

If the world of sense does not fit mathematics, so much the worse for the world of sense.

— Bertrand Russell (1872–1970)

Black insisted that anything one could do
with a mouse could be done better
with macro redefinitions
of particular keys on the keyboard.

— Emanuel Derman,

My Life as a Quant (2004)

The Setting

- The no-arbitrage principle is insufficient to pin down the exact option value.
- Need a model of probabilistic behavior of stock prices.
- One major obstacle is that it seems a risk-adjusted interest rate is needed to discount the option's payoff.
- Breakthrough came in 1973 when Black (1938–1995) and Scholes with help from Merton published their celebrated option pricing model.
 - Known as the Black-Scholes option pricing model.

Terms and Approach

• C: call value.

• P: put value.

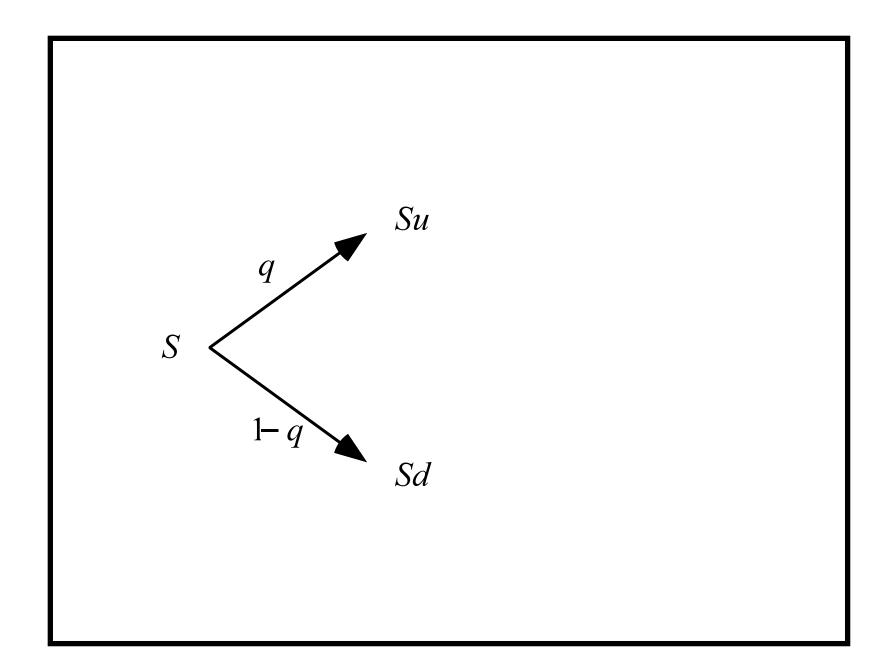
• X: strike price

• S: stock price

- $\hat{r} > 0$: the continuously compounded riskless rate per period.
- $R \equiv e^{\hat{r}}$: gross return.
- Start from the discrete-time binomial model.

Binomial Option Pricing Model (BOPM)

- Time is discrete and measured in periods.
- If the current stock price is S, it can go to Su with probability q and Sd with probability 1-q, where 0 < q < 1 and d < u.
 - In fact, d < R < u must hold to rule out arbitrage.
- Six pieces of information suffice to determine the option value based on arbitrage considerations: S, u, d, X, \hat{r} , and the number of periods to expiration.



