Consequences of Put-Call Parity

• There is only one kind of European option.
  – The other can be replicated from it in combination with stock and riskless lending or borrowing.
  – Combinations such as this create synthetic securities.

• $S = C - P + PV(X)$: A stock is equivalent to a portfolio containing a long call, a short put, and lending $PV(X)$.

• $C - P = S - PV(X)$: A long call and a short put amount to a long position in stock and borrowing the PV of the strike price (buying stock on margin).
Intrinsic Value

**Lemma 3** An American call or a European call on a non-dividend-paying stock is never worth less than its intrinsic value.

- An American call cannot be worth less than its intrinsic value.\(^a\)
- For European options, the put-call parity implies
  \[ C = (S - X) + (X - PV(X)) + P \geq S - X. \]
- Recall \( C \geq 0 \) (p. 218).
- It follows that \( C \geq \max(S - X, 0) \), the intrinsic value.

\(^a\)See Lemma 8.3.1 of the textbook.
Intrinsic Value (concluded)

A European put on a non-dividend-paying stock may be worth less than its intrinsic value.

**Lemma 4** For European puts, $P \geq \max(PV(X) - S, 0)$.

- Prove it with the put-call parity.$^a$
- Can explain the right figure on p. 190 why $P < X - S$ when $S$ is small.

$^a$See Lemma 8.3.2 of the textbook.
Early Exercise of American Calls

European calls and American calls are identical when the underlying stock pays no dividends.

**Theorem 5 (Merton, 1973)** An American call on a non-dividend-paying stock should not be exercised before expiration.

- By Exercise 8.3.2 of the text, \( C \geq \max(S - \text{PV}(X), 0) \).
- If the call is exercised, the value is \( S - X \).
- But

\[
\max(S - \text{PV}(X), 0) \geq S - X.
\]
Remarks

• The above theorem does not mean American calls should be kept until maturity.

• What it does imply is that when early exercise is being considered, a better alternative is to sell it.

• Early exercise may become optimal for American calls on a dividend-paying stock, however.
  – Stock price declines as the stock goes ex-dividend.
  – And recall that we assume options are unprotected.
Early Exercise of American Calls: Dividend Case

Surprisingly, an American call should be exercised only at a few dates.\textsuperscript{a}

\textbf{Theorem 6} \textit{An American call will only be exercised at expiration or just before an ex-dividend date.}

In contrast, it might be optimal to exercise an American put even if the underlying stock does not pay dividends.

\textsuperscript{a}See Theorem 8.4.2 of the textbook.
A General Result$^a$

**Theorem 7 (Cox & Rubinstein, 1985)** Any piecewise linear payoff function can be replicated using a portfolio of calls and puts.

**Corollary 8** Any sufficiently well-behaved payoff function can be approximated by a portfolio of calls and puts.

$^a$See Exercise 8.3.6 of the textbook.
Option Pricing Models
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.\(^a\)
  - Known as the Black-Scholes option pricing model.

\(^a\)The results were obtained as early as June 1969. Merton and Scholes were winners of the 1997 Nobel Prize in Economic Sciences.
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.
- $R \triangleq e^{\hat{r}}$: 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.\(^a\)

• Six pieces of information will suffice to determine the option value based on arbitrage considerations:
  \( S, u, d, X, \hat{r} \), and the number of periods to expiration.

\(^a\)See Exercise 9.2.1 of the textbook.
\[ S \xrightarrow{q} Su \quad 1-q \xrightarrow{} Sd \]
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 1 if the stock price moves to $S_u$.
- $C_d$ is the call price at time 1 if the stock price moves to $S_d$.
- Clearly,

\[
C_u = \max(0, S_u - X),
\]
\[
C_d = \max(0, S_d - X).
\]
\[ C_u = \max(0, S_u - X) \]
\[ C_d = \max(0, S_d - X) \]
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
  
  \[ hSu + RB, \quad \text{up move,} \]
  
  \[ hSd + RB, \quad \text{down move.} \]
Call on a Non-Dividend-Paying Stock: Single Period (continued)

- Choose $h$ and $B$ such that the portfolio replicates the payoff of the call,

\[
\begin{align*}
    hS_u + RB &= C_u, \\
    hS_d + RB &= C_d.
\end{align*}
\]
Call on a Non-Dividend-Paying Stock: Single Period (concluded)

- Solve the above equations to obtain

\[ h = \frac{C_u - C_d}{S_u - S_d} \geq 0, \]  
\[ B = \frac{uC_d - dC_u}{(u - d) R}. \]  

- 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 \textit{levered} long position in stocks.

