#### Binomial Distribution

• Denote the binomial distribution with parameters n and p by

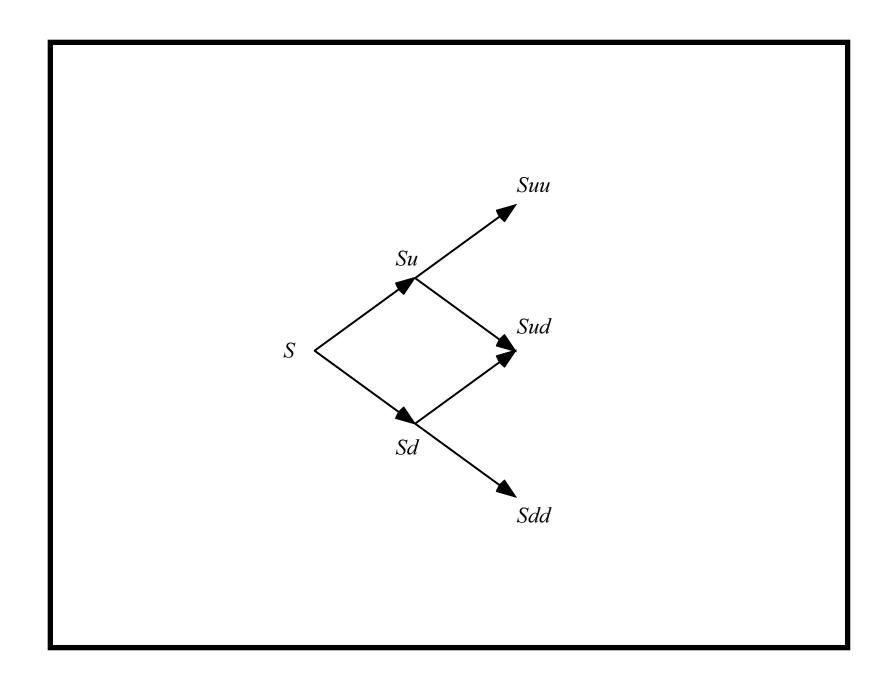
$$b(j; n, p) \equiv \binom{n}{j} p^{j} (1 - p)^{n-j} = \frac{n!}{j! (n - j)!} p^{j} (1 - p)^{n-j}.$$

$$-n! = n \times (n-1) \cdots 2 \times 1$$
 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)

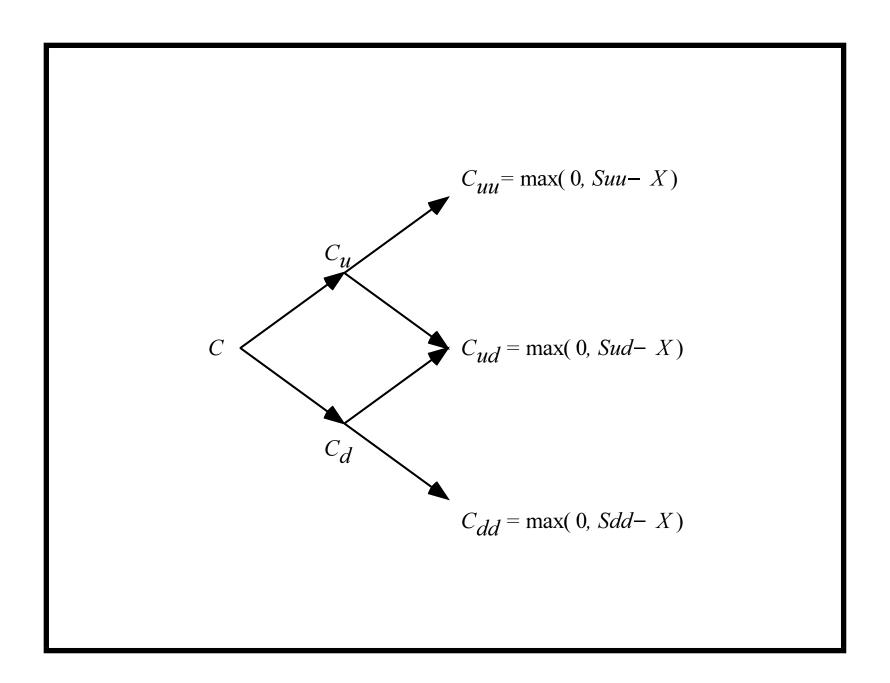
- Let  $C_{uu}$  be the call's value at time two if the stock price is Suu.
- Thus,