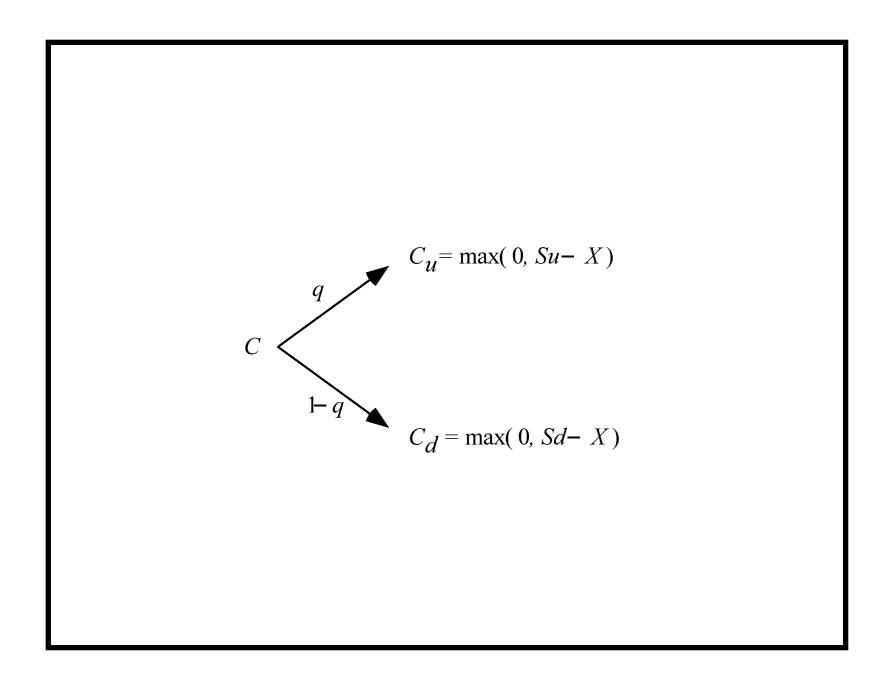
Call on a Non-Dividend-Paying Stock: Single Period

- The expiration date is only one period from now.
- C_u is the call price at time one if the stock price moves to Su.
- C_d is the call price at time one if the stock price moves to Sd.
- Clearly,

$$C_u = \max(0, Su - X),$$

 $C_d = \max(0, Sd - X).$

$$C_d = \max(0, Sd - X).$$



Call on a Non-Dividend-Paying Stock: Single Period (continued)

- Set up a portfolio of h shares of stock and B dollars in riskless bonds.
 - This costs hS + B.
 - We call h the hedge ratio or delta.
- The value of this portfolio at time one is either hSu + RB or hSd + RB.
- Choose h and B such that the portfolio replicates the payoff of the call,

$$hSu + RB = C_u,$$

$$hSd + RB = C_d.$$

Call on a Non-Dividend-Paying Stock: Single Period (concluded)

• Solve the above equations to obtain

$$h = \frac{C_u - C_d}{Su - Sd} \ge 0, \tag{20}$$

$$B = \frac{uC_d - dC_u}{(u - d)R}. (21)$$

- By the no-arbitrage principle, the European call should cost the same as the equivalent portfolio, C = hS + B.
- As $uC_d dC_u < 0$, the equivalent portfolio is a levered long position in stocks.

American Call Pricing in One Period

- Have to consider immediate exercise.
- $C = \max(hS + B, S X)$.
 - When $hS + B \ge S X$, the call should not be exercised immediately.
 - When hS + B < S X, the option should be exercised immediately.
- For non-dividend-paying stocks, early exercise is not optimal by Theorem 3 (p. 188).
- So C = hS + B.

Put Pricing in One Period

- Puts can be similarly priced.
- The delta for the put is $(P_u P_d)/(Su Sd) \leq 0$, where

$$P_u = \max(0, X - Su),$$

$$P_d = \max(0, X - Sd).$$

- Let $B = \frac{uP_d dP_u}{(u-d)R}$.
- The European put is worth hS + B.
- The American put is worth $\max(hS + B, X S)$.
 - Early exercise is always possible with American puts.

Risk

- Surprisingly, the option value is independent of q.
- Hence it is independent of the expected gross return of the stock, qSu + (1-q)Sd.
- It therefore does not directly depend on investors' risk preferences.
- The option value depends on the sizes of price changes, u and d, which the investors must agree upon.
- Note that the set of possible stock prices is the same whatever q is.

