Wiener chaos and the Cox–Ingersoll–Ross model

M. R. Grasselli* and T. R. Hurd*
Dept. of Mathematics and Statistics
McMaster University
Hamilton ON L8S 4K1
Canada

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Abstract

In this paper we recast the Cox–Ingersoll–Ross model of interest rates into the chaotic representation recently introduced by Hughston and Rafailidis. Beginning with the “squared Gaussian representation” of the CIR model, we find a simple expression for the fundamental random variable $X_\infty$. By use of techniques from the theory of infinite dimensional Gaussian integration, we derive an explicit formula for the $n$th term of the Wiener chaos expansion of the CIR model, for $n = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$. We then derive a new expression for the price of a zero coupon bond which reveals a connection between Gaussian measures and Ricatti differential equations.

Key words: Interest rate models, Wiener chaos, functional integrals, squared Gaussian models.

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1 Introduction

In the present paper we shall study the best known example of a term structure with positive interest rates, namely the CIR model [2], in the context of the “chaotic approach” to interest rate dynamics introduced recently by Hughston and Rafailidis [5] (see also [1]). By an interest rate model we mean the specification of a spot rate process \( r_t \) and of a market price of risk process \( \lambda_t \) both under the “natural” or physical measure in the economy \( P \). In the chaotic approach, the random nature of the model is assumed to be given by a probability space \((\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)\) equipped with a Brownian filtration \((\mathcal{F}_t)_{0 \leq t < \infty}\).

The essence of the approach by Hughston and Rafailidis is the specification of the most general term structure with positive interest rates in terms of a single unconstrained random variable they denote \( X^\infty_\infty \). They then apply a Wiener chaos expansion to \( X_\infty^\infty \), and interpret the resulting terms as building blocks for models of increasing complexity.

In one version of the CIR model, \( r_t, \lambda_t \) are governed by the equations

\[
\begin{align*}
    dr_t &= a(b - r_t)dt + c\sqrt{r_t}d\tilde{W}_t, \\
    \|\lambda_t\|^2 &= \bar{\lambda}^2 r_t
\end{align*}
\]

for some positive constants \( a, b, c, \bar{\lambda} \) with \( 4ab > c^2 \), where \( \tilde{W}_t \) is a standard one dimensional \( P \)-Brownian motion and \( \lambda_t \) is a vector valued adapted process.

By embedding this model inside a general class of squared Gaussian models, we will be led to a natural choice for the basic square integrable random variable \( X_\infty \) associated to it. As we shall then demonstrate, the resulting stochastic process \( X_t = E_t[X_\infty] \) admits an explicit chaos expansion, one which in general includes terms of every chaotic order.

A central idea in the present paper is the link between the Wiener chaos expansion and the theory of Gaussian functional integration, an essential tool invented to study the mathematical structure of quantum field theory. In fact, the mathematics underlying our example is a consequence of certain basic results in that theory, and can be found in for example [4].

The organization of the paper is as follows. In section 2 we review the essential ingredients for the construction of positive interest rates models in both Flesaker–Hughston and the state price density approaches, and then compare these approaches to the recently introduced chaotic representation of Hughston and Rafailidis [5]. We end the section by describing the structure of the Wiener–Itô chaos expansion and show how it can be expressed in terms of a certain generating functional acting on the space \( L^2(\mathbb{R}^N) \).
In section 3, we describe the squared Gaussian formulation of the CIR model and show the spot rate process can be explicitly computed. Based on this representation, we state the form of the random variable \( X_\infty \), and give a proof that it lies in \( L^2 \). In section 4, we state the exponential quadratic formula which is the main technical tool in this paper. It is a formula for the generating functional of random variables of the form \( X = e^{-Y} \) for \( Y \) lying in a general class of elements in the second chaos space \( \mathcal{H}_2 \). In section 5, we compute the generating function for the random variables \( X_t \) in the CIR model and, as the main result of the paper, derive their chaos expansion. In section 6, we show that the usual CIR bond pricing formula has a natural derivation within the chaotic framework.

Three appendices focus on the theory of Gaussian functional integration and its relation to the Wiener chaos expansion. Appendix A explores the white noise calculus. Appendix B states and provides a proof of the generating functional theorem. Appendix C provides a proof of the exponential quadratic formula.

2 Positive Interest Rates

2.1 State price density and the potential approach

Rather than focus on the spot rate process, one can model the system of bond prices directly. Let \( P_{tT}, 0 \leq t \leq T \) denote the price at time \( t \) for a zero coupon bond which pays one unit of currency at its maturity \( T \). Clearly \( P_{tt} = 1 \) for all \( 0 \leq t < \infty \) and furthermore, positivity of the interest rate is equivalent to having

\[
P_{ts} \leq P_{tu},
\]

for all \( 0 \leq t \leq u \leq s \).

A general way to model bond prices \[12, 11\] is to write

\[
P_{tT} = \frac{E_t[V_T]}{V_t},
\]

for a positive adapted continuous process \( V_t \), called the state price density. Positivity of the interest rates is then equivalent to \( V_t \) being a supermartingale. In order to match the initial term structure, this supermartingale needs to be chosen so that \( E[V_T] = P_{0T} \). If we further impose that \( P_{0T} \to 0 \) as \( T \to \infty \), then \( V_t \) satisfies all the properties of what is known in probability
theory as a \textit{potential} (namely, a positive supermartingale with expected value going to zero at infinity).

It follows from the Doob–Meyer decomposition that any continuous potential satisfying

$$E \left( \sup_{0 \leq t \leq \infty} V_t^2 \right) < \infty$$

(4)
can be written as

$$V_t = E_t[A_\infty] - A_t,$$  

(5)
for a unique (up to indistinguishability) adapted continuous increasing process $A_t$ with $E(A_\infty^2) < \infty$. Therefore, the model is completely specified by the process $A_t$, which can be freely chosen apart from the constraint that

$$E \left[ \frac{\partial A_T}{\partial T} \right] = -\frac{\partial P_{0\infty}}{\partial T}. $$

(6)

2.2 Related quantities and absence of arbitrage

An earlier framework for positive interest rates was introduced by Flesaker and Hughston [3, eq. (8)], who observed that any arbitrage free system of zero coupon bond prices has the form

$$P_{tT} = \frac{\int_T^\infty h_s M_{ts} ds}{\int_t^\infty h_s M_{ts} ds}, \text{ for } 0 \leq t \leq T < \infty.$$  

(7)

Here $h_T = -\frac{\partial P_{0\infty}}{\partial T}$ is a positive deterministic function obtained from the initial term structure and $M_{ts}$ is a family of strictly positive continuous martingales satisfying $M_{0s} = 1$. Any such system of prices can be put into a potential form by setting

$$V_t = \int_t^\infty h_s M_{ts} ds.$$  

(8)

The converse result is less direct and was first established by Jin and Glasserman [7, lemma 1].

These equivalent ways of modelling positive interest rates can now be related to other standard financial objects. A particularly straightforward path is to follow [12, proposition 1]: given a strictly positive supermartingale $V_t$, there exists a unique strictly positive (local) martingale $\Lambda_t$ such that the
process \( B_t = \Lambda_t/V_t \) is strictly increasing. We identify \( B_t \) with a riskless money market account initialized at \( B_0 = 1 \) and write it as

\[
B_t = \exp\left(\int_0^t r_s ds\right),
\]

for an adapted process \( r_s > 0 \), the short rate process.

