xx}}$$

which is positive. We proceed, postponing till later the verification that $a_1^* \leq 1$. The optimal a_2 satisfies

$$h'(a_2^*) = e^{\rho t} u_x;$$

we can sure this a_2^* is positive by assuming that $h'(0) = \infty$.

To go further we now specialize to the power-law utility $h(a_2) = a_2^\gamma$ with $0 < \gamma < 1$. The same argument we used in the deterministic case shows that the solution must have the form

$$u(x, t) = g(t)x^\gamma.$$

The associated a_1^* and a_2^* are evidently

$$a_1^* = \frac{(\mu - r)}{\sigma^2(1 - \gamma)}, \quad a_2^* = \left[e^{\rho t} g(t) \right]^{1/(\gamma-1)} x.$$

We assume henceforth that $\mu - r < \sigma^2(1 - \gamma)$ so that $a_1^* < 1$. Substituting these values into the HJB equation gives, after some arithmetic,

$$\frac{dg}{dt} + \nu\gamma g + (1 - \gamma)g(e^{\rho t} g)^{1/(\gamma-1)} = 0$$

with

$$\nu = r + \frac{(\mu - r)^2}{2\sigma^2(1 - \gamma)}.$$

We must solve this with $g(T) = 0$. This is the same nonlinear equation we dealt with in Example 1 – with ν in place of r . So we can go straight to the answer: $u = g(t)x^\gamma$ with

$$g(t) = e^{-\rho t} \left[\frac{1 - \gamma}{\rho - \nu\gamma} \left(1 - e^{-\frac{(\rho - \nu\gamma)(T-t)}{1-\gamma}} \right) \right]^{1-\gamma}.$$

It should not be surprising that we had to place some restrictions on the parameters to get this solution. When these restrictions fail, inequalities that previously didn't bother us become important (the restrictions $0 \leq a_1 \leq 1$, which prohibit borrowing and short-selling).

We have solved the HJB equation; but have we found the value function? The answer is yes, as we now show using a verification argument.

The verification argument. In the deterministic case we used a heuristic argument to derive the HJB equation, but then showed completely honestly that a (sufficiently smooth) solution of the HJB equation (satisfying appropriate boundary or final-time conditions) provides a bound on the value attainable by any control. A similar result holds in the stochastic setting.

Rather than give a general result at this time, let's focus on the example just completed (Merton's optimal selection and consumption problem). All the ideas required for the general case are already present here. Brief review of our task: the state equation is

$$dy = [(1 - \alpha_1)yr + \alpha_1y\mu - \alpha_2]dt + \alpha_1y\sigma dw$$

which we shall write for simplicity as

$$dy = f(y, \alpha_1, \alpha_2)dt + \alpha_1 y \sigma dw.$$

The value function is

$$u(x, t) = \max_{\alpha} E_{y(t)=x} \int_t^{\tau} e^{-\rho s} h[\alpha_2(s)] ds$$

where τ is either the first time $y = 0$ (if this happens before time T) or $\tau = T$ (if y doesn't reach 0 before time T). The HJB equation is

$$v_t + \max_{\alpha_1, \alpha_2} \left\{ e^{-\rho t} h(\alpha_2) + f(x, \alpha_1, \alpha_2)v_x + \frac{1}{2}x^2\alpha_1^2\sigma^2v_{xx} \right\} = 0$$

for $t < T$, with $v = 0$ at $t = T$. We didn't fuss over it before, but clearly v should also satisfy $v(0, s) = 0$ for all s . We write v instead of u , to reserve notation u for the optimal value. The goal of the verification argument is to show that $v \geq u$, i.e. to show that no control strategy can achieve an expected discounted utility better than v . Our argument will also show that the feedback strategy associated with the HJB calculation – namely

$$\alpha_1(s) = -\frac{(\mu - r)v_x}{\sigma^2 x v_{xx}}(y(s), s), \quad h'(\alpha_2)(s) = e^{\rho s} v_x(y(s), s) \quad (3)$$

does indeed achieve expected discounted value v ; in other words $v \leq u$. This suffices of course to show $v = u$.