Can You Figure Out u, d without Knowing q?^a

- Yes, you can under BOPM.
- Let us observe the time series of past stock prices, e.g.,

$$u$$
 is available $S, Su, Su^2, Su^3, Su^3d, \dots$

• So with sufficiently long history, you will figure out u and d without knowing q.

^aContributed by Mr. Jia-Shuo Hsu (D97945003) on March 11, 2009.

Pseudo Probability

• After substitution and rearrangement,

$$hS + B = \frac{\left(\frac{R-d}{u-d}\right)C_u + \left(\frac{u-R}{u-d}\right)C_d}{R}.$$

• Rewrite it as

$$hS + B = \frac{pC_u + (1-p)C_d}{R},$$

where

$$p \equiv \frac{R - d}{u - d}.$$

• As 0 , it may be interpreted as a probability.

Risk-Neutral Probability

- The expected rate of return for the stock is equal to the riskless rate \hat{r} under p as pSu + (1-p)Sd = RS.
- Risk-neutral investors care only about expected returns.
- The expected rates of return of all securities must be the riskless rate when investors are risk-neutral.
- For this reason, p is called the risk-neutral probability.
- The value of an option is the expectation of its discounted future payoff in a risk-neutral economy.
- So the rate used for discounting the FV is the riskless rate in a risk-neutral economy.

Binomial Distribution

• Denote the binomial distribution with parameters n and p by

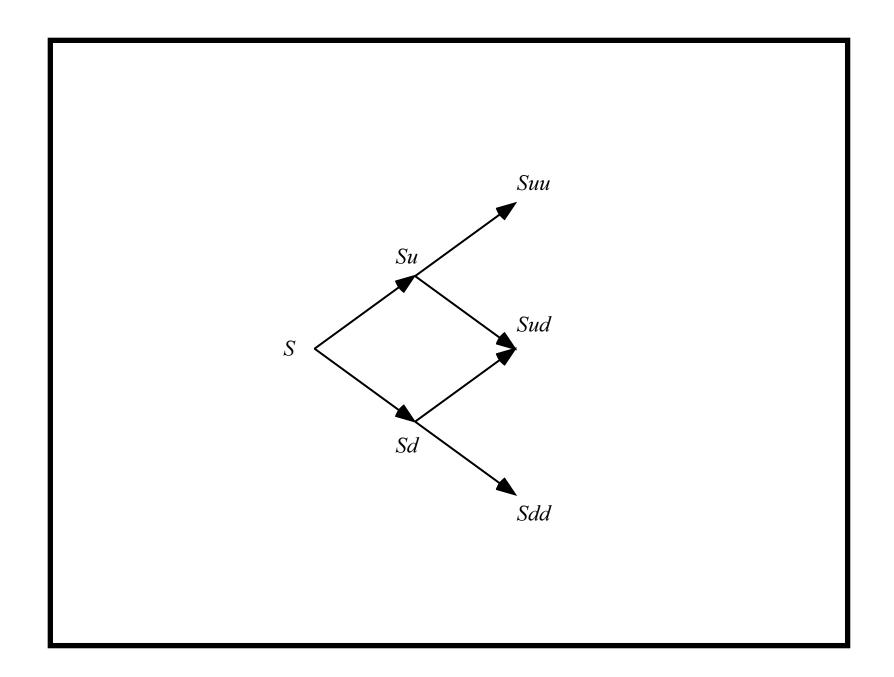
$$b(j; n, p) \equiv \binom{n}{j} p^{j} (1 - p)^{n-j} = \frac{n!}{j! (n - j)!} p^{j} (1 - p)^{n-j}.$$

$$-n! = n \times (n-1) \cdots 2 \times 1$$
 with the convention $0! = 1$.

- Suppose you toss a coin n times with p being the probability of getting heads.
- Then b(j; n, p) is the probability of getting j heads.