A sufficient condition for an arbitrage free bond price structure in the potential approach is to require that the local martingale \( \Lambda_t \) be in fact a martingale, since it can then be used as the density for an equivalent martingale measure. It is an interesting open question in the theory to isolate what conditions on the potential \( V_t \) would suffice for that.

The formulation up to this point is quite general, in the sense that it does not make use of any particular structure of the underlying filtration (other than the usual conditions). Let us now assume that \( \mathcal{F}_t \) is actually generated by an \( N \)-dimensional Brownian motion \( W_t \). The market price of risk then arises as the adapted vector valued process \( \lambda_t \) such that

\[
d\Lambda_t = -\lambda_t \Lambda_t dW_t.
\]

It is also immediate to see that the state price density process is the solution to

\[
dV_t = -r_t V_t dt - \lambda_t V_t dW_t,
\]

so that the specification of the process \( V_t \) is enough to produce both the short rate \( r_t \) and the market price of risk \( \lambda_t \).

It had already been remarked by Flesaker and Hughston \[3\] that in the Brownian filtration with finite time horizon any positive interest rate model in their formulation corresponds to a model in the HJM family with positive instantaneous forward rates \( f_{TT} \). The converse result that any interest rate model in HJM form with positive instantaneous forward rates can be written in the Flesaker–Hughston form was also obtained by Jin and Glasserman \[7, theorem 5\]. In order to prove this result they found a rather technical necessary and sufficient condition for positivity in terms of the volatility structure of the HJM form, confirming that the HJM formulation is not the most natural one to investigate positive interest rates.

2.3 The Chaotic Approach

We have seen in the potential approach that the fundamental ingredient to model the random behaviour of the interest rates is the increasing process \( A_t \).
in the decomposition $V_t = E_t[A_{\infty}] - A_t$, whereas in the Flesaker–Hughston construction the corresponding role is played by the martingales $M_{ts}$.

In [5], Hughston and Rafailidis introduced an elegant construction of general positive interest rate models based on a Brownian filtration using simpler fundamentals. Assuming that the state price density $V_t$ is a potential satisfying
\[
E \left[ \int_0^\infty r_s V_s ds \right] < \infty, \tag{12}
\]
then integrating (11) on the interval $(t, T)$, taking conditional expectations at time $t$ and the limit $T \to \infty$, one finds that
\[
V_t = E_t \left[ \int_t^\infty r_s V_s ds \right]. \tag{13}
\]

Now let $\sigma_t$ be a vector valued process such that
\[
\sigma_t \cdot \sigma_t = r_t V_t, \tag{14}
\]
and define the square integrable random variable
\[
X_\infty = \int_0^\infty \sigma_s dW_s. \tag{15}
\]
It then follows from the Itô isometry that
\[
V_t = E_t[X_\infty^2] - E_t[X_\infty]^2, \tag{16}
\]
which is called the conditional variance representation of the state price density $V_t$. To obtain the connection between this representation and the Flesaker–Hughston framework, observe that a direct comparison between (13) and (8) gives that
\[
h_s M_{ts} = E_t[\sigma_s \cdot \sigma_s]. \tag{17}
\]
Similarly, by comparing the conditional variance representation (16) with the decomposition (3), we see that
\[
E_t[X_\infty^2] - X_t^2 = E_t[A_{\infty}] - A_t,
\]
where $X_t = E_t[X_\infty]$. It follows from the uniqueness of the Doob-Meyer decomposition that
\[
A_t = [X, X]_t.
\]
that is, the quadratic variation of the process $X_t$.

Conversely, given a zero-mean random variable $X_\infty \in L^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, P)$, the representation (16) defines a potential $V_t$, which can then be used as a state price density to obtain a system of bond prices. The issue of absence of arbitrage can then be addressed in terms of necessary and sufficient conditions on $X_\infty$, and is by and large an open question at this point. The construction in [5] flows in the opposite direction, in the sense that the authors first enumerate a series of axioms to be satisfied by an arbitrage-free interest rate model and then obtain a square integrable random variable $X_\infty$ corresponding to it.

2.4 Wiener chaos

As Hughston and Rafailidis also observed, the $L^2$ condition on $X_\infty$ is necessary and sufficient for $X_\infty$ to have the type of orthogonal decomposition known as a Wiener chaos expansion [9]. They interpret the different orders of this decomposition as basic building blocks for models of increasing complexity.

Let $W_t$ be an $N$-dimensional Brownian motion on the filtered probability space $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \{\mathcal{F}_t\}_{t \in \mathbb{R}_+}, P)$. We introduce a compact notation

$$\tau = (s, \mu) \in \Delta = \mathbb{R}_+ \times \{1, \ldots, N\}$$

and express integrals as

$$\int_\Delta f(\tau)d\tau \doteq \sum_\mu \int_0^\infty f(s, \mu)ds$$

$$\int_\Delta f(\tau)dW_\tau \doteq \sum_\mu \int_0^\infty f(s, \mu)dW_s^\mu$$

(18)

For each $n \geq 0$, let

$$H_n(x) = (-1)^n e^{x^2/2} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} e^{-x^2/2}$$

(19)

be the $n$th Hermite polynomial. For $h \in L^2(\Delta)$, let $\|h\|^2 = \int_\Delta h(\tau)^2d\tau$ and let $W(h)$ be the Gaussian random variable $\int_\Delta h(\tau)dW_\tau$. The spaces

$$\mathcal{H}_n \doteq \text{span}\{H_n(W(h))|h \in L^2(\Delta)\}, \quad n \geq 1,$$

$$\mathcal{H}_0 \doteq \mathbb{C}$$
form an orthogonal decomposition of the space $L^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}_\infty, P)$ of square integrable random variables:

$$L^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}_\infty, P) = \bigoplus_{n=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{H}_n$$

Each $\mathcal{H}_n$ can be understood completely via the isometries

$$J_n : L^2(\Delta_n) \rightarrow \mathcal{H}_n$$
given by

$$f_n \mapsto J_n(f_n) = \int_{\Delta_n} f_n(\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n) dW_{\tau_1} \cdots dW_{\tau_n}$$

(20)

where $\Delta_n = \{(\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n) | \tau_i = (s_i, \mu_i) \in \Delta, 0 \leq s_1 \leq s_2 \leq \cdots \leq s_n < \infty\}$.

With these ingredients, one is then led to the result that any $X \in L^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}_\infty, P)$ can be represented as a Wiener chaos expansion

$$X = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} J_n(f_n)$$

(21)

where the deterministic functions $f_n \in L^2(\Delta_n)$ are uniquely determined by the random variable $X$.