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

•  $C_{ud}$  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:

$$C_u = \frac{pC_{uu} + (1-p)C_{ud}}{R},$$
 (21)  
 $C_d = \frac{pC_{ud} + (1-p)C_{dd}}{R}.$ 

- Deltas can be derived from Eq. (19) on p. 200.
- 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. (19)–(20) on p. 200.
- 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

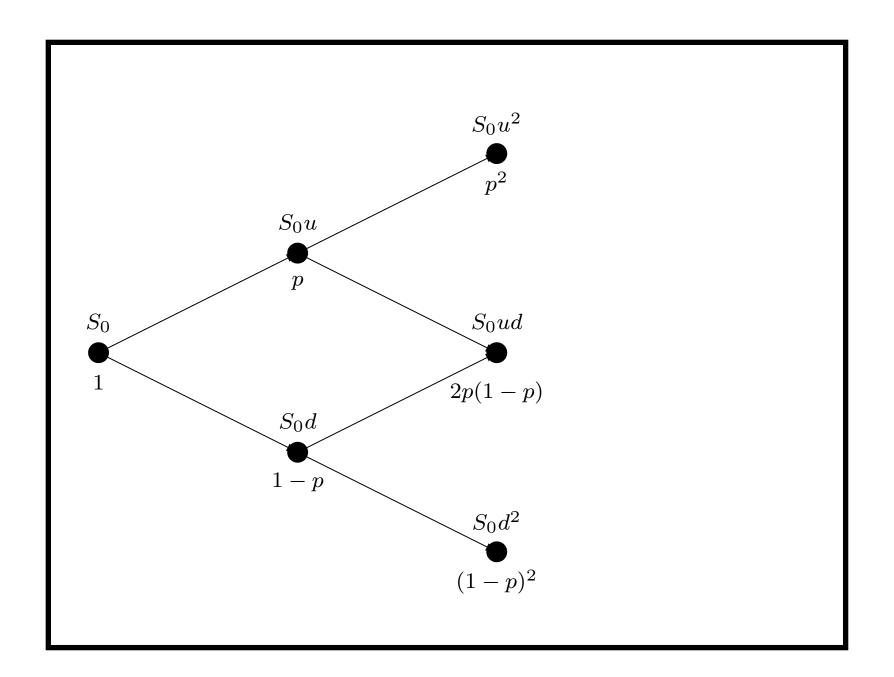
$$C = hS + B = \frac{pC_u + (1-p)C_d}{R}.$$

## 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. (21) on p. 211.
- 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,

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

- 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,

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

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

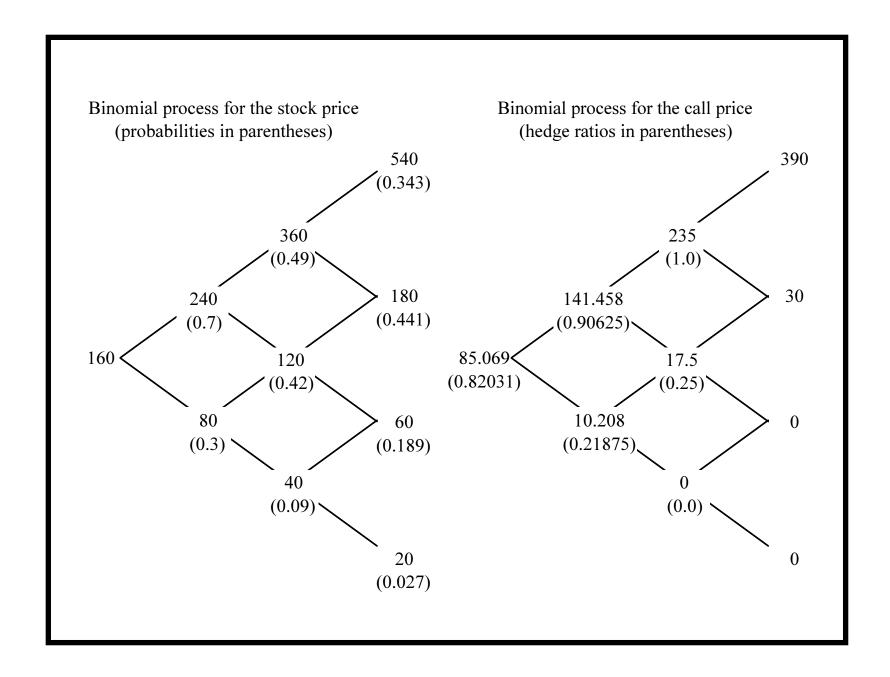
$$- \frac{X}{R^{n}} \sum_{j=a}^{n} \binom{n}{j} p^{j} (1-p)^{n-j}$$