Option on a Non-Dividend-Paying Stock: Multi-Period

- Consider a call with two periods remaining before expiration.
- Under the binomial model, the stock can take on three possible prices at time two: Suu, Sud, and Sdd.
 - There are 4 paths.
 - But the tree combines.
- At any node, the next two stock prices only depend on the current price, not the prices of earlier times.



Option on a Non-Dividend-Paying Stock: Multi-Period (continued)

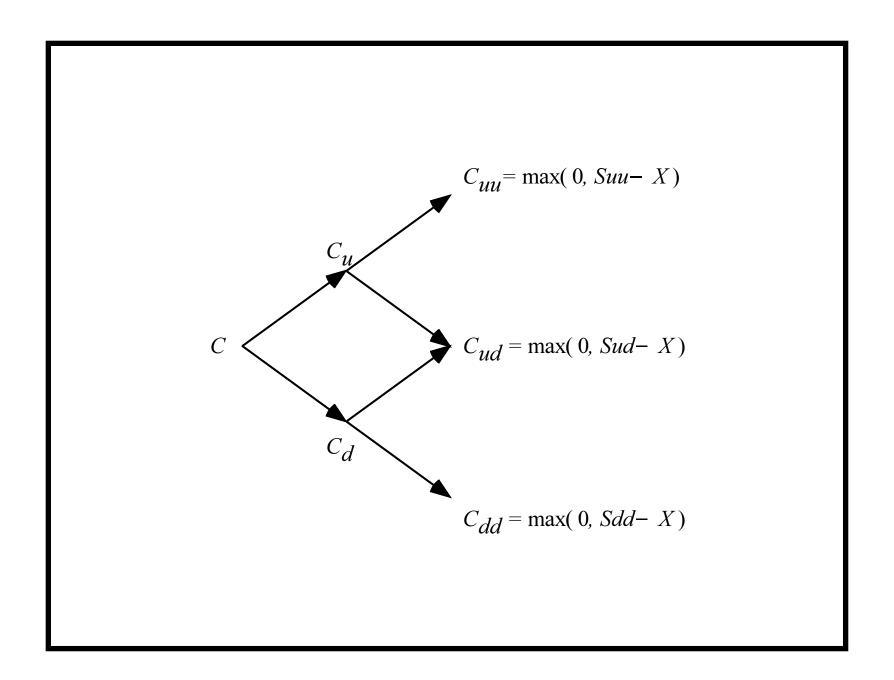
- Let C_{uu} be the call's value at time two if the stock price is Suu.
- Thus,

$$C_{uu} = \max(0, Suu - X).$$

• C_{ud} and C_{dd} can be calculated analogously,

$$C_{ud} = \max(0, Sud - X),$$

$$C_{dd} = \max(0, Sdd - X).$$



Option on a Non-Dividend-Paying Stock: Multi-Period (continued)

• The call values at time one can be obtained by applying the same logic:

$$C_u = \frac{pC_{uu} + (1-p)C_{ud}}{R},$$
 (22)
 $C_d = \frac{pC_{ud} + (1-p)C_{dd}}{R}.$

- Deltas can be derived from Eq. (20) on p. 202.
- For example, the delta at C_u is

$$\frac{C_{uu} - C_{ud}}{Suu - Sud}.$$

Option on a Non-Dividend-Paying Stock: Multi-Period (concluded)

- We now reach the current period.
- An equivalent portfolio of h shares of stock and \$B riskless bonds can be set up for the call that costs C_u $(C_d, \text{ resp.})$ if the stock price goes to Su (Sd, resp.).
- The values of h and B can be derived from Eqs. (20)–(21) on p. 202.
- That is, compute

$$\frac{pC_u + (1-p)C_d}{R}$$

as the price.

Early Exercise

- Since the call will not be exercised at time one even if it is American, $C_u \geq Su X$ and $C_d \geq Sd X$.
- Therefore,

$$hS + B = \frac{pC_u + (1-p)C_d}{R} \ge \frac{[pu + (1-p)d]S - X}{R}$$

= $S - \frac{X}{R} > S - X$.

