# Preparation for Quantitative Finance Interviews

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**Theorem 2.9** (Stokes). Let  $\Sigma$  be a smooth oriented surface in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  with boundary  $\partial \Sigma \equiv \Gamma$ . If a vector field  $\mathbf{F}(x, y, z) = (F_x(x, y, z), F_y(x, y, z), F_z(x, y, z))$  is defined and has continuous first order partial derivatives in a region containing  $\Sigma$ , then

$$\iint_{\Sigma} (\nabla \times \mathbf{F}) \cdot \mathrm{d} \mathbf{\Sigma} = \oint_{\partial \Sigma} \mathbf{F} \cdot \mathrm{d} \mathbf{\Gamma}$$

More explicitly, the equality says that

$$\iint_{\Sigma} \left( \left( \frac{\partial F_z}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial z} \right) dy \, dz + \left( \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial z} - \frac{\partial F_z}{\partial x} \right) dz \, dx + \left( \frac{\partial F_y}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial F_x}{\partial y} \right) dx \, dy \right)$$
$$= \oint_{\partial \Sigma} \left( F_x \, dx + F_y \, dy + F_z \, dz \right).$$

Note that Green's theorem is the two-dimensional special case of Stokes' theorem.

## 3 Functions of a complex variable

Reference text: [Ahl79].

The formal definition of a complex number  $z = x + yi = (x, y) \in \mathbb{C} := \mathbb{R}^2$  is to consider the field  $(\mathbb{R}^2, +, \cdot)$  with addition and multiplication

$$(x, y) + (u, v) = (x + u, y + v),$$
  $(x, y) \cdot (u, v) = (xu - yv, xv + yu)$ 

with neutral elements  $0_{\mathbb{C}} = (0,0)$  for + and  $1_{\mathbb{C}} = (1,0)$  for  $\cdot$ .

Note that  $\mathbb{C}$  cannot be ordered. However, with modulus defined as  $|z| := \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \in [0, \infty)$ and conjugate defined as  $\overline{z} := x - yi$ , we have the analogous triangle inequalities

$$|z+w| \le |z|+|w|, \qquad |z-w| \ge ||z|-|w||$$

and Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

$$\left|\sum_{j=1}^{n} \overline{z_j} w_j\right| = \left|\sum_{j=1}^{n} z_j w_j\right| \le \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{n} |z_j|^2} \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{n} |w_j|^2}$$

mentioned earlier in §1.

A complex number z = a + bi can be expressed by *polar coordinates*:

$$a + bi = r\cos\theta + i \cdot r\sin\theta$$

where  $\arg(z) := \theta \in (-\pi, \pi]$ . Upon multiplication of two complex numbers, the moduli are multiplied, and the arguments are added.

**Exercise 3.1** ([SRW19], 1.4). Solve  $x^6 = 64$ .

Solution. The moduli should always be 2, and the argument  $\theta$  can be any value such that

 $6\theta = 2k\pi, \qquad k \in \mathbb{N}_0, \theta \in [0, 2\pi)$ 

Therefore, there are six possible solutions:

 $2\cos(k\pi/3) + 2i\sin(k\pi/3), \qquad k \in [0, 5]$ 

The extension of functions  $e^z$ ,  $\log z$ ,  $\sin z$ ,  $\cos z$ , etc. should be natural in the sense that many of the familiar properties of  $\sin$ ,  $\cos$ ,  $\exp$ ,  $\log$  are retained. We define the complex *exponential function* as

 $e^{a+bi} := e^a \cdot (\cos b + i \sin b), \qquad z = a + bi \in \mathbb{C}$ 

and the complex sine and cosine functions as

$$\sin(z) = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i}, \qquad \cos(z) = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2}, \qquad z \in \mathbb{C}$$

**Exercise 3.2** ([SRW19], 1.1). Calculate  $i^i$ .

Solution. Note that  $i = \cos(\pi/2) + i\sin(\pi/2) = e^{i \cdot \pi/2}$ . Therefore

 $i^i = \left(e^{i \cdot \pi/2}\right)^i = \boxed{e^{-\pi/2}}$ 

A solution z of the equation  $e^z = w$  is called a *logarithm* of w, denoted  $z = \log w$ . Every  $w \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \{0\}$  has countably many logarithms:

$$\log(w) = \log|w| + i \cdot (\arg(w) + 2\pi n), \qquad n \in \mathbb{Z},$$

and the principal value of the logarithm of w is set for n = 0.

### 4 Ordinary differential equations

#### Solvable first-order ODEs

1. Separable:

$$x' = f(x)g(t) \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad \int \frac{1}{f(x)} dx = \int g(t) dt + C$$

**Exercise 4.1** ([SRW19], 1.14). Find f(x) such that

f'(x) = f(x)(1 - f(x))

Solution. Let y = f(x). Then the equation is separable.