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

#### 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

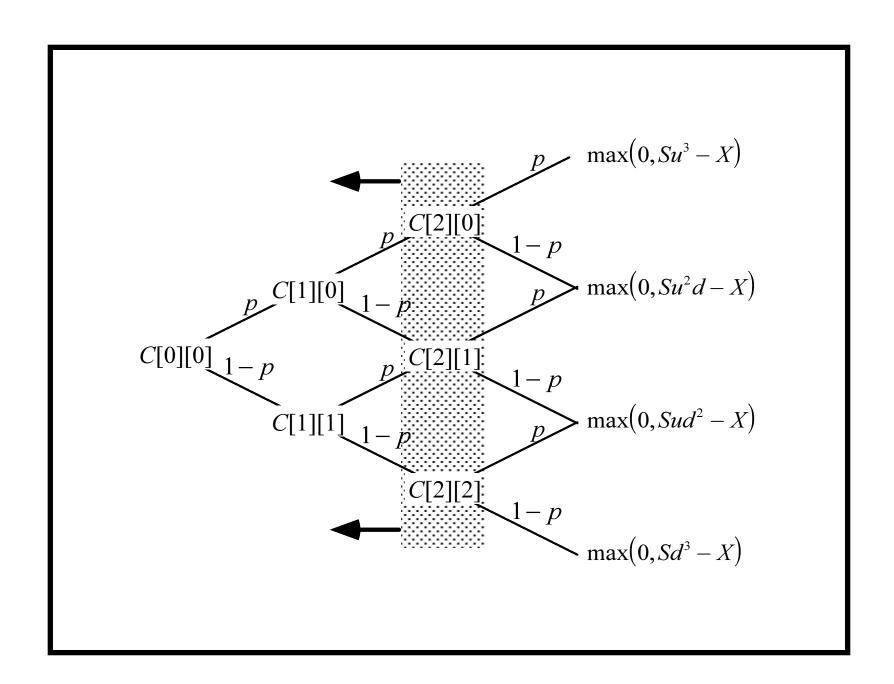
$$0.25 \times 60 = 15$$

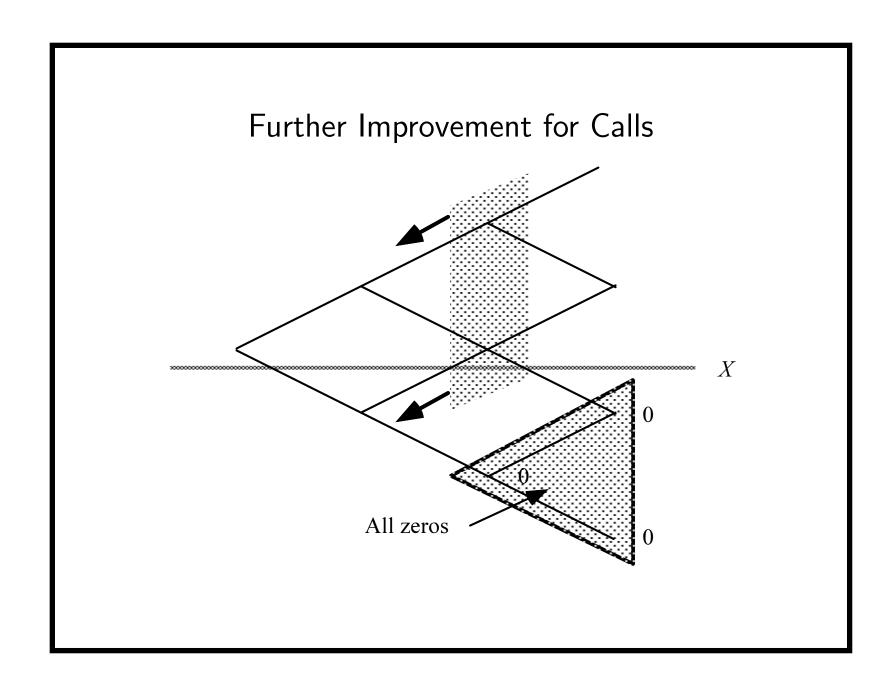
dollars.