- The call again will not be exercised at present.
- So

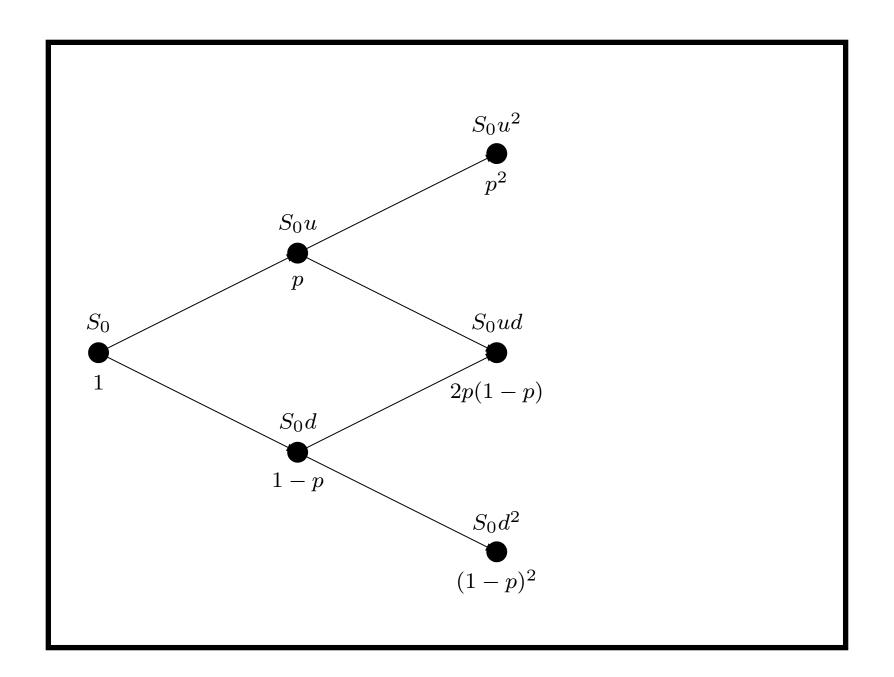
$$C = hS + B = \frac{pC_u + (1-p)C_d}{R}.$$

Backward Induction of Zermelo (1871–1953)

- The above expression calculates C from the two successor nodes C_u and C_d and none beyond.
- The same computation happened at C_u and C_d , too, as demonstrated in Eq. (22) on p. 214.
- This recursive procedure is called backward induction.
- Now, C equals

$$[p^{2}C_{uu} + 2p(1-p)C_{ud} + (1-p)^{2}C_{dd}](1/R^{2})$$

$$= [p^{2} \max(0, Su^{2} - X) + 2p(1-p) \max(0, Sud - X) + (1-p)^{2} \max(0, Sd^{2} - X)]/R^{2}.$$



Backward Induction (concluded)

• In the n-period case,

$$C = \frac{\sum_{j=0}^{n} \binom{n}{j} p^{j} (1-p)^{n-j} \times \max(0, Su^{j} d^{n-j} - X)}{R^{n}}$$

- The value of a call on a non-dividend-paying stock is the expected discounted payoff at expiration in a risk-neutral economy.
- The value of a European put is

$$P = \frac{\sum_{j=0}^{n} \binom{n}{j} p^{j} (1-p)^{n-j} \times \max(0, X - Su^{j} d^{n-j})}{R^{n}}$$

Risk-Neutral Pricing Methodology

- Every derivative can be priced as if the economy were risk-neutral.
- For a European-style derivative with the terminal payoff function \mathcal{D} , its value is

$$e^{-\hat{r}n}E^{\pi}[\mathcal{D}].$$

- $-E^{\pi}$ means the expectation is taken under the risk-neutral probability.
- The "equivalence" between arbitrage freedom in a model and the existence of a risk-neutral probability is called the (first) fundamental theorem of asset pricing.