A special example arises by noting that for $h \in L^2(\Delta)$

$$n!J_n(h^\otimes n) = \|h\|^n H_n \left( \frac{W(h)}{\|h\|} \right)$$

(22)

and furthermore

$$\exp \left[ W(h) - \frac{1}{2} \int h(\tau)^2 d\tau \right] = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\|h\|^n}{n!} H_n \left( \frac{W(h)}{\|h\|} \right)$$

(23)

In the notation of quantum field theory (see Appendix A), this example defines the Wick ordered exponential and Wick powers

$$: \exp[W(h)] : = \exp \left[ W(h) - \frac{1}{2} \int h(\tau)^2 d\tau \right]$$

$$: W(h)^n : = n!J_n(h^\otimes n)$$

(24)

Generating functionals provide one systematic approach to developing explicit formulas for the terms of the chaos expansion in specific examples.
Theorem 2.1 For any random variable \( X \in L^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}_\infty, P) \), the generating functional \( Z_X(h) : L^2(\Delta) \to \mathbb{C} \) defined by

\[
Z_X(h) \doteq E \left[ X \exp \left\{ W(h) - \frac{1}{2} \int h(\tau)^2 d\tau \right\} \right]
\]  
(25)

is an entire analytic functional of \( h \in L^2(\Delta) \) and hence has an absolutely convergent expansion

\[
Z_X(h) = \sum_{n \geq 0} F_X^{(n)}(h)
\]  
(26)

where

\[
F_X^{(n)}(h) = \int_{\Delta_n} f_X^{(n)}(\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n) h(\tau_1) \ldots h(\tau_n) d\tau_1 \ldots d\tau_n.
\]  
(27)

The \( n \)-th Fréchet derivative of \( Z_X \) at \( h = 0 \), \( f_X^{(n)}(\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n) \), lies in \( L^2(\Delta) \).

Finally, the Wiener–Itô chaos expansion of \( X \) is

\[
X = \sum_{n \geq 0} \int_{\Delta_n} f_X^{(n)}(\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n) dW_{\tau_1} \ldots dW_{\tau_n}
\]  
(28)

Proof: See appendix B.

\[\square\]

3 Squared Gaussian models

A number of authors \cite{8, 6, 11} have observed that the CIR model \cite{2} with an integer constraint \( N = \frac{4ab}{c^2} \in \mathbb{N}_+ \setminus \{0, 1\} \) lies in the class of so–called squared Gaussian models. By introducing an \( \mathbb{R}^N \)-valued Ornstein–Uhlenbeck process \( R_t \), governed by the stochastic differential equation

\[
dR_t = -a R_t \, dt + c dW_t
\]  
(29)

where \( W_t \) is \( N \)-dimensional Brownian motion, the Itô formula together with Lévy’s criterion for Brownian motion shows that the square \( r_t = R_t^\dagger R_t \) satisfies \( \dagger \) where \( W_t = \int_0^t (R_s^\dagger R_s)^{-1/2} R_s \, dW_s \) is itself a one–dimensional Brownian motion. Note that here, and for the remainder of the paper, we suppress vector indices by adopting a matrix multiplication convention, including \( \dagger \) for transpose, in which for example \( R_t^\dagger \gamma(t) dW_t \) denotes \( \sum_{\mu=1}^N R_t^\dagger \gamma^\mu(t) dW_t^\mu \).
We focus on a general family of interest models which includes this example, the so-called extended CIR model and more. Note that we work always in the physical measure and thus to specify the term structure model one needs to determine the market price of risk vector $\lambda_t$ as well as the spot rate process $r_t$.

**Definition 3.1** A pair $(r_t, \lambda_t)$ of $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{F}_t, P)$ processes is called an $N$-dimensional squared Gaussian model of interest rates ($N \geq 2$) if there is an $\mathbb{R}^N$-valued Ornstein–Uhlenbeck process such that $r_t = R_t^\dagger R_t$ and $\lambda_t = \bar{\lambda}R_t$. $R_t$ satisfies

$$dR_t = \alpha(t)(R(t) - R_t)dt + \gamma(t)dB_t, \quad R_{t=0} = R_0$$  \hspace{1cm} (30)

where $\alpha, \gamma, \bar{\lambda}$ are symmetric matrix valued and $\bar{\lambda}$ vector valued deterministic measurable functions on $\mathbb{R}_+$. $W$ is standard $N$-dimensional Brownian motion. In addition we impose boundedness conditions:

- there is some constant $M > 0$ such that $\alpha(t) \geq M$ and $|\bar{\lambda}(t)|^{-2} \geq M$ for all $t$

The exact solution of (30) is easily seen to be

$$R_t = \bar{R}(t) + \int_{t_1}^{t} K(t, t_1)\gamma dB_{t_1}$$ \hspace{1cm} (31)

where

$$\bar{R}(t) = K(t, 0)R_0 + \int_{t_1}^{t} K(t, t_1)\alpha(t_1)\bar{\lambda}R(t_1)dt_1$$ \hspace{1cm} (32)

and $K(t, s), t \geq s$ is the matrix valued solution of

$$\begin{cases} dK(t, s)/dt = -\alpha(t)K(t, s) & 0 \leq s \leq t \\ K(t, t) = I & 0 \leq t \end{cases}$$ \hspace{1cm} (33)

which generates the Ornstein–Uhlenbeck semigroup.

By (11), the state price density process is

$$V_t = \exp\left[-\int_0^t \left(R_s^\dagger \left(1 + \frac{\bar{\lambda}^2}{2}\right) R_s ds + R_s^\dagger \bar{\lambda} dW_s\right)\right]$$ \hspace{1cm} (34)

We thus have a natural candidate for the random variable $X_\infty$:

$$X_\infty = \int_0^\infty \sigma_t^\dagger dW_t$$ \hspace{1cm} (35)
where the $\mathbb{R}^N$-valued process
\[
\sigma_t = \exp \left[ - \int_0^t \left( R^1_s \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\bar{\lambda}^2}{4} \right) R_s ds + \frac{1}{2} R^1_s \bar{\lambda} dW_s \right) \right] R_t
\]
is the natural solution of $\sigma_t^\dagger \sigma_t = r_t V_t$.

Before proceeding to analyse $X_\infty$ in detail we show that $X_\infty$ is square integrable.

**Proposition 3.2** $\lim_{T \to \infty} E[X_T^2] = 1$

**Proof:** By the Itô isometry and Fubini’s theorem for the Itô integral,
\[
E[X_T^2] = E \left[ \int_0^T \sigma_t^\dagger \sigma_t dt \right]
\]
From $\sigma_t^\dagger \sigma_t dt = r_t V_t dt = -dV_t - V_t \bar{\lambda}^\dagger dW_t$ it follows that $E[X_T^2] = E[1 - V_T]$. We observe that this is true for any pair $X_t, V_t$ defined using the formal relations (11), (14), (15) of the chaotic approach. All we need to prove now is that the supermartingale $V_t$ is indeed a potential when $(r_t, \lambda_t)$ is a squared Gaussian model.