\(^a\)Or the replicating portfolio, as it replicates the option.
American Call Pricing in One Period

• Have to consider immediate exercise.

• $C = \max(hS + B, S - X)$.
  
  – When $hS + B \geq S - X$, 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 5 (p. 226).

• So

$$C = hS + B.$$
Put Pricing in One Period

- Puts can be similarly priced.
- The delta for the put is \( \frac{P_u - P_d}{S_u - S_d} \leq 0 \), where
  \[
  P_u = \max(0, X - S_u),
  \]
  \[
  P_d = \max(0, X - S_d).
  \]
- 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 $q$.\(^a\)
- Hence it is independent of the expected gross return of the stock, $qSu + (1 - q)Sd$.
- The option value depends on the sizes of price changes, $u$ and $d$, which the investors must agree upon.
- Then the set of possible stock prices is the same whatever $q$ is.

\(^a\)More precisely, not directly dependent on $q$. Thanks to a lively class discussion on March 16, 2011.
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

\[ hS + B = \frac{p C_u + (1-p) C_d}{R}, \]

where

\[ p \triangleq \frac{R-d}{u-d}. \quad (32) \]

• As \( 0 < p < 1 \), 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
  \[ pSu + (1 - p) Sd = RS. \] (33)

- 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.
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: $S_{uu}$, $S_{ud}$, and $S_{dd}$.
  - There are 4 paths.
  - But the tree combines or recombines.

- At any node, the next two stock prices only depend on the current price, not the prices of earlier times.$^a$

$^a$It is Markovian.
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 $S_{uu}$.
- Thus,
  
  $$C_{uu} = \max(0, S_{uu} - X).$$
- $C_{ud}$ and $C_{dd}$ can be calculated analogously,
  
  $$C_{ud} = \max(0, S_{ud} - X),$$
  $$C_{dd} = \max(0, S_{dd} - X).$$
\[ C_{uu} = \max(0, S_{uu} - X) \]
\[ C_{ud} = \max(0, S_{ud} - X) \]
\[ C_{dd} = \max(0, S_{dd} - X) \]
Option on a Non-Dividend-Paying Stock: Multi-Period (continued)

- The call values at time 1 can be obtained by applying the same logic:

\[ C_u = \frac{pC_{uu} + (1 - p)C_{ud}}{R}, \]

\[ C_d = \frac{pC_{ud} + (1 - p)C_{dd}}{R}. \]

- Deltas can be derived from Eq. (30) on p. 240.
- For example, the delta at \( C_u \) is

\[ \frac{C_{uu} - C_{ud}}{S_{uu} - S_{ud}}. \]
Option on a Non-Dividend-Paying Stock: Multi-Period (concluded)

- We now reach the current period.
- Compute
  \[ \frac{pC_u + (1 - p)C_d}{R} \]
  as the option price.
- The values of delta \( h \) and \( B \) can be derived from Eqs. (30)–(31) on p. 240.
Early Exercise

- Since the call will not be exercised at time 1 even if it is American, $C_u \geq Su - X$ and $C_d \geq Sd - X$.

- Therefore,

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

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

- The call again will not be exercised at present.\(^a\)

- So

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

\(^a\)Consistent with Theorem 5 (p. 226).
Backward Induction

• 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. (34) on p. 250.

• This recursive procedure is called backward induction.

• $C$ equals

\[
\begin{align*}
\left[ p^2 C_{uu} + 2p(1-p) C_{ud} + (1-p)^2 C_{dd} \right] (1/R^2) \\
= \left[ p^2 \max(0, S u^2 - X) + 2p(1-p) \max(0, S u d - X) \\
+ (1-p)^2 \max(0, S d^2 - X) \right] / R^2.
\end{align*}
\]

\(^{a}\)Ernst Zermelo (1871–1953).
Backward Induction (continued)

• 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.

• Similarly,

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

• Note that

\[ p_j \triangleq \left( \begin{array}{c} n \\ j \end{array} \right) p^j (1 - p)^{n-j} \]

\[ \frac{R^n}{R^n} \]

is the state price\(^a\) for the state \( Su^j d^{n-j} \), \( j = 0, 1, \ldots, n \).