Self-Financing

- Delta changes over time.
- The maintenance of an equivalent portfolio is dynamic.
- The maintaining of an equivalent portfolio does not depend on our correctly predicting future stock prices.
- The portfolio's value at the end of the current period is precisely the amount needed to set up the next portfolio.
- The trading strategy is self-financing because there is neither injection nor withdrawal of funds throughout.
 - Changes in value are due entirely to capital gains.

The Binomial Option Pricing Formula

• The stock prices at time n are

$$Su^n, Su^{n-1}d, \dots, Sd^n.$$

- Let a be the minimum number of upward price moves for the call to finish in the money.
- So a is the smallest nonnegative integer such that

$$Su^a d^{n-a} \ge X$$
,

or, equivalently,

$$a = \left\lceil \frac{\ln(X/Sd^n)}{\ln(u/d)} \right\rceil.$$

The Binomial Option Pricing Formula (concluded)

• Hence,

$$\frac{C}{\sum_{j=a}^{n} \binom{n}{j} p^{j} (1-p)^{n-j} \left(Su^{j} d^{n-j} - X\right)}{R^{n}}$$

$$= S \sum_{j=a}^{n} \binom{n}{j} \frac{(pu)^{j} [(1-p) d]^{n-j}}{R^{n}}$$

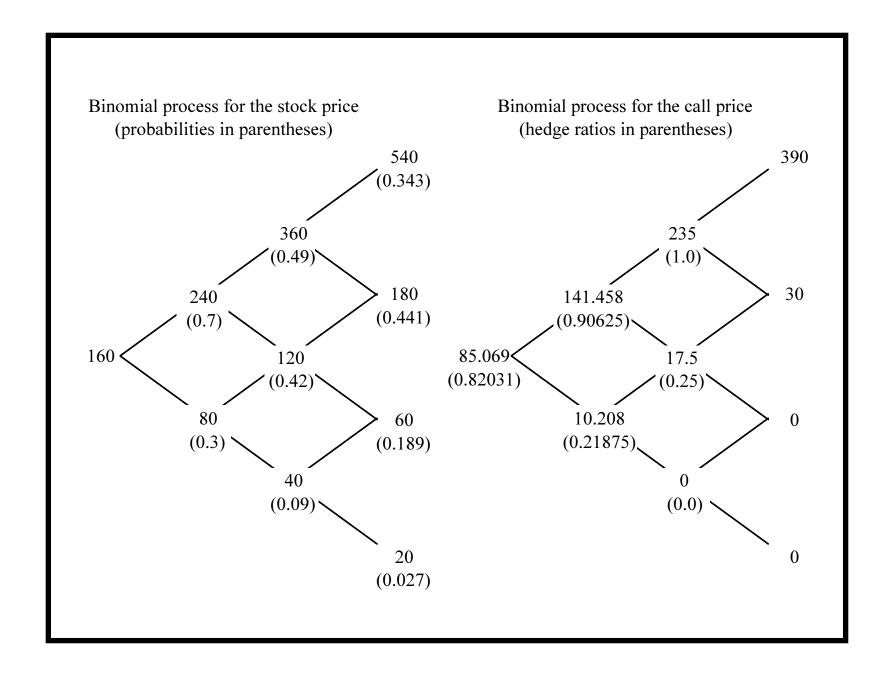
$$- \frac{X}{R^{n}} \sum_{j=a}^{n} \binom{n}{j} p^{j} (1-p)^{n-j}$$

$$= S \sum_{j=a}^{n} b(j; n, pu/R) - Xe^{-\hat{r}n} \sum_{j=a}^{n} b(j; n, p).$$

Numerical Examples

- A non-dividend-paying stock is selling for \$160.
- u = 1.5 and d = 0.5.
- r = 18.232% per period $(R = e^{0.18232} = 1.2)$. - Hence p = (R - d)/(u - d) = 0.7.
- Consider a European call on this stock with X = 150 and n = 3.
- The call value is \$85.069 by backward induction.
- Or, the PV of the expected payoff at expiration:

$$\frac{390 \times 0.343 + 30 \times 0.441 + 0 \times 0.189 + 0 \times 0.027}{(1.2)^3} = 85.069$$