For any $0 < \epsilon < 2M$, $V_T = e^{-Y_1 - Y_2}$ where $Y_1 = \int_0^T R^1_t (1 - \frac{\epsilon^2}{2}) R_t dt$ is positive and
\[
Y_2 = \frac{1}{1 + \epsilon} \int_0^T \left[ \frac{1}{2} R^1_t (1 + \epsilon)^2 \bar{\lambda}^2 R_t dt + (1 + \epsilon) R^1_t \bar{\lambda}^\dagger dW_t \right]
\]
By the Hölder inequality
\[
E[V_T] \leq \left( E[e^{(1+1/\epsilon)Y_1}] \right)^{\epsilon/(1+\epsilon)} \left( E[e^{-(1+\epsilon)Y_2}] \right)^{1/(1+\epsilon)}
\]
with the second factor equal to 1, since $e^{-(1+\epsilon)Y_2}$ is an exponential martingale. Now $Y_1$ is a positive random variable for which a direct computation shows
\[
\text{mean}(Y_1) = C_1 NT (1 + \mathcal{O}(T)) \quad \text{var}(Y_1) = C_2 NT (1 + \mathcal{O}(T))
\]
for positive constants $C_1, C_2$. An easy application of Chebyshev’s inequality
\[
\text{Prob} \left( Y_1 \leq \frac{C_1 NT}{2} \right) \leq \mathcal{O} \left( \frac{1}{NT} \right)
\]
then implies that $\lim_{T \to \infty} E[V_T] = 0$. 
\[\Box\]
4 Exponentiated second chaos

The chaos expansion we seek for the CIR model will be derived from a closed formula for expectations of $e^{-Y}$ for elements

$$Y = A + \int_{\Delta} B(\tau_1) dW_{\tau_1} + \int_{\Delta^2} C(\tau_1, \tau_2) dW_{\tau_1} dW_{\tau_2}$$

(41)

in a certain subset $C^+ \subset H_{\leq 2} = H_0 \oplus H_1 \oplus H_2$. In the integrals above, recall that compact notation using \( \tau \)'s carries a summation over vector indices as well as integration over time. The formula we present is well known in the theory of Gaussian functional integration \cite[Chapter 9]{[4]}. In probability theory, this result gives the Laplace transform of a general class of quadratic functionals of Brownian motion. Many special cases of this result have been studied in probability theory, see for example \cite[Chapter 2]{[13]} and the references contained therein.

If in (41) we define $C(\tau_1, \tau_2) = C(\tau_2, \tau_1)$ when $\tau_1 > \tau_2$, then $C$ is the kernel of a symmetric integral operator on $L^2(\Delta)$:

$$[Cf](\tau) = \int_0^\infty C(\tau, \tau_1) f(\tau_1) d\tau_1$$

(42)

Recall that Hilbert-Schmidt operators on $L^2(\Delta)$ are finite norm operators under the norm:

$$\|C\|^2_{HS} = \int_{\Delta^2} C(\tau_1, \tau_2)^2 d\tau_1 d\tau_2$$

We say that $Y \in H_{\leq 2}$ is in $C^+$ if $C$ is the kernel of a symmetric Hilbert-Schmidt operator on $L^2(\Delta)$ such that $(1 + C)$ has positive spectrum.

**Proposition 4.1** Let $Y \in C^+$. Then

$$E[e^{-Y}] = \left[\det_2(1 + C)\right]^{-1/2} \exp \left[ -A + \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Delta^2} B(\tau_1)(1 + C)^{-1}(\tau_1, \tau_2)B(\tau_2)d\tau_1 d\tau_2 \right]$$

(43)

**Remark 4.2** The Carleman–Fredholm determinant is defined as the extension of the formula

$$\det_2(1 + C) = \det(1 + C) \exp[-\text{Tr}(C)]$$

(44)

from finite rank operators to bounded Hilbert–Schmidt operators; the operator kernel $(1 + C)^{-1}(\tau_1, \tau_2)$ is also the natural extension from the finite rank case.
Proof: See Appendix C.

Using this proposition, it is possible to deduce the chaos expansion of the random variables $e^{-Y}, Y \in C^+$, a result known in quantum field theory as Wick’s Theorem:

**Corollary 4.3** If $Y = \int_{\Delta_2} C(\tau_1, \tau_2)dW_{\tau_1}dW_{\tau_2} \in C^+$, then the random variable $X = e^{-Y}$ has Wiener chaos coefficient functions

$$f_n(\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n) = \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} K \sum_{G \in G_n} \prod_{g \in G} [C(1 + C)^{-1}](\tau_{g_1}, \tau_{g_2}) & \text{if } n \text{ even} \\
0 & \text{if } n \text{ odd} \end{array} \right.$$

where $K = [\det_2(1 + C)]^{-1/2}$ and for $n$ even, $G_n$ is the set of Feynman graphs on the $n$ marked points $\{\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n\}$. Each Feynman graph $G$ is a disjoint union of unordered pairs $g = (\tau_{g_1}, \tau_{g_2})$ with $\cup_{g \in G} g = \{\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n\}$.

**Proof:** The generating functional for $X = e^{-Y}$ is

$$Z_X(h) = E \left[ X \exp \left( \int h(\tau)dW_{\tau} - \frac{1}{2} \int h(\tau)^2 d\tau \right) \right]$$

$$= E \left[ \exp \left( \int h(\tau)dW_{\tau} - \frac{1}{2} \int h(\tau)^2 d\tau - \int_{\Delta_2} C(\tau_1, \tau_2)dW_{\tau_1}dW_{\tau_2} \right) \right]$$

so we can use Proposition 4.1 with $A = \frac{1}{2} \int h(\tau)^2 d\tau$ and $B(\tau) = -h(\tau)$, which yields

$$Z_X(h) = \det_2(1 + C)^{-1/2} \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \int_{\Delta^2} h^\dagger(\tau_1)[\delta(\tau_1, \tau_2) - (1 + C)^{-1}(\tau_1, \tau_2)]h(\tau_2)d\tau_1 d\tau_2 \right]. (45)$$

Using the last part of Theorem 2.1, the result comes by evaluating the $n$th Fréchet derivative at $h = 0$, or equivalently by expanding the exponential and symmetrizing over the points $\tau_1, \ldots, \tau_n$ in the $n/2$th term.

□
5 The chaotic expansion for squared Gaussian models

We now derive the chaos expansion for the squared Gaussian model defined by (30). In view of (35) it will be enough to find the chaos expansion for \( \sigma^\mu_T \), \( T < \infty \). We start by finding its generating functional \( Z_{\sigma^\mu_T} \). For \( h, k \in L^2(\Delta) \), define the auxiliary functional

\[
Z(h, k) = E \left[ e^{-Y_T} \right]
\]

with

\[
Y_T = \int_0^T R_t^\dagger \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\bar{\lambda}^2}{4} \right) R_t dt + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \bar{R}_t \bar{R}_t dt - \int_0^T h^\dagger(t) dW_t
\]

\[
+ \frac{1}{2} \int_0^T h^\dagger(t) h(t) dt - \int_0^T k^\dagger(t) R_t dt.
\]

(46)

**Proposition 5.1** \( Z(h, k) \) is an entire analytic functional on \( L^2(\Delta) \times L^2(\Delta) \). Moreover

\[
\lim_{t \to T^-} \frac{\delta Z(h, k)}{\delta k^\mu(t)} \bigg|_{k=0} = Z_{\sigma^\mu_T}(h)
\]

where \( Z_{\sigma^\mu_T}(h) \) is defined by (25) with \( X = \sigma^\mu_T, \mu = 1, \ldots, N \).