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

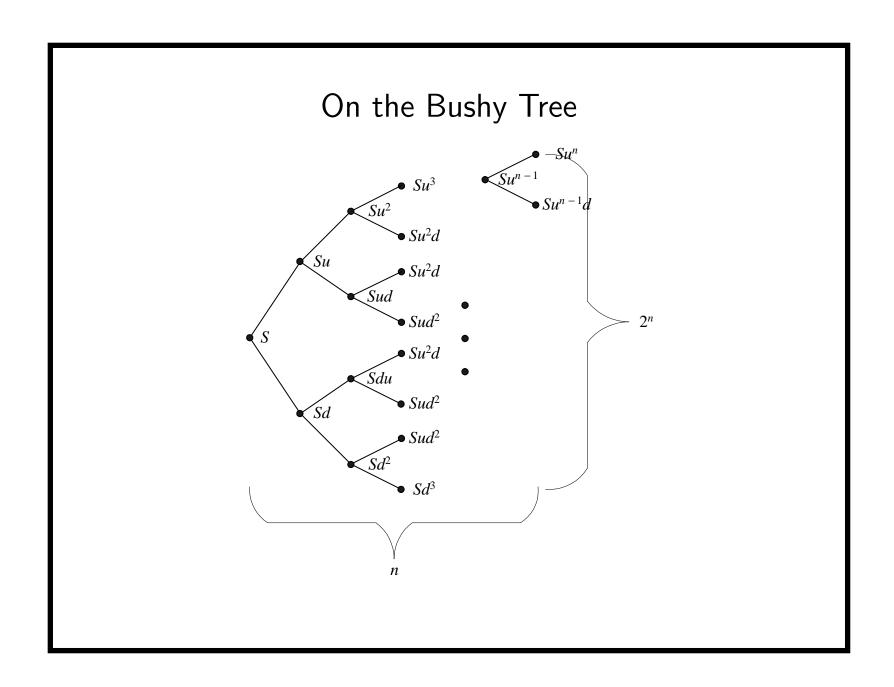
2: **for** 
$$j = a + 1, a + 2, \dots, n$$
 **do**

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 (22) on p. 220 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.



#### Toward the Black-Scholes Formula

- The binomial model seems to suffer from two unrealistic assumptions.
  - The stock price takes on only two values in a period.
  - Trading occurs at discrete points in time.
- As *n* increases, the stock price ranges over ever larger numbers of possible values, and trading takes place nearly continuously.
- Any proper calibration of the model parameters makes the BOPM converge to the continuous-time model.
- We now skim through the proof.

- Let  $\tau$  denote the time to expiration of the option measured in years.
- Let r be the continuously compounded annual rate.
- With n periods during the option's life, each period represents a time interval of  $\tau/n$ .
- Need to adjust the period-based u, d, and interest rate  $\hat{r}$  to match the empirical results as n goes to infinity.
- First,  $\hat{r} = r\tau/n$ .
  - The period gross return  $R = e^{\hat{r}}$ .

• Use

$$\widehat{\mu} \equiv \frac{1}{n} E \left[ \ln \frac{S_{\tau}}{S} \right] \text{ and } \widehat{\sigma}^2 \equiv \frac{1}{n} \operatorname{Var} \left[ \ln \frac{S_{\tau}}{S} \right]$$

to denote, resp., the expected value and variance of the continuously compounded rate of return per period.