- Mispricing leads to arbitrage profits.
- Suppose the option is selling for \$90 instead.
- Sell the call for \$90 and invest \$85.069 in the replicating portfolio with 0.82031 shares of stock required by delta.
- Borrow $0.82031 \times 160 85.069 = 46.1806$ dollars.
- The fund that remains,

$$90 - 85.069 = 4.931$$
 dollars,

is the arbitrage profit as we will see.

Time 1:

- Suppose the stock price moves to \$240.
- The new delta is 0.90625.
- Buy

$$0.90625 - 0.82031 = 0.08594$$

more shares at the cost of $0.08594 \times 240 = 20.6256$ dollars financed by borrowing.

• Debt now totals $20.6256 + 46.1806 \times 1.2 = 76.04232$ dollars.

Time 2:

- Suppose the stock price plunges to \$120.
- The new delta is 0.25.
- Sell 0.90625 0.25 = 0.65625 shares.
- This generates an income of $0.65625 \times 120 = 78.75$ dollars.
- Use this income to reduce the debt to

$$76.04232 \times 1.2 - 78.75 = 12.5$$

dollars.

Time 3 (the case of rising price):

- The stock price moves to \$180.
- The call we wrote finishes in the money.
- For a loss of 180 150 = 30 dollars, close out the position by either buying back the call or buying a share of stock for delivery.
- Financing this loss with borrowing brings the total debt to $12.5 \times 1.2 + 30 = 45$ dollars.
- It is repaid by selling the 0.25 shares of stock for $0.25 \times 180 = 45$ dollars.

Numerical Examples (concluded)

Time 3 (the case of declining price):

- The stock price moves to \$60.
- The call we wrote is worthless.
- Sell the 0.25 shares of stock for a total of