**Proof:** Analyticity in \((h, k)\) follows by repeating the argument given in Appendix B. By the definition of Fréchet differentiation and continuity of the \( t \to T^- \) limit, (47) follows.

\[\square\]

We want to use Proposition 4.1 in order to compute \( Z(h, k) \). Substitution of (31), into the first term of (46) leads to

\[
\int_0^T R_t^\dagger \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\bar{\lambda}^2}{4} \right) R_t dt = \int_0^T R_t^\dagger(t) \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\bar{\lambda}^2}{4} \right) R(t) dt
\]

\[
+ \int_0^T \left[ \int_0^T \bar{R}_s^\dagger(s) \left( 1 + \frac{\bar{\lambda}^2}{2} \right) K_T(s, t) ds \right] \gamma(t) dW_t
\]

\[
+ \int_{\Delta_2} \gamma(t_1) \left[ \int_0^T K_T(t_1, s) \left( 1 + \frac{\bar{\lambda}^2}{2} \right) K_T(s, t_2) ds \right] \gamma(t_2) dW_{t_1} dW_{t_2}
\]

\[
+ \int_0^T \text{tr} \left\{ \gamma(t) \left[ \int_0^T K_T^\dagger(t, s) \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\bar{\lambda}^2}{4} \right) K_T(s, t) ds \right] \gamma(t) \right\} dt,
\]

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where we define \( K_T(t_1, t_2) = \mathbb{1}(t_1 \leq T)K(t_1, t_2) \). For the second and the last terms of (46) we have

\[
\frac{1}{2} \int_0^T R_1^1 \hat{\lambda} dW_t = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \tilde{R}(t) \hat{\lambda} dW_t + \frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \text{tr} \left[ \int_0^T \gamma(s) K_T^\dagger(s, t) \hat{\lambda} ds \right] dt \\
+ \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Delta_2} \left( \gamma(t_1) K_T^\dagger(t_1, t_2) \hat{\lambda} + \hat{\lambda} K_T(t_1, t_2) \gamma(t_2) \right) dW_{t_1} dW_{t_2},
\]

\[
\int_0^T k^\dagger(t) R_t dt = \int_0^T k^\dagger(t) \tilde{R}(t) dt + \int_0^T \left( \int_0^T k^\dagger(s) K_T(s, t) ds \right) \gamma(t) dW_t.
\]

Thus the exponent \( Y_T \) appearing in (46) has the form of (41) with

\[
A_T = \int_0^T \left[ \tilde{R}(t) \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\hat{\lambda}^2}{4} \right) \tilde{R}(t) + \frac{1}{2} h^\dagger(t) h(t) - k^\dagger(t) \tilde{R}(t) \right] dt \\
+ \int_0^T \text{tr} \left\{ \gamma(t) \left[ \int_0^T K_T^\dagger(t, s) \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\hat{\lambda}^2}{4} \right) K_T(s, t) ds \right] \gamma(t) \right\} dt \\
\frac{1}{2} \int_0^T \text{tr} \left[ \int_0^T \gamma(s) K_T^\dagger(s, t) \hat{\lambda} ds \right] dt,
\]

\[
B_T(t) = -h(t) - \gamma(t) \int_0^T K_T^\dagger(t, s) k(s) ds + \frac{1}{2} \hat{\lambda} \tilde{R}(t) \\
+ \gamma(t) \int_0^T K_T^\dagger(t, s) \left( 1 + \frac{\hat{\lambda}^2}{2} \right) \tilde{R}(s) ds
\]

\[
C_T(t_1, t_2) = \gamma(t_1) \left[ \int_0^T K_T^\dagger(t_1, s) \left( 1 + \frac{\hat{\lambda}^2}{2} \right) K_T(s, t_2) ds \right] \gamma(t_2) \\
+ \frac{1}{2} \left[ \gamma(t_1) K_T^\dagger(t_1, t_2) \hat{\lambda} + \hat{\lambda} K_T(t_1, t_2) \gamma(t_2) \right]
\]

It is clear that the operator \( C_T \) has Hilbert-Schmidt norm \( \|C_T\|_{HS}^2 = \mathcal{O}(T) \). Moreover, if we denote by \( \gamma K_T^\dagger \left( 1 + \frac{\hat{\lambda}^2}{2} \right) K_T \gamma, \gamma K_T^\dagger \hat{\lambda} \) and \( \hat{\lambda} K_T \gamma \) the operators whose kernels appear in the expression above, then \( C_T \) can be written as

\[
C_T = \gamma K_T^\dagger K_T \gamma + \frac{1}{2} (\gamma K_T^\dagger \hat{\lambda} + 1)(\hat{\lambda} K_T \gamma + 1) - \frac{1}{2}
\]

from which we see that \((1 + C_T)\) is positive. Therefore, we can use Proposition 4.1 for \( E[e^{-Y_T}] \), leading to a general formula for the generating functional \( Z(h, k) \):
\[ Z(h, k) = \det_2(1 + C_T)^{-1/2} \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2} \text{tr} C_T \right) \]
\[ \times \exp \left\{ - \int_0^T \left[ \tilde{R}^\dagger(t) \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\lambda^2}{4} \right) \tilde{R}(t) + \frac{1}{2} h^\dagger(t)h(t) - k^\dagger(t)\tilde{R}(t) \right] dt \right\} \]
\[ \times \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Delta_2} \left[ h^\dagger(t_1) + \int_0^T k^\dagger(s)K_T(s, t_1)\gamma(t_1)ds - \frac{1}{2} \tilde{R}^\dagger(t_1)\tilde{\lambda} \right. \right. \]
\[ \left. - \int_0^T \tilde{R}^\dagger(s) \left( 1 + \frac{\lambda^2}{2} \right) K_T(s, t_1)\gamma(t_1)ds \right\} (1 + C_T)^{-1}(t_1, t_2) \]
\[ \times \left[ h(t_2) + \gamma(t_2) \int_0^T K_T^\dagger(t_2, s)k_\alpha ds - \frac{1}{2} \tilde{\lambda} \tilde{R}(t_2) \right. \]
\[ - \gamma(t_2) \int_0^T K_T^\dagger(t_2, s) \left( 1 + \frac{\lambda^2}{2} \right) \tilde{R}(s)ds \right\} dt_1dt_2 \]  
(49)

Differentiation once with respect to \( k \) then yields

\[ Z_{\sigma_T}(h) = M_T \exp \left\{ - \int_0^T \left[ \tilde{R}^\dagger(t) \left( \frac{1}{2} + \frac{\lambda^2}{4} \right) \tilde{R}(t) + \frac{1}{2} h^\dagger(t)h(t) \right] dt \right\} \]
\[ \times \left\{ -\tilde{R} + K_T\gamma(1 + C_T)^{-1} \left[ h - \frac{\lambda\tilde{R}}{2} - \gamma K_T^\dagger \left( 1 + \frac{\lambda^2}{2} \right) \tilde{R} \right] \right\} (T) \]
\[ \times \exp \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Delta_2} \left[ h^\dagger - \frac{\tilde{R}^\dagger\tilde{\lambda}}{2} - \tilde{R}^\dagger \left( 1 + \frac{\lambda^2}{2} \right) K_T\gamma \right] (t_1)(1 + C_T)^{-1}(t_1, t_2) \right. \]
\[ \left. \times \left[ h - \frac{\lambda\tilde{R}}{2} - \gamma K_T^\dagger \left( 1 + \frac{\lambda^2}{2} \right) \tilde{R} \right] (t_2)dt_1dt_2 \right\} \]  
(50)

where

\[ M_T = e^{-\frac{1}{2} \text{tr} C_T (\det_2(1 + C_T))^{-1/2}} = (\det(1 + C_T))^{-1/2}. \]  
(51)