• Under the BOPM, it is not hard to show that

$$\widehat{\mu} = q \ln(u/d) + \ln d,$$

$$\widehat{\sigma}^2 = q(1-q) \ln^2(u/d).$$

- Assume the stock's true continuously compounded rate of return over  $\tau$  years has mean  $\mu\tau$  and variance  $\sigma^2\tau$ .
  - Call  $\sigma$  the stock's (annualized) volatility.
- The BOPM converges to the distribution only if

$$n\widehat{\mu} = n(q \ln(u/d) + \ln d) \to \mu \tau,$$
  
 $n\widehat{\sigma}^2 = nq(1-q) \ln^2(u/d) \to \sigma^2 \tau.$ 

- Impose ud = 1 to make nodes at the same horizontal level of the tree have identical price (review p. 231).
  - Other choices are possible (see text).

• The above requirements can be satisfied by

$$u = e^{\sigma\sqrt{\tau/n}}, \quad d = e^{-\sigma\sqrt{\tau/n}}, \quad q = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\mu}{\sigma} \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{n}}.$$
 (23)

• With Eqs. (23),

$$n\widehat{\mu} = \mu \tau,$$

$$n\widehat{\sigma}^2 = \left[1 - \left(\frac{\mu}{\sigma}\right)^2 \frac{\tau}{n}\right] \sigma^2 \tau \to \sigma^2 \tau.$$

- The no-arbitrage inequalities u > R > d may not hold under Eqs. (23) on p. 240.
  - If this happens, the risk-neutral probability may lie outside [0,1].
- $\bullet$  The problem disappears when n satisfies

$$e^{\sigma\sqrt{\tau/n}} > e^{r\tau/n}$$

or when  $n > r^2 \tau / \sigma^2$  (check it).

- So it goes away if n is large enough.
- Other solutions will be presented later.

- What is the limiting probabilistic distribution of the continuously compounded rate of return  $\ln(S_{\tau}/S)$ ?
- The central limit theorem says  $\ln(S_{\tau}/S)$  converges to the normal distribution with mean  $\mu\tau$  and variance  $\sigma^2\tau$ .
- So  $\ln S_{\tau}$  approaches the normal distribution with mean  $\mu \tau + \ln S$  and variance  $\sigma^2 \tau$ .
- $S_{\tau}$  has a lognormal distribution in the limit.

Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

**Lemma 7** The continuously compounded rate of return  $\ln(S_{\tau}/S)$  approaches the normal distribution with mean  $(r - \sigma^2/2)\tau$  and variance  $\sigma^2\tau$  in a risk-neutral economy.

- Let q equal the risk-neutral probability  $p \equiv (e^{r\tau/n} d)/(u d)$ .
- Let  $n \to \infty$ .

## Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

- By Lemma 7 (p. 243) and Eq. (17) on p. 147, the expected stock price at expiration in a risk-neutral economy is  $Se^{r\tau}$ .
- The stock's expected annual rate of return<sup>a</sup> is thus the riskless rate r.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>In the sense of  $(1/\tau) \ln E[S_{\tau}/S]$  (arithmetic average rate of return) not  $(1/\tau)E[\ln(S_{\tau}/S)]$  (geometric average rate of return).

Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (concluded)

Theorem 8 (The Black-Scholes Formula)

$$C = SN(x) - Xe^{-r\tau}N(x - \sigma\sqrt{\tau}),$$
  

$$P = Xe^{-r\tau}N(-x + \sigma\sqrt{\tau}) - SN(-x),$$

where

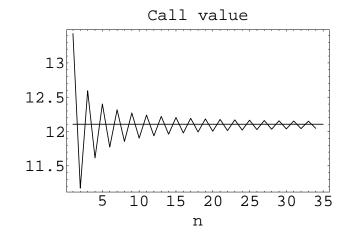
$$x \equiv \frac{\ln(S/X) + (r + \sigma^2/2)\tau}{\sigma\sqrt{\tau}}.$$

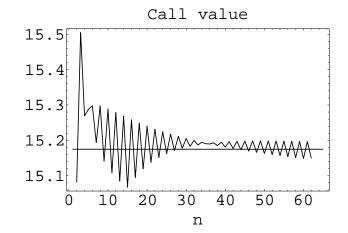
#### BOPM and Black-Scholes Model

- The Black-Scholes formula needs five parameters:  $S, X, \sigma, \tau$ , and r.
- Binomial tree algorithms take six inputs:  $S, X, u, d, \hat{r}$ , and n.
- The connections are

$$u = e^{\sigma \sqrt{\tau/n}}, \ d = e^{-\sigma \sqrt{\tau/n}}, \ \hat{r} = r\tau/n.$$

- The binomial tree algorithms converge reasonably fast.
- Oscillations can be dealt with by the judicious choices of u and d (see text).