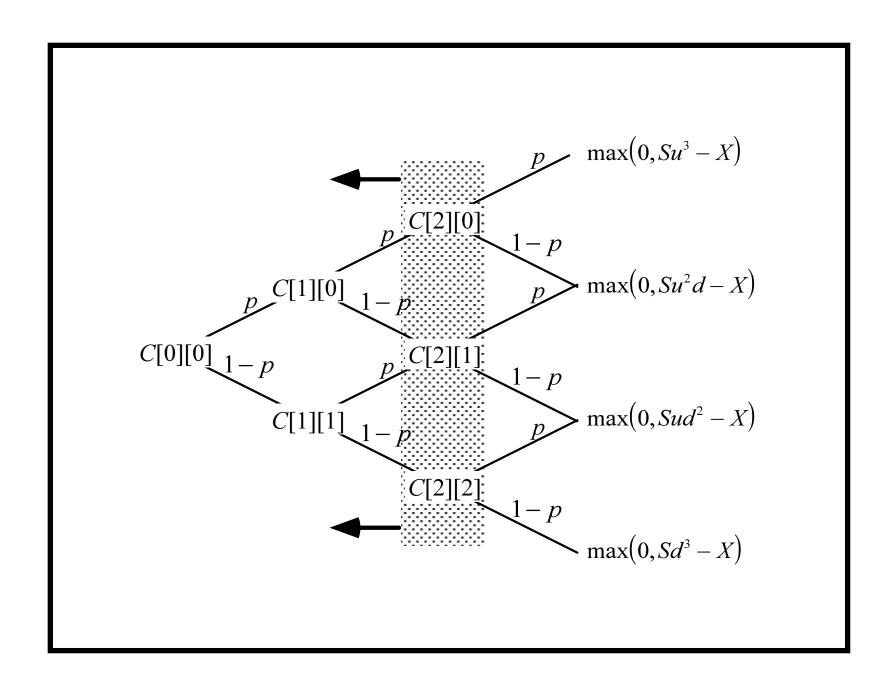
$$0.25 \times 60 = 15$$

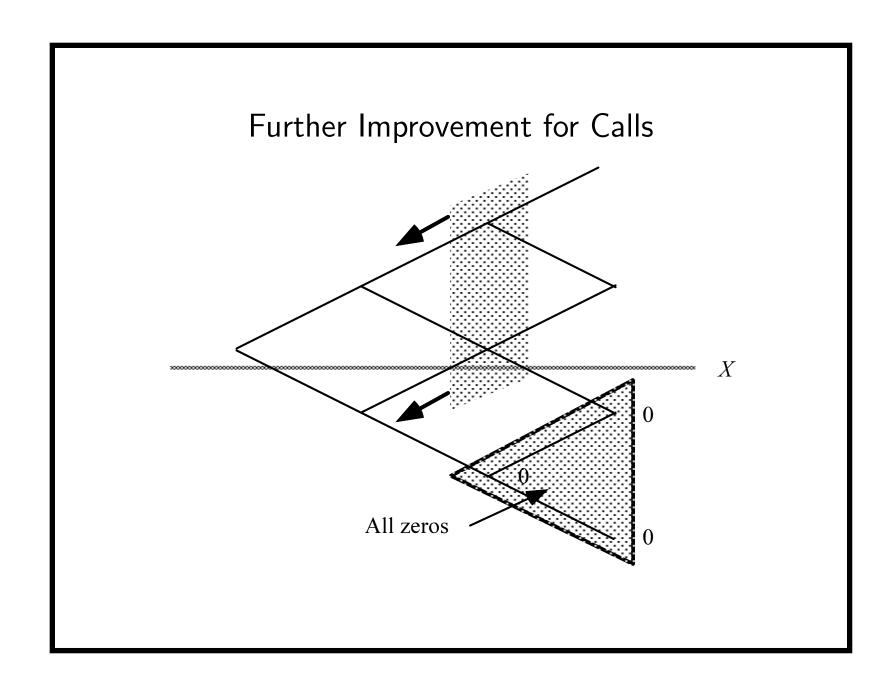
dollars.

• Use it to repay the debt of $12.5 \times 1.2 = 15$ dollars.

Binomial Tree Algorithms for European Options

- The BOPM implies the binomial tree algorithm that applies backward induction.
- The total running time is $O(n^2)$.
- The memory requirement is $O(n^2)$.
 - Can be further reduced to O(n) by reusing space
- To price European puts, simply replace the payoff.





Optimal Algorithm

- We can reduce the running time to O(n) and the memory requirement to O(1).
- Note that

$$b(j; n, p) = \frac{p(n - j + 1)}{(1 - p)j} b(j - 1; n, p).$$

Optimal Algorithm (continued)

• The following program computes b(j; n, p) in b[j]:

1:
$$b[a] := \binom{n}{a} p^a (1-p)^{n-a};$$

2: **for**
$$j = a + 1, a + 2, \dots, n$$
 do

3:
$$b[j] := b[j-1] \times p \times (n-j+1)/((1-p) \times j);$$

- 4: end for
- It runs in O(n) steps.

Optimal Algorithm (concluded)

- With the b(j; n, p) available, the risk-neutral valuation formula (23) on p. 223 is trivial to compute.
- We only need a single variable to store the b(j; n, p)s as they are being sequentially computed.
- This linear-time algorithm computes the discounted expected value of $\max(S_n X, 0)$.
- The above technique *cannot* be applied to American options because of early exercise.
- So binomial tree algorithms for American options usually run in $O(n^2)$ time.