Consider any control $\tilde{\alpha}(s)$, and the associated state $\tilde{y}(s)$ starting from $\tilde{y}(t) = x$. Of course we assume $\tilde{\alpha}$ is non-anticipating, i.e. it depends only on knowledge of $\tilde{y}(s)$ in the present and past, not the future. (If this condition confuses you, just assume $\tilde{\alpha}$ is given by a feedback law, i.e. $\tilde{\alpha}(s) = F(y(s), s)$ for some deterministic function $F(y, s)$. Such controls are automatically non-anticipating.) We wish to show that

$$v(x, t) \geq E_{y(t)=x} \int_t^{\tilde{\tau}} e^{-\rho s} h[\tilde{\alpha}_2(s)] ds.$$

Consider $\phi(s) = v(\tilde{y}(s), s)$: by the Ito calculus it satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} d\phi &= v_s ds + v_y d\tilde{y} + \frac{1}{2}v_{yy} d\tilde{y}d\tilde{y} \\ &= v_s ds + v_y [f(\tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{y})ds + \tilde{\alpha}_1(s)\tilde{y}(s)\sigma dw] + \frac{1}{2}v_{yy}\tilde{\alpha}_1^2(s)\tilde{y}^2(s)\sigma^2 ds. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore

$$v(\tilde{y}(t'), t') - v(\tilde{y}(t), t) = \int_t^{t'} [v_s + v_y f + \frac{1}{2}v_{yy}\tilde{y}^2\tilde{\alpha}_1^2\sigma^2]dt + \int_t^{t'} \sigma\tilde{\alpha}_1\tilde{y}v_y dw$$

where each integrand is evaluated at $y = \tilde{y}(s)$, $\alpha = \tilde{\alpha}(s)$ at time s . The expected value of the second integral is 0 (here is where we use that α is nonanticipating; we will return

to this when we discuss stochastic integrals). Thus taking the expectation, and using the initial condition:

$$E [v(\tilde{y}(t'), t')] - v(x, t) = E \left[\int_t^{t'} (v_s + v_y f + \frac{1}{2} v_{yy} \tilde{y}^2 \tilde{\alpha}_1^2 \sigma^2) dt \right].$$

Now from the definition of the Hamiltonian we have

$$v_t(\tilde{y}(s), s) + \left\{ e^{-\rho s} h(\tilde{\alpha}_2(s)) + f(\tilde{y}(s), \tilde{\alpha}(s)) v_y(\tilde{y}(s), s) + \frac{1}{2} \tilde{y}^2(s) \tilde{\alpha}_1^2(s) \sigma^2 v_{yy}(\tilde{y}(s), s) \right\} \leq 0. \quad (4)$$

Combining this with the preceding relation gives

$$E [v(\tilde{y}(t'), t')] - v(x, t) \leq -E \left[\int_t^{t'} e^{-\rho s} h(\tilde{\alpha}_2(s)) ds \right].$$

Taking $t' = \tilde{\tau}$ and using the fact that $v(\tilde{y}(t'), t') = 0$, we conclude that

$$v(x, t) \geq E \left[\int_t^{\tilde{\tau}} e^{-\rho s} h(\tilde{\alpha}(s)) ds \right].$$

Maximizing the right hand side over all $\tilde{\alpha}$ we conclude that

$$v \geq u$$

For the special feedback law associated with the HJB equation, which fixes the control α by (3), relation (4) becomes equality. This shows that $v \leq u$, since v is the value achieved by a specific control strategy and u is the maximum value over all possible strategies. Thus $v = u$. In summary: the function v , defined by solving the HJB equation with appropriate boundary and initial conditions, is in fact the value function of this stochastic control problem, and the control strategy (3) is indeed optimal.

Notice that this calculation rests on pretty much the same tools we used to derive the HJB: (a) the Ito calculus, to get a representation of $u(\tilde{y}(s), s)$, and (b) the fact that the integral “ dw ” has expected value 0.