S = 100, X = 100 (left), and X = 95 (right).

#### Implied Volatility

- Volatility is the sole parameter not directly observable.
- The Black-Scholes formula can be used to compute the market's opinion of the volatility.
  - Solve for  $\sigma$  given the option price,  $S, X, \tau$ , and r with numerical methods.
  - How about American options?
- This volatility is called the implied volatility.
- Implied volatility is often preferred to historical volatility in practice.<sup>a</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>It is like driving a car with your eyes on the rearview mirror?

#### Problems; the Smile

- Options written on the same underlying asset usually do not produce the same implied volatility.
- A typical pattern is a "smile" in relation to the strike price.
  - The implied volatility is lowest for at-the-money options.
  - It becomes higher the further the option is in- or out-of-the-money.

## Problems; the Smile (concluded)

- To address this issue, volatilities are often combined to produce a composite implied volatility.
- This practice is not sound theoretically.
- The existence of different implied volatilities for options on the same underlying asset shows the Black-Scholes model cannot be literally true.

#### Trading Days and Calendar Days

- Interest accrues based on the calendar day.
- But  $\sigma$  is usually calculated based on trading days only.
  - Stock price seems to have lower volatilities when the exchange is closed.<sup>a</sup>
  - $-\sigma$  measures the volatility of stock price one year from now (regardless of what happens in between).
- How to incorporate these two different ways of day count into the Black-Scholes formula and binomial tree algorithms?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Fama (1965); French (1980); French and Roll (1986).

# Trading Days and Calendar Days (concluded)

- Suppose a year has 260 trading days.
- A quick and dirty way is to replace  $\sigma$  with<sup>a</sup>

$$\sigma \sqrt{\frac{365}{260}} \frac{\text{number of trading days to expiration}}{\text{number of calendar days to expiration}}$$

• How about binomial tree algorithms?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>French (1984).

#### Binomial Tree Algorithms for American Puts

- Early exercise has to be considered.
- The binomial tree algorithm starts with the terminal payoffs

$$\max(0, X - Su^j d^{n-j})$$

and applies backward induction.

• At each intermediate node, it checks for early exercise by comparing the payoff if exercised with the continuation value.

#### Bermudan Options

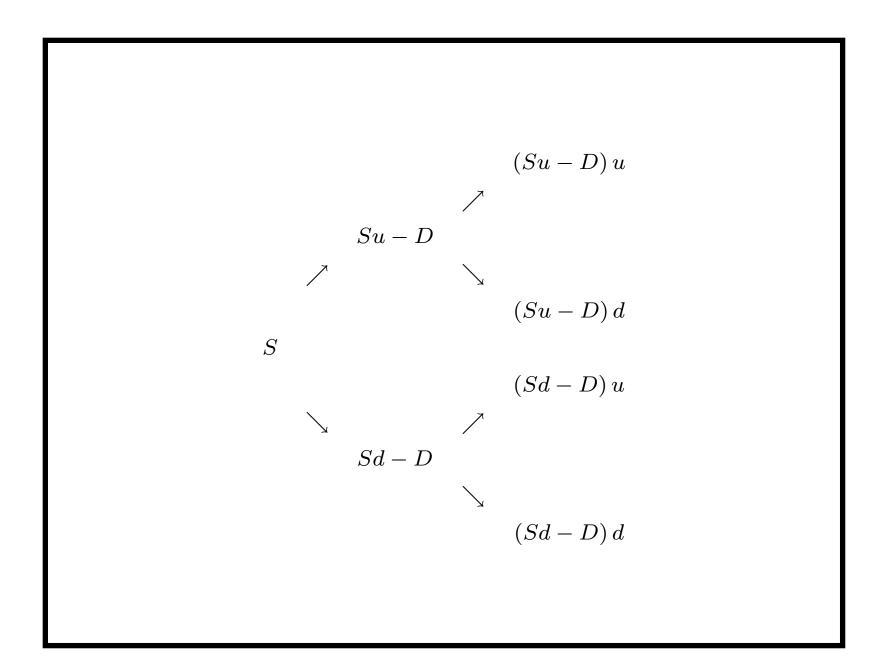
- Some American options can be exercised only at discrete time points instead of continuously.
- They are called Bermudan options.
- Their pricing algorithm is identical to that for American options.
- The only exception is early exercise is considered for only those nodes when early exercise is permitted.