• In general,

\[ \text{option price} = \sum_j p_j \times \text{payoff at state } j. \]

\(^a\)Recall p. 205. One can obtain the undiscounted state price \( \left( \begin{array}{c} n \\ j \end{array} \right) p^j (1 - p)^{n-j} \)—the risk-neutral probability—for the state \( Su^j d^{n-j} \) with \( (X_M - X_L)^{-1} \) units of the butterfly spread where \( X_L = Su^{j-1} d^{n-j+1} \), \( X_M = Su^j d^{n-j} \), and \( X_H = Su^{j-1+1} d^{n-j-1} \). See Bahra (1997).
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

$$e^{-\hat{\tau} n} \mathbb{E}^{\pi} [ \mathcal{D} ].$$  \hspace{1cm} (35)

– $\mathbb{E}^{\pi}$ 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.

• But it does not depend on 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.\(^a\)
  
  – Changes in value are due entirely to capital gains.

\(^a\)Except at the beginning, of course, when you have to put up the option value \(C\) or \(P\) before the replication starts.
Binomial Distribution

- Denote the binomial distribution with parameters $n$ and $p$ by

\[ b(j; n, p) \triangleq \binom{n}{j} p^j (1 - p)^{n-j} = \frac{n!}{j! (n-j)!} p^j (1 - p)^{n-j}. \]

- $n! = 1 \times 2 \times \cdots \times n$.
- Convention: $0! = 1$.

- Suppose you flip a coin $n$ times with $p$ being the probability of getting heads.

- Then $b(j; n, p)$ is the probability of getting $j$ heads.
The Binomial Option Pricing Formula

- The stock prices at time \( n \) are
  \[ Su^n, Su^{n-1}d, \ldots, Sd^n. \]

- 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 \( j \) such that
  \[ Su^j d^{n-j} \geq X, \]
  or, equivalently,
  \[ a = \left\lceil \frac{\ln(X/Sd^n)}{\ln(u/d)} \right\rceil. \]
The Binomial Option Pricing Formula (concluded)

- Hence,

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

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

\[
= S \sum_{j=a}^{n} b(j; n, pu/R) - X e^{-\hat{r}n} \sum_{j=a}^{n} b(j; n, p).
\]
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:
  $$\frac{390 \times 0.343 + 30 \times 0.441 + 0 \times 0.189 + 0 \times 0.027}{(1.2)^3} = 85.069.$$
Binomial process for the stock price
(probabilities in parentheses)

160
  80 (0.3)
  40 (0.09)
   20 (0.027)

120 (0.42)
  80 (0.3)
  40 (0.09)

360 (0.49)
  240 (0.7)
  180 (0.441)

540 (0.343)

Binomial process for the call price
(hedge ratios in parentheses)

235 (1.0)
  141.458 (0.90625)
  17.5 (0.25)
   10.208 (0.21875)
    0 (0.0)
     0

390
  30
   0
Numerical Examples (continued)

- 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,
  \[
  90 - 85.069 = 4.931 \text{ dollars},
  \]
  is the arbitrage profit as we will see.
Numerical Examples (continued)

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.
Numerical Examples (continued)

• The trading strategy is self-financing because the portfolio has a value of

\[ 0.90625 \times 240 - 76.04232 = 141.45768. \]

• It matches the corresponding call value!
Numerical Examples (continued)

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.
Numerical Examples (continued)

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.
Applications besides Exploiting Arbitrage Opportunities

- Replicate an option using stocks and bonds.
  - Set up a portfolio to replicate the call with $85.069.

- Hedge the options we issued.
  - Use $85.069 to set up a portfolio to replicate the call to counterbalance its values exactly.

- Without hedge, one may end up forking out $390 in the worst case!

---

\[a\] Thanks to a lively class discussion on March 16, 2011.
\[b\] Hedging and replication are mirror images.
\[c\] Thanks to a lively class discussion on March 16, 2016.
Binomial Tree Algorithms for European Options

• The BOPM implies the binomial tree algorithm that applies backward induction.

• The total running time is $O(n^2)$ because there are $\sim n^2/2$ nodes.

• The memory requirement is $O(n^2)$.
  – Can be easily reduced to $O(n)$ by reusing space.\(^a\)

• To price European puts, simply replace the payoff.

\(^a\)But watch out for the proper updating of array entries.
Further Time Improvement for Calls
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 $b[j]$:
- It runs in $O(n)$ steps.

1: $b[a] := \binom{n}{a} p^a (1 - p)^{n-a}$;
2: for $j = a + 1, a + 2, \ldots, n$ do
3: $b[j] := b[j - 1] \times p \times (n - j + 1)/((1 - p) \times j)$;
4: end for
Optimal Algorithm (concluded)

• With the $b(j; n, p)$ available, the risk-neutral valuation formula (36) on p. 261 is trivial to compute.