2. Homogeneous of degree k for some arbitrary value a:

$$f(at, ax) = a^{\kappa} f(t, x)$$

For example, take k = 1, a = 1/t:

$$x' = f(x/t)$$

Let y = x/t, we get

$$y' \cdot t + y = f(y)$$

which reduces to case 1, a separable equation.

3. More generally, consider

$$x' = f\left(\frac{ax + bt + c}{\alpha x + \beta t + \gamma}\right)$$

where  $a, b, c, \alpha, \beta, \gamma$  are constants.

a) If  $c = \gamma = 0$ , rewrite it as

$$x' = f\left(\frac{ax/t+b}{\alpha x/t+\beta}\right)$$

which reduces to case 2.

b) If  $c, \gamma \neq 0$ , but  $a/\alpha = b/\beta = 1/k$ , we let y = ax + bt, then (noting that a is constant so a' = 0)

$$y' = a'x + ax' + b = af\left(\frac{y+c}{ky+\gamma}\right) + b$$

which reduces to case 1, a separable equation.

c) If  $c, \gamma \neq 0$  and  $a/\alpha \neq b/\beta$ , we solve the system

$$\begin{cases} ax + bt + c &= 0\\ \alpha x + \beta t + \gamma &= 0 \end{cases}$$

which must have a solution, say  $x_0, t_0$ . Take  $y = x - x_0, s = t - t_0$ , and we have

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}s} = \frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}t} = f\left(\frac{ax+bt+c-0}{\alpha x+\beta t+\gamma-0}\right) = f\left(\frac{ay+bs}{\alpha y+\beta s}\right)$$

which reduces to case 3(a).

#### 4. Ordinary differential equations

4. Exact:

$$M(x, y) \,\mathrm{d}x + N(x, y) \,\mathrm{d}y = 0$$

is exact if there exists a function g(x, y) such that

$$dg = M(x,y) dx + N(x,y) dy, \qquad M(x,y) = \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}, N(x,y) = \frac{\partial g}{\partial y}$$

This happens if and only if

$$\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}$$

Then g(x, y) = C where C is some constant is the solution to this equation.

5. Integrating factors: if M(x, y) dx + N(x, y) dy is not exact but I(x, y) (M dx + N dy) is, I is called an *integrating factor*.

a) If

$$\frac{1}{N}\left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}\right) =: g(x)$$

is a function of x alone, then

$$I(x,y) = \exp\left(\int g(x) \,\mathrm{d}x\right)$$

b) If

$$\frac{1}{M}\left(\frac{\partial M}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial N}{\partial x}\right) =: h(y)$$

is a function of y alone, then

$$I(x,y) = \exp\left(-\int h(y) \,\mathrm{d}y\right)$$

Then it is reduced to case 4.

6. Linear nonhomogeneous equation:

$$x'(t) = k(t)x + a(t)$$

We multiply each side by

$$K(t) := \exp\left\{-\int_{t_0}^t k(s) \,\mathrm{d}s\right\}$$

Then

$$K(t)(x'-kx) = (Kx)' \implies \int d(Kx) = \int K(t)a(t) dt + C$$

which yields the result

$$x(t) = \frac{1}{K(t)} \left( \int_{t_0}^t K(s)a(s) \,\mathrm{d}s + x(t_0) \right)$$

- 7. Some nonlinear first-order ODEs:
  - a) Bernoulli:

$$x'(t) = F_t x + g(t)x^n, \qquad n \neq 0, 1$$

We let  $y = x^{1-n}$  and have

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}t} = (1-n)x^{-n}x' = (1-n)x^{-n}\left(f(t)x + g(t)x^n\right) = (1-n)\left(fy + g\right)$$

b) Ricatti:

$$x'(t) = f(t)x + g(t)x^{2} + h(t)$$

Suppose we already has a particular solution p(t) so that  $p' = fp + gp^2 + h$ . Subtract it from the original equation and let y = x - p:

$$x' - p' = f(x - p) + g(x + p)(x - p)$$
  
$$y' = fy + g(y + 2p)y = (f(t) + g(t)2p(t))y(t) + g(t)y^{2}(t)$$

which reduces to a Bernoulli equation.

#### Second-order linear ODEs

We start by considering  $a_0, a_1$  real constants for

$$y''(x) + a_1 y'(x) + a_0 y(x) = 0$$

Solve the the characteristic function

$$\lambda^2 + a_1\lambda + a_0 = 0$$

and get two solutions  $\lambda_1, \lambda_2$ .

