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

$$C = (S - X) + (X - \mathrm{PV}(X)) + P \geq S - X.$$

- 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,* $P \geq \max(\mathrm{PV}(X) - S, 0)$.

- 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, $C \geq \max(S - \mathrm{PV}(X), 0)$.
- If the call is exercised, the value is $S - X$.
- But
$$\max(S - \mathrm{PV}(X), 0) \geq S - X.$$

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.[a]

Theorem 6 *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.

[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.
- $R \stackrel{\Delta}{=} e^{\hat{r}}$: gross return.
- Start from the discrete-time binomial model.

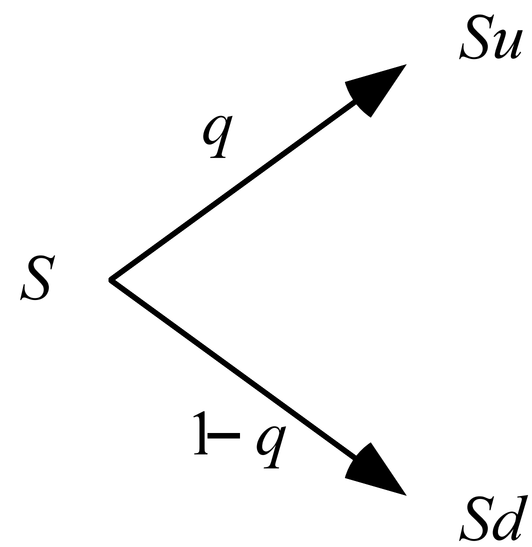
Binomial Option Pricing Model (BOPM)

- 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.

---

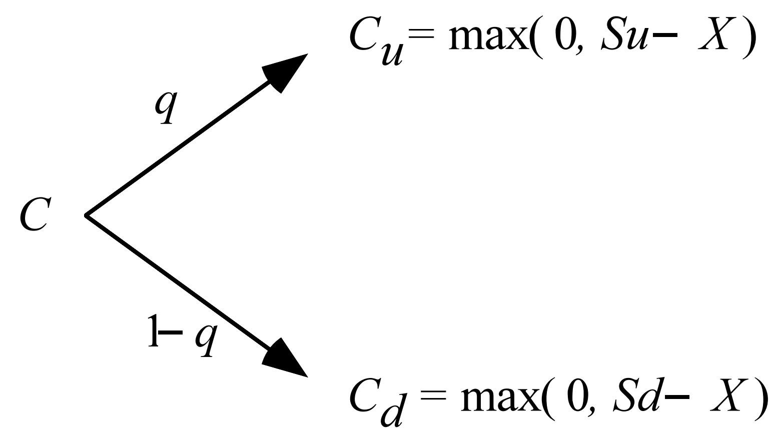
[a]See Exercise 9.2.1 of the textbook.


Su
q
S
1 − q
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 Su.
- C_d is the call price at time 1 if the stock price moves to Sd.
- Clearly,

$$
\begin{aligned}
C_u &= \max(0, Su - X), \\
C_d &= \max(0, Sd - X).
\end{aligned}
$$


$C_u = \max(0, Su - X)$
q
C
$1 - q$
$C_d = \max(0, Sd - X)$

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

$$\begin{array}{ll} hSu + RB, & \text{up move,} \\ hSd + RB, & \text{down move.} \end{array}$$

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} hSu + RB &= C_u, \\ hSd + RB &= C_d. \end{aligned}$$

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

- Solve the above equations to obtain

$$h = \frac{C_u - C_d}{Su - Sd} \geq 0, \tag{30}$$

$$B = \frac{uC_d - dC_u}{(u-d)\,R}. \tag{31}$$

- By the no-arbitrage principle, the European call should cost the same as the equivalent portfolio,[a]

$$C = hS + B.$$

- As $uC_d - dC_u < 0$, the equivalent portfolio is a *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 $(P_u - P_d)/(Su - Sd) \leq 0$, where

$$
\begin{aligned}
P_u &= \max(0, X - Su), \\
P_d &= \max(0, X - Sd).
\end{aligned}
$$