• But 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.\(^a\)

- Need to calibrate the BOPM’s parameters \( u, d, \) and \( R \) to make it converge to the continuous-time model.

- We now skim through the proof.

\(^a\)Continuous-time trading may create arbitrage opportunities in practice (Budish, Cramton, & Shim, 2015)!
Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

• 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 \( n \to \infty \).
Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

• First, \( \hat{r} = r\tau/n \).
  – Each period is \( \tau/n \) years long.
  – The period gross return \( R = e^{\hat{r}} \).

• Let

\[
\hat{\mu} \triangleq \frac{1}{n} \mathbb{E} \left[ \ln \frac{S_\tau}{S} \right]
\]

 denote the expected value of the continuously compounded rate of return per period of the BOPM.

• Let

\[
\hat{\sigma}^2 \triangleq \frac{1}{n} \text{Var} \left[ \ln \frac{S_\tau}{S} \right]
\]

denote the variance of that return.
Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

- Under the BOPM, it is not hard to show that\(^a\)

\[
\hat{\mu} = q \ln(u/d) + \ln d, \\
\hat{\sigma}^2 = q(1 - q) \ln^2(u/d).
\]

- Assume the stock’s \textit{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.

\(^a\)The Bernoulli distribution.
Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

- The BOPM converges to the distribution only if

\[ n\hat{\mu} = n[q \ln(u/d) + \ln d] \to \mu \tau, \quad (38) \]

\[ n\hat{\sigma}^2 = nq(1 - q) \ln^2(u/d) \to \sigma^2 \tau. \quad (39) \]

- We need one more condition to have a solution for \( u, d, q \).
Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

• Impose

\[ ud = 1. \]

– It makes nodes at the same horizontal level of the tree have identical price (review p. 273).
– Other choices are possible (see text).

• Exact solutions for \( u, d, q \) are feasible if Eqs. (38)–(39) are replaced by equations: 3 equations for 3 variables.\(^a\)

\(^{a}\)Chance (2008).
Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

• The above requirements can be satisfied by

\[ u = e^{\sigma \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{n}}}, \quad d = e^{-\sigma \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{n}}}, \quad q = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\mu}{\sigma} \sqrt{\frac{\tau}{n}}. \]  \hspace{1cm} (40)

• With Eqs. (40), it can be checked that

\[ n\hat{\mu} = \mu \tau, \]

\[ n\hat{\sigma}^2 = \left[ 1 - \left( \frac{\mu}{\sigma} \right)^2 \frac{\tau}{n} \right] \sigma^2 \tau \rightarrow \sigma^2 \tau. \]
Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

- The choices (40) result in the CRR binomial model.\(^a\)

- With the above choice, even if \(u\) and \(d\) are not calibrated, the mean is still matched!\(^b\)

\(^a\)Cox, Ross, & Rubinstein (1979).
\(^b\)Recall Eq. (33) on p. 245. So \(u\) and \(d\) are related to volatility.
Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

- The no-arbitrage inequalities \( d < R < u \) may not hold under Eqs. (40) on p. 284 or Eq. (32) on p. 244.
  - If this happens, the probabilities lie outside \([0, 1]\).

- The problem disappears when \( n \) satisfies
  \[
e^\sigma \sqrt{\tau/n} > e^{r\tau/n},
  \]
i.e., when \( n > r^2 \tau / \sigma^2 \) (check it).
  - So it goes away if \( n \) is large enough.
  - Other solutions will be presented later.

\(^a\)Many papers and programs forget to check this condition!
Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

• The central limit theorem says $\ln(S_\tau/S)$ converges to $N(\mu \tau, \sigma^2 \tau)$.\(^a\)

• So $\ln S_\tau$ approaches $N(\mu \tau + \ln S, \sigma^2 \tau)$.

• Conclusion: $S_\tau$ has a lognormal distribution in the limit.

\(^a\)The normal distribution with mean $\mu \tau$ and variance $\sigma^2 \tau$. 
Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

Lemma 9  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
  \[
  p \triangleq \frac{(e^{r\tau/n} - d)}{(u - d)}.
  \]
- Let \( n \to \infty \).
- Then \( \mu = r - \sigma^2/2 \).

\(^{a}\)See Lemma 9.3.3 of the textbook.
Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

• The expected stock price at expiration in a risk-neutral economy is\(^a\)

\[ Se^{r\tau}. \]

• The stock’s expected annual rate of return\(^b\) is thus the riskless rate \( r \).

\(^a\)By Lemma 9 (p. 289) and Eq. (28) on p. 175.