- Case 1: if 
$$\lambda_1, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}, \lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$$
:  
$$y = c_1 e^{\lambda_1 x} + c_2 e^{\lambda_2 x}$$

• Case 2: if 
$$\lambda_{1,2} = a \pm bi, b \neq 0$$
 (noting that roots must be conjugate pairs):

$$y = d_1 e^{(a+bi)x} + d_2 e^{(a-bi)x} = e^{ax} \cdot (c_1 \cos(bx) + c_2 \sin(bx))$$

• Case 3: if 
$$\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \lambda$$
:

$$y = (c_1 + c_2 x)e^{\lambda x}$$

**Exercise 4.2** (Baruch). Solve 4y'' - 4y' + y = 0 with initial conditions y(0) = 1, y'(0) = 0.

Solution. Consider  $4\lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 1 = 0$  whose solutions are  $\lambda_{1,2} = 1/2$ . It is a Case 3 scenario, and thus we let

 $y = (c_1 + c_2 x)e^{x/2}$ 

Plugging the initial conditions, we get  $c_1 = 1, c_2 = -1/2$ .

Now, suppose  $a_1 = p(x), a_0 = q(x)$ , i.e. we consider

$$y''(x) + p(x)y'(x) + q(x)y(x) = 0$$

- Case 1: Suppose p, q are analytic, then we can let  $y(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} A_k x^k$  and apply the *power* series method.
- Case 2: A Cauchy-Euler equation has the form

$$t^{2}y'' + aty' + by = 0 \qquad \Longleftrightarrow \qquad y'' + \frac{ay'}{t} + \frac{by}{t^{2}} = 0$$

We assume  $y = t^m$  and plugging in we get  $m^2 + (a - 1)m + b = 0$ . Suppose this equation has two solutions  $m_{1,2}$ .

- if  $m_1 \neq m_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $y = c_1 t^{m_1} + c_2 t^{m_2}$ .
- if  $m_1 \neq m_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ , they are conjugates, so we let  $m_{1,2} = \alpha \pm \beta i$  and have

$$y = c_1 \cdot t^{\alpha} \cos(\beta \log t) + c_2 \cdot t^{\alpha} \sin(\beta \log t)$$

- if  $m_1 = m_2 = m$ , they can only be reals, and we have

$$y = c_1 \cdot t^m \log t + c_2 \cdot t^m$$

Indeed, if it is an ODE with higher order, and m becomes a root with multiplicity k, then the basis solutions are:

$$t^m, t^m \log t, t^m (\log t)^2, t^m (\log t)^3, \dots, t^m (\log t)^{k-1}$$

• Case 3: the method of Frobenius: the differential equation

$$w'' + p(z)w' + q(z)w = 0$$

has an *isolated singular point* at the origin if the coefficients p and q are analytic and singlevalued in a disk |z| < R except at z = 0 (analytic in the punctured disk). The origin is a *regular singular point* if p has a pole of order at most one and q a pole of order at most two there. In other words, if the origin is a regular singular point then  $p(z) = z^{-1}P(z)$  and  $q(z)=z^{-2}Q(z)$  where P and Q are analytic and single-valued in the full disk, including the origin. We'll write the standard equation with a regular singular point at the origin in the form

$$z^2w'' + zP(z)w' + Q(z)w = 0.$$

The functions P and Q then have power-series expansions

$$P(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} P_k z^k, \quad Q(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} Q_k z^k$$

convergent in this disk. Then we seek a solution of the form

$$w(z) = z^{\mu} \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k z^k$$

Now suppose the equation is nonhomogeneous:

$$y''(x) + p(x)y'(x) + q(x)y(x) = r(x), \qquad r(x) \neq 0$$

First we solve the homogeneous equation by the methods above

$$y''(x) + p(x)y'(x) + q(x)y(x)$$

and get a basis of two solutions  $b_1(x), b_2(x)$ . We calculate the Wronskian:

$$W(x) := \begin{vmatrix} b_1 & b_2 \\ b_1' & b_2' \end{vmatrix}$$

and a particular solution p(x) is given as

$$p(x) = b_1 v_1 + b_2 v_2$$
 where  $v_1 = -\int \frac{r(x)b_2(x)}{W(x)} dx, v_2 = \int \frac{r(x)b_1(x)}{W(x)} dx$ 

Therefore, a general solution is given by

$$y(x) = C_1 b_1(x) + C_2 b_2(x) + p(x)$$

**Exercise 4.3** ([SRW19], 1.13). Solve y'' - 4y' + 4y = 1.

Solution. Solving  $\lambda^2 - 4\lambda + 4 = 0$  gives us  $\lambda_{1,2} = 2$ . Now, since RHS = 1, a particular solution is easy to guess:  $y_p = 1/4$ . Therefore, a general solution is given by

$$y(x) = c_1 e^{2x} + c_2 e^{2x} x + 1/4$$

for some constants  $c_1, c_2$ .

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