By comparing (49) and (50), the reader can observe our use of an operator notation which suppresses some time integrals, for example in the very last term

\[ \left[ \gamma K_T^\dagger \left( 1 + \frac{\lambda^2}{2} \right) \tilde{R} \right] (t) \doteq \gamma(t) \int_0^T K_T^\dagger(t, s) \left( 1 + \frac{\lambda^2}{2} \right) \tilde{R}(s)ds, \]

and similarly for other terms.
These formulas simplify considerably if the function $\tilde{R}$ vanishes, which is true in the simple CIR model of (29) when $r_0 = 0$. In this case we have $\alpha(t) = a/2$ and $\gamma(t) = c/2$ (here certain scalars are to be understood as multiples of the identity matrix), so that $K_T(s, t) = e^{-a(s-t)/2}1(t \leq s \leq T)$ and

$$C_T(t_1, t_2) = \frac{c^2}{4a} \left( 1 + \frac{\lambda^2}{2} \right) \left[ e^{-\frac{a}{2}|t_1 - t_2|} - e^{\frac{a}{2}(t_1 + t_2 - 2T)} \right] + \frac{c}{2} \dot{\lambda} e^{-\frac{a}{2}|t_1 - t_2|} \tag{52}$$

Moreover, the previous expression for $Z_{\sigma_T}(h)$ reduces to

$$Z_{\sigma_T}(h) = M_T \left[ K_T \gamma (1 + C_T)^{-1} h \right](T) \exp \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \int_0^T h^\dagger(t) h(t) dt + \frac{1}{2} \int_{\Delta_2} h^\dagger(t_1)(1 + C_T)^{-1}(t_1, t_2) h(t_2) dt_1 dt_2 \right].$$

We can then easily evaluate the $n$th Fréchet derivative of $Z_{\sigma_T}$ at $h = 0$ as in the proof of Corollary 4.3 and determine the following partly explicit form for the $n$th term of the chaos expansion.

**Theorem 5.2** The $n$th term of the chaos expansion of $\sigma_T$ for the CIR model with initial condition $r_0 = 0$ is zero for $n$ even. For $n$ odd, the kernel of the expansion is the function $f_T^{(n)}(\cdot): \Delta_n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$f_T(t_1, \ldots, t_n) = M_T \sum_{G \in \mathcal{G}_n^*} \prod_{g \in G} L(g) \tag{53}$$

where

$$L(g) = \begin{cases} 
[C_T(1 + C_T)^{-1}(t_{g_1}, t_{g_2}) & T \notin g \\
(K_T \gamma (1 + C_T)^{-1})(T, t_{g_2}) & T \in g 
\end{cases} \tag{54}$$

Here, $\mathcal{G}_n^*$ is the set of Feynman graphs, each Feynman graph $G$ being a partition of $\{t_1, \ldots, t_n, T\}$ into pairs $g = (t_{g_1}, t_{g_2})$.

The chaos expansion for $X_{\infty}$ itself is exactly the same, except that the variable $T$ is treated as an additional Itô integration variable. The explicit
expansion up to fourth order is:

\[ X_\infty = \int_{\Delta^2} M_T[K_T\gamma(1 + C_T)^{-1}](T, t_1) dW_{t_1} dW_T + \int_{\Delta^4} M_T[K_T\gamma(1 + C_T)^{-1}](T, t_3)[C_T(1 + C_T)^{-1}](t_1, t_2) dW_{t_1} dW_{t_2} dW_{t_3} dW_T + \int_{\Delta^4} M_T[K_T\gamma(1 + C_T)^{-1}](T, t_3)[C_T(1 + C_T)^{-1}](t_1, t_2) dW_{t_1} dW_{t_2} dW_{t_3} dW_T + \int_{\Delta^4} M_T[K_T\gamma(1 + C_T)^{-1}](T, t_1)[C_T(1 + C_T)^{-1}](t_2, t_3) dW_{t_1} dW_{t_2} dW_{t_3} dW_T \]

\[ \cdots \]

(55)

6 Bond pricing formula

In this section we give a derivation of the price of a zero coupon bond in the CIR model. Recall from section 2 that these are given by

\[ P_{tT} = E_t[V_t^{-1}V_T]. \]

(56)

To keep things “as simple as possible, but not any simpler”, we take \( \bar{\lambda} = 0 \) so \( V_t = \exp[-\int_0^T r_s ds] \), or in terms of the squared Gaussian formulation,

\[ V_t = \exp \left[- \int_0^t R_t^\mu R_s^\mu ds \right]. \]

(57)

As we have seen in the previous section, for \( t \leq s \leq T \)

\[ R_s^\mu = K_T(s, t) R_t^\mu + \frac{c}{2} \int_t^s K_T(s, s_1) dW_{s_1}^\mu, \]

(58)

hence \( -\log[V_t^{-1}V_T] = \sum_\mu \int_t^T (R_s^\mu)^2 ds \) can be written as

\[ \sum_\mu \left[ \frac{4}{c^2} (R_t^\mu)^2 C_T(t, t) + \frac{4R_t^\mu}{c} \int_t^T C_T(t, s) dW_s^\mu + 2 \int_t^T \int_t^{s_2} C_T(s_1, s_2) dW_{s_1}^\mu dW_{s_2}^\mu \right] + N \int_t^T C_T(s, s) ds \]

(59)

where \( C_T(s_1, s_2) \) is given by (52) with \( \bar{\lambda} = 0 \).
Taking the conditional expectation of $V_t^{-1}V_T$ by use of Proposition 4.1 leads to the desired formula

$$P_{tT} = \left[\det(1 + 2C_T)^{-N/2}\right] \prod_{\mu} \exp\left[-\frac{4}{c^2}(R_{1t}^\mu)^2 (C_T(1 + 2C_T)^{-1})(t, t)\right]$$

(60)

Thus $P_{tT}$ has the exponential affine form $\exp[-\beta(t, T)r_t - \alpha(t, T)]$ with

$$\beta(t, T) = \frac{4}{c^2}[C_T(1 + 2C_T)^{-1}](t, t)$$

$$\alpha(t, T) = \frac{N}{2} \log[\det(1 + 2C_T)]$$

(61)

The known formula has the same form, with

$$\beta(t, T) = \frac{2(e^{\rho(T-t)} - 1)}{(\rho + a)(e^{\rho(T-t)} - 1) + 2\rho}, \quad \rho^2 = a^2 + 2c^2$$

$$\alpha(t, T) = -\frac{2ab}{\rho^2} \log\left[\frac{2\rho e^{(a+\rho)(T-t)/2}}{(\rho + a)(e^{\rho(T-t)} - 1) + 2\rho}\right]$$

(62)

which can be derived as solutions of the pair of Ricatti ordinary differential equations

$$\frac{\partial \beta}{\partial t} = \frac{c^2 \beta^2}{2} + a\beta - 1$$

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial t} = -a\beta$$

(63)

One can demonstrate using power series expansions that (62) do in fact solve the Ricatti equations and hence agree with the usual formula. This example points to the rather subtle general relationship between kernels such as $(1 + 2C_T)^{-1}$ and solutions of Ricatti equations deserving of further study.

7 Discussion

We have shown how the CIR model, at least in integer dimensions, can be viewed within the chaos framework of Hughston and Rafailidis as arising from a somewhat special random variable $X_{\infty}$. This random variable can
be understood as derived from exponentiated second chaos random variables $e^{-Y}, Y \in \mathcal{C}^+$. Such exponentiated $\mathcal{C}^+$ variables form a rich and natural family which is likely to include many more candidates for applicable interest rate models. Although their analytic properties are complicated, there do exist approximation schemes which can in principle be the basis for numerical methods.