#### Options on a Stock That Pays Dividends

- Early exercise must be considered.
- Proportional dividend payout model is tractable (see text).
  - The dividend amount is a constant proportion of the prevailing stock price.
- In general, the corporate dividend policy is a complex issue.

#### Known Dividends

- Constant dividends introduce complications.
- Use D to denote the amount of the dividend.
- Suppose an ex-dividend date falls in the first period.
- At the end of that period, the possible stock prices are Su D and Sd D.
- Follow the stock price one more period.
- The number of possible stock prices is not three but four: (Su D) u, (Su D) d, (Sd D) u, (Sd D) d.
  - The binomial tree no longer combines.



#### An Ad-Hoc Approximation

- Use the Black-Scholes formula with the stock price reduced by the PV of the dividends (Roll, 1977).
- This essentially decomposes the stock price into a riskless one paying known dividends and a risky one.
- The riskless component at any time is the PV of future dividends during the life of the option.
  - $-\sigma$  equal to the volatility of the process followed by the risky component.
- The stock price, between two adjacent ex-dividend dates, follows the same lognormal distribution.

## An Ad-Hoc Approximation (concluded)

- Start with the current stock price minus the PV of future dividends before expiration.
- Develop the binomial tree for the new stock price as if there were no dividends.
- Then add to each stock price on the tree the PV of all future dividends before expiration.
- American option prices can be computed as before on this tree of stock prices.

#### A General Approach<sup>a</sup>

- A new tree structure.
- No approximation assumptions are made.
- A mathematical proof that the tree can always be constructed.
- The actual performance is quadratic except in pathological cases.
- Other approaches include adjusting  $\sigma$  and approximating the known dividend with a dividend yield.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Dai and Lyuu (2004).

#### Continuous Dividend Yields

- Dividends are paid continuously.
  - Approximates a broad-based stock market portfolio.
- The payment of a continuous dividend yield at rate q reduces the growth rate of the stock price by q.
  - A stock that grows from S to  $S_{\tau}$  with a continuous dividend yield of q would grow from S to  $S_{\tau}e^{q\tau}$  without the dividends.
- A European option has the same value as one on a stock with price  $Se^{-q\tau}$  that pays no dividends.

## Continuous Dividend Yields (continued)

• The Black-Scholes formulas hold with S replaced by  $Se^{-q\tau}$  (Merton, 1973):

$$C = Se^{-q\tau}N(x) - Xe^{-r\tau}N(x - \sigma\sqrt{\tau}), \qquad (24)$$

$$P = Xe^{-r\tau}N(-x + \sigma\sqrt{\tau}) - Se^{-q\tau}N(-x),$$
(24')

where

$$x \equiv \frac{\ln(S/X) + (r - q + \sigma^2/2)\tau}{\sigma\sqrt{\tau}}.$$

- Formulas (24) and (24') remain valid as long as the dividend yield is predictable.
- Replace q with the average annualized dividend yield.

# Continuous Dividend Yields (continued)

- To run binomial tree algorithms, replace u with  $ue^{-q\Delta t}$  and d with  $de^{-q\Delta t}$ , where  $\Delta t \equiv \tau/n$ .
  - The reason: The stock price grows at an expected rate of r-q in a risk-neutral economy.
- Other than the changes, binomial tree algorithms stay the same.
  - In particular, p should use the original u and d.<sup>a</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup>Contributed by Ms. Chuan-Ju Wang (R95922018) on May 2, 2007.

## Continuous Dividend Yields (concluded)

• Alternatively, pick the risk-neutral probability as

$$\frac{e^{(r-q)\,\Delta t} - d}{u - d},\tag{25}$$

where  $\Delta t \equiv \tau/n$ .

- The reason: The stock price grows at an expected rate of r-q in a risk-neutral economy.
- $\bullet$  The u and d remain unchanged.
- Other than the change in Eq. (25), binomial tree algorithms stay the same.