\(^b\)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). In the latter case, it would be \( r - \sigma^2/2 \) by Lemma 9.
Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)\textsuperscript{a}

Theorem 10 (The Black-Scholes Formula)

\[ C = SN(x) - X e^{-r\tau} N(x - \sigma \sqrt{\tau}), \]
\[ P = X e^{-r\tau} N(-x + \sigma \sqrt{\tau}) - SN(-x), \]

where

\[ x \triangleq \frac{\ln(S/X) + (r + \sigma^2/2) \tau}{\sigma \sqrt{\tau}}. \]

\textsuperscript{a}On a United flight from San Francisco to Tokyo on March 7, 2010, a real-estate manager mentioned this formula to me!
Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (concluded)

- See Eq. (37) on p. 261 for the meaning of $x$.
- See Exercise 13.2.12 of the textbook for an interpretation of the probability measure associated with $N(x)$ and $N(-x)$. 
BOPM and Black-Scholes Model

- The Black-Scholes formula needs 5 parameters: $S$, $X$, $\sigma$, $\tau$, and $r$.

- Binomial tree algorithms take 6 inputs: $S$, $X$, $u$, $d$, $\hat{r}$, and $n$.

- The connections are

\[
\begin{align*}
  u &= e^{\sigma \sqrt{\tau/n}}, \\
  d &= e^{-\sigma \sqrt{\tau/n}}, \\
  \hat{r} &= r \tau/n.
\end{align*}
\]
- $S = 100$, $X = 100$ (left), and $X = 95$ (right).
BOPM and Black-Scholes Model (concluded)

- The binomial tree algorithms converge reasonably fast.
- The error is $O(1/n)$.$^a$
- Oscillations are inherent, however.
- Oscillations can be dealt with by the judicious choices of $u$ and $d$.$^b$

---

$^b$See Exercise 9.3.8 of the textbook.
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.\(^a\)
  - Solve for \(\sigma\) given the option price, \(S\), \(X\), \(\tau\), and \(r\) with numerical methods.
  - How about American options?

\(^a\)Implied volatility is hard to compute when \(\tau\) is small (why?).
Implied Volatility (concluded)

• Implied volatility is the wrong number to put in the wrong formula to get the right price of plain-vanilla options.\(^a\)

• Implied volatility is often preferred to historical volatility in practice.
  – Using the historical volatility is like driving a car with your eyes on the rearview mirror?

\(^a\)Rebonato (2004).
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.

• Other patterns have also been observed.
TXO futures calls (September 25, 2015)$^a$

ATM = $8132$

The index futures closed at 8132. Plot supplied by Mr. Lok, U Hou (D99922028) on December 6, 2017.

\(^a\)The index futures closed at 8132. Plot supplied by Mr. Lok, U Hou (D99922028) on December 6, 2017.
Solutions to the Smile

- 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.
- So?
Binomial Tree Algorithms for American Puts

- Early exercise has to be considered.
- The binomial tree algorithm starts with the terminal payoffs
  \[ \max(0, X - Su^j d^{m-j}) \]
  and applies backward induction.
- At each intermediate node, it compares the payoff if exercised and the continuation value.
- It keeps the larger one.
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.
- But early exercise is considered for only those nodes when early exercise is permitted.
Time-Dependent Instantaneous Volatility

- Suppose the (instantaneous) volatility can change over time but otherwise predictable: $\sigma(t)$ instead of $\sigma$.

- In the limit, the variance of $\ln(S_\tau/S)$ is
  
  \[ \int_0^\tau \sigma^2(t) \, dt \]

  rather than $\sigma^2 \tau$.

- The annualized volatility to be used in the Black-Scholes formula should now be
  
  \[ \sqrt{\frac{\int_0^\tau \sigma^2(t) \, dt}{\tau}}. \]

\(^a\)Merton (1973).
Time-Dependent Instantaneous Volatility (concluded)

- There is no guarantee that the implied volatility is constant.

- For the binomial model, $u$ and $d$ depend on time:

\[
\begin{align*}
    u &= e^{\sigma(t)\sqrt{\frac{\tau}{n}}}, \\
    d &= e^{-\sigma(t)\sqrt{\frac{\tau}{n}}}.
\end{align*}
\]

- How to make the binomial tree combine?\(^a\)

\(^a\)Amin (1991); C. I. Chen (R98922127) (2011).
Volatility (1990–2016)$^a$

CBOE S&P 500 Volatility Index

$^a$Supplied by Mr. Lok, U Hou (D99922028) on July 17, 2017.