On the theoretical side, this family is distinguished by its natural invariance properties. Most notably, as will be investigated elsewhere, it is invariant under conditional $\mathcal{F}_t$-expectations: $\log E_t[e^{-Y}] \in \mathcal{C}^+$ whenever $Y \in \mathcal{C}^+$. Note in particular that this implies that these can be used as the Radon–Nikodym derivatives of measure changes which generalize the Girsanov transform, and which can greatly enrich the tools applicable in finance.

This application of the chaos expansion to squared Gaussian models also illustrates a deep connection between methods developed for quantum field theory and the methods of Malliavin calculus. Many of the very rich analytic properties of this example reflect well known techniques widely used in mathematical physics.

To conclude, even if the representation of the CIR model and its generalizations we present is not simple, it does show the way to the use of a powerful set of analytical techniques which might prove to be very useful in financial modelling.

\section*{A White noise calculus}

Here we describe the white noise calculus, which can be regarded as a reformulation of the calculus of Wiener measure into concepts familiar to practitioners in quantum field theory as Gaussian functional integration. We follow the discussion of Øksendal \cite{10}.

Let $\mathcal{S}$ be the Schwartz space of smooth functions on $\mathbb{R}_+$ of rapid decrease, and $\mathcal{S}'$ its topological dual, the space of tempered distributions on $\mathbb{R}_+$. If $\phi \in \mathcal{S}'$ and $f \in \mathcal{S}$, we write

$$\phi(f) \doteq \langle \phi, f \rangle$$

for their canonical pairing. We also use the formal notation

$$\phi(f) = \int_{\mathbb{R}_+} f(s)\phi_s ds$$
to represent the ‘smearing’ of the distribution $\phi$ over the test function $f$. It acquires a rigorous meaning, however, in the cases where $\phi$ is itself a function on $\mathbb{R}_+$ for which the pointwise product $\phi(s)f(s)$ is integrable for all $f \in S$.

Define now the functional

$$S\{f\} = e^{-\frac{1}{2} \|f\|^2} = e^{-\frac{1}{2} \langle f, f \rangle_{L^2}},$$

(65)

where $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_{L^2}$ denotes the real-valued inner product in $L^2(\mathbb{R}_+)$. Observe that this functional satisfies

1. (continuity) $f_n \to f$ in $S$ implies that $S\{f_n\} \to S\{f\}$;
2. (positive definiteness) $\sum_{i,j=1}^N c_i \overline{c_j} S\{f_i - f_j\} \geq 0$ for all $f_i \in S$ and all $c_i \in \mathbb{C}$;
3. (normalization) $S\{0\} = 1$.

It follows from the Bochner-Minlos theorem that there exists a unique Borel probability measure $\mu$ on $S'$ such that $S\{f\}$ corresponds to a moment generating functional, that is, for all $f \in S$

$$\int_{S'} e^{i \phi(f)} d\mu(\phi) = S\{f\} = e^{-\|f\|^2/2}. \quad (66)$$

The measure space $(S', \mathcal{B}, \mu)$, where $\mathcal{B}$ is the Borel $\sigma$-algebra of $S'$, is called the white noise probability measure.

In Euclidean quantum field theory, a given Borel measure $\mu$ on $S'$ characterizes the family of ‘fields’ $\phi \in S'$ through the properties of the random variables $\phi(f) : S' \to \mathbb{R}$ obtained for each $f \in S$. One tries to construct measures $\mu$ so that the generating functional $S\{f\}$ satisfy the so-called Osterwalder-Schrader axioms, in order to guarantee that the fields $\phi$ have certain required physical properties. The family of Euclidean free fields is obtained when

$$S_C\{f\} = e^{-\frac{\langle f, C f \rangle}{2}} = \int_{S'} e^{i \phi(f)} d\mu_C(\phi),$$

where $C$ is the integral kernel of a positive, continuous, nondegenerate Euclidean covariant bilinear form $C$ on $S \times S$. We see that the special case $S\{f\} = e^{-\|f\|^2/2}$ is obtained when $C(s, t) = \delta(t - s)$, called the “ultralocal” covariance. For each $\phi \in S'$, the random variables $\{\phi(f) : f \in S\} \subset L^2(S', \mathcal{B}, \mu)$ form a Gaussian family with mean zero and covariances

$$E_{\mu}[\phi(f)\phi(g)] = \int_{\mathbb{R}_+ \times \mathbb{R}_+} f(s)g(t)C(s, t)dsdt = \langle f, g \rangle. \quad (67)$$

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The theory of martingales makes its appearance in white noise calculus through the concept of Wick ordered random variables. To introduce them, recall that the Hermite polynomials are defined by

\[ H_n(x) = (-1)^n e^{x^2} \frac{d^n}{dx^n}(e^{-x^2}), \]

from which it is easy to see that they satisfy the recurrence relation

\[ \left( x - \frac{d}{dx} \right) H_{n-1}(x) = H_n(x), \quad n = 1, 2, \ldots \]

\[ H_0(x) = 1. \]

The first couple of Hermite polynomials are then

\[ H_0(x) = 1 \]
\[ H_1(x) = x \]
\[ H_2(x) = x^2 - 1 \]
\[ H_3(x) = x^3 - 3x, \ldots \]

We begin by defining the Wick ordered exponential for any \( f \in S \) to be

\[ :e^{\phi(f)} := e^{\phi(f)-\|f\|^2/2}. \] (68)

Then we have

**Proposition A.1** For any \( f \in S \),

\[ :e^{\phi(f)} := \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{\|f\|^n}{n!} H_n \left( \frac{\phi(f)}{\|f\|} \right), \] (69)

where \( H_n \) is the \( n \)th Hermite polynomial. Moreover, for any \( f, g \in S \),

\[ E_\mu \left[ H_n \left( \frac{\phi(f)}{\|f\|} \right) H_m \left( \frac{\phi(g)}{\|g\|} \right) \right] = \delta_{nm} \left( n! \right)^n \left( \frac{\langle f, g \rangle}{\|f\| \|g\|} \right)^n \] (70)

**Proof:** For any \( a, b \in \mathbb{R} \) we have the absolutely convergent expansions

\[ e^{a-b^2/2} = e^{-(b-a/b)^2/2+a^2/(2b^2)} \]
\[ = \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{b^n}{n!} (-1)^n e^{a^2/(2b^2)} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} \left( e^{-x^2/2} \right) \bigg|_{x=a/b} \]
\[ = \sum_{n \geq 0} \frac{b^n}{n!} H_n(a/b) \] (71)
where the last line makes use of the defining property of the Hermite polynomials. Using this with \( a = \phi(f) \), \( b = \|f\| \) gives (69). The orthogonality relation (70) follows by expanding the identity

\[
E_\mu[\colon e^{\phi(f)} \colon e^{\phi(g)} \colon] = e^{\langle f,g \rangle}
\]

in powers of \( f, g \) and comparing to the expansion derived from (69).

From this we define the **Wick ordered** monomials as the random variables

\[
\phi(f)^n := \|f\|^n H_n \left( \frac{\phi(f)}{\|f\|} \right),
\]

so that linearity and convergent power series imply that

\[
\colon e^{\phi(f)} := \sum_{n \geq 0} \phi(f)^n : \frac{1}{n!}.
\]

Formally, we express the Wick ordered monomials as

\[
\phi(f)^n := \int_{\mathbb{R}_+^n} f(s_1) \ldots f(s_n) : \phi_{s_1} \ldots \phi_{s_n} : ds_1 \ldots ds_n
\]

and from the orthogonalization (70) we can define the **Wick products**

\[
\phi(f_1) \dot{\ldots} \phi(f_n) := \int_{\mathbb{R}_+^n} f_1(s_1) \ldots f_n(s_n) : \phi_{s_1} \ldots \phi_{s_n} : ds_1 \ldots ds_n
\]

\( H_n \) is defined to be the span of \( \{ \colon \phi(f)^n : \|f\| \in S \} \) and consists of precisely the random variables \((n!)^{-1} \int_{\mathbb{R}_+^n} \tilde{f}(s_1, \ldots, s_n) : \phi_{s_1} \ldots \phi_{s_n} : ds_1 \ldots ds_n\)

where \( \tilde{f} \) lies in \( \tilde{T} \) the \( L^2 \) completion of the space of **symmetric** functions in \( S^{\otimes n} \). These subspaces form an orthogonal decomposition of \( L^2(S', B, \mu) \). In quantum field theory this is known as the Fock space decomposition of the Hilbert space of quantum states into \( n \) particle sectors for \( n \geq 0 \).

The relationship between Wiener measure and the white noise measure is to identify \( \phi(f) \doteq \int f(s)\phi_s ds \) with \( W(f) \doteq \int f(s)dW_s \) for all \( f \in S \subset L^2(\mathbb{R}_+) \). One is then lead to the formal relation \( \phi_s = dW_s/ds \), that is “white
noise” is the “derivative” of Brownian motion. This identification extends to all orders in the chaos expansion via:

$$(n!)^{-1} \int_{\mathbb{R}_+^n} \tilde{f}(s_1, \ldots, s_n) : \phi_{s_1} \ldots \phi_{s_n} : ds_1 \ldots ds_n = \int_{\Delta_n} f(s_1, \ldots, s_n) dW_{s_1} \ldots dW_{s_n}$$

(75)

where the bijection $\tilde{f} \leftrightarrow f$ between $\tilde{T}_n$ and $L^2(\Delta_n)$ is the restriction map and its inverse. Finally, this leads to the identification $L^2(S', \mathcal{B}, \mu) \equiv L^2(\Omega, \mathcal{F}_\infty, P)$.

One useful consequence of Wick products and the chaos expansion is that conditional expectations can be handled systematically.

Proposition A.2 Let $f \in L^2(\mathbb{R}_+)$ and $t \in [0, \infty)$. Then

$$E[ : e^{\phi(f)} : | \mathcal{F}_t] = : e^{\phi(f(t))} :$$

$$E[ : (\phi(f))^n : | \mathcal{F}_t] = : (\phi(f(t)))^n :$$

(76)

where $[f(t)](s) = 1(s \leq t)f(s)$. In other words, the processes $e^{\phi(f(t))} :$ and $(\phi(f(t)))^n :$ are martingales.

B Generating functional for chaos coefficients

We derive Theorem 2.1 in the notation of the white noise calculus. To begin, we recall the definition of analyticity for a function between complex Banach spaces.

Definition B.1 Let $f : B \rightarrow C$ where $B, C$ are complex Banach spaces. Then $f$ is analytic at a point $x \in B$ if

1. for any finite set $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\} \subset B$ of points the function $F : \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$

$$F(\zeta_1, \ldots, \zeta_n) = f(x + \sum_i \zeta_ix_i)$$

(77)

is analytic at $0 \in \mathbb{C}^n$;

2. $f$ is continuous at $x$.

Proof of Theorem 2.1 One can check directly that the map $h \mapsto e^{\phi(h)} :$ is entire analytic between $L^2_C(\mathbb{R}_+)$ and $L^2_C(S', \mathcal{B}, \mu)$. Similarly, $Z_X(h)$ is analytic for any $h \in L^2_C(\mathbb{R}_+)$. 

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Finally, to verify (28), it is enough to take the expectation of the equation multiplied by: \( \phi(g)^n \) for arbitrary \( g \in L^2(\Delta), n \geq 0 \):

\[
E[X : \phi(g)^n] = \left. \frac{d^n}{d\lambda^n} Z_X(\lambda g) \right|_{\lambda=0} = n! \int_{\Delta_n} f_X^{(n)}(s_1, \ldots, s_n) g(s_1) \ldots g(s_n) ds_1 \ldots ds_n
\]  
(78)

whereas by (70),

\[
E\left[ \sum_{m \geq 0} (m!)^{-1} \int_{\mathbb{R}^m_+} f_X^{(m)}(s_1, \ldots, s_m) : \phi(s_1) \ldots \phi(s_m) : ds_1 \ldots ds_m : \phi(g)^n : \right] = n! \int_{\mathbb{R}^n_+} g(s_1) \ldots g(s_n) f_X^{(n)}(s_1, \ldots, s_n) ds_1 \ldots ds_n
\]  
(79)

C The exponential quadratic formula

Here we prove the formula (43) in the context of one–dimensional white noise calculus. The proof extends easily to the multidimensional case.

Proof of Proposition 4.1

1. (Step 1) First we note that \( Y \in \mathcal{C}^+ \) can be approximated in the Hilbert space \( \mathcal{H}_{\leq 2} \) by random variables of the form

\[
Y = A + \sum_{i=1}^{M} [b_i \phi(g_i) + c_i : \phi(g_i)^2 : / 2]
\]  
(80)

with \( \{g_i\} \) a finite orthonormal set in \( L^2(\Delta) \) and numbers \( c_i > -1, b_i \). Then \( X_i = \phi(g_i) \) form a collection of independent \( N(0,1) \) random variables. For \( Y \) of this type, there is a factorization

\[
E[e^{-Y}] = e^{-A(2\pi)^{-M/2}} \prod_i \int_{\mathbb{R}} \exp[-b_i x - (1 + c_i)x^2/2 + c_i/2] dx
\]  
(81)

into one dimensional Gaussian integrals. Each integral gives the factor

\[
(2\pi)^{1/2}(1 + c_i)^{-1/2} \exp \frac{1}{2}[c_i + b_i^2(1 + c_i)^{-1}]
\]  
(82)
leading to a formula for $E[e^{-Y}]$ which agrees with (4.1) for $Y$ of this form.

2. (Step 2) Since the formula is true for $Y$ in a dense subset of $C^+$, it is now enough to prove that the map $Y \mapsto E[e^{-Y}]$ is continuous in $C$ provided the kernel $C$ satisfies the stated conditions. By the definition of the Carleman–Fredholm determinant

$$\det_2(I + C) = \exp[\text{Tr}\log(1 + C) - C].$$

(83)

Since $\log(1 + x) - x = O(x^2)$ for $x \to 0$ we see that $\det_2(I + C)$ is well-defined and continuous for $C > -1$ and Hilbert–Schmidt. Therefore, the entire right hand side of (4.1) is continuous in $C$ for $Y \in C^+$.

$\square$

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