- 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

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

where

$$p \triangleq \frac{R-d}{u-d}. \tag{32}$$

- 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

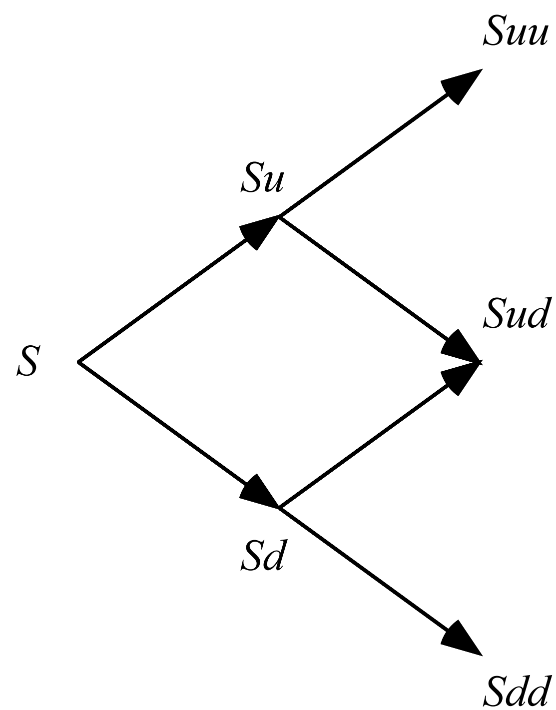
$$pSu + (1 - p)\, Sd = RS. \tag{33}$$

- 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: Suu, Sud, and Sdd.
  - 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.



Suu
Su
Sud
S
Sd
Sdd

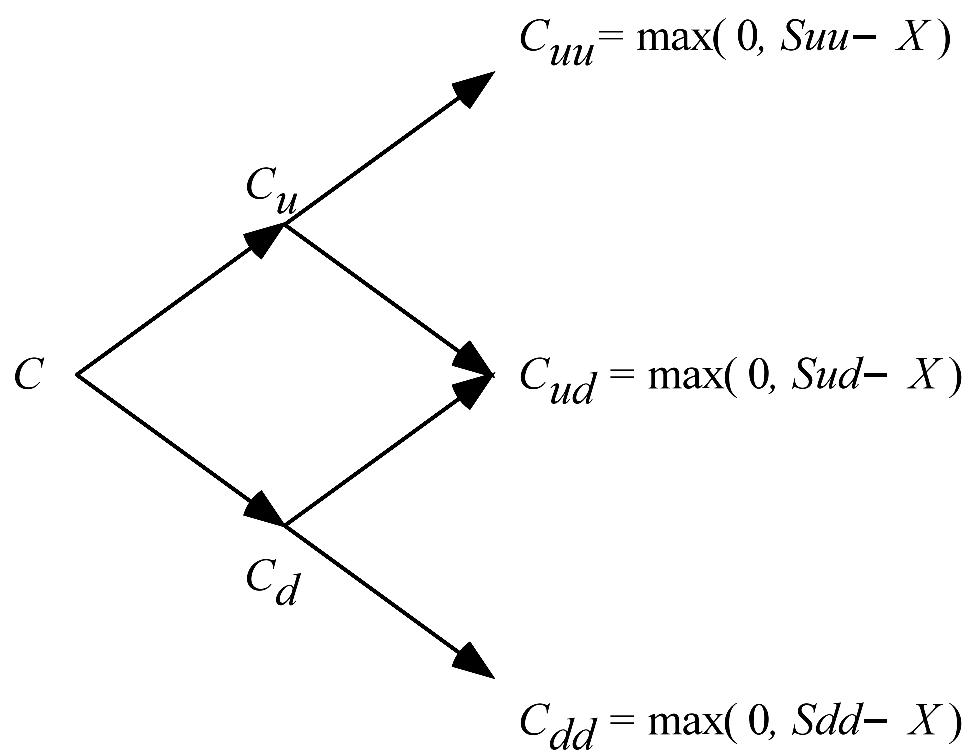
Option on a Non-Dividend-Paying Stock: Multi-Period (continued)

- 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,

$$\begin{aligned} C_{ud} &= \max(0, Sud - X), \\ C_{dd} &= \max(0, Sdd - X). \end{aligned}$$


$C_{uu} = \max(0, Suu - X)$
C_u
C
$C_{ud} = \max(0, Sud - X)$
C_d
$C_{dd} = \max(0, Sdd - X)$

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

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

$$C_u = \frac{pC_{uu} + (1-p)\, C_{ud}}{R}, \tag{34}$$

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

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

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

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,

$$\begin{aligned} hS + B &= \frac{pC_u + (1-p)\,C_d}{R} \geq \frac{[\,pu + (1-p)\,d\,]\,S - X}{R} \\ &= S - \frac{X}{R} > S - X. \end{aligned}$$

  – The call again will not be exercised at present.[a]

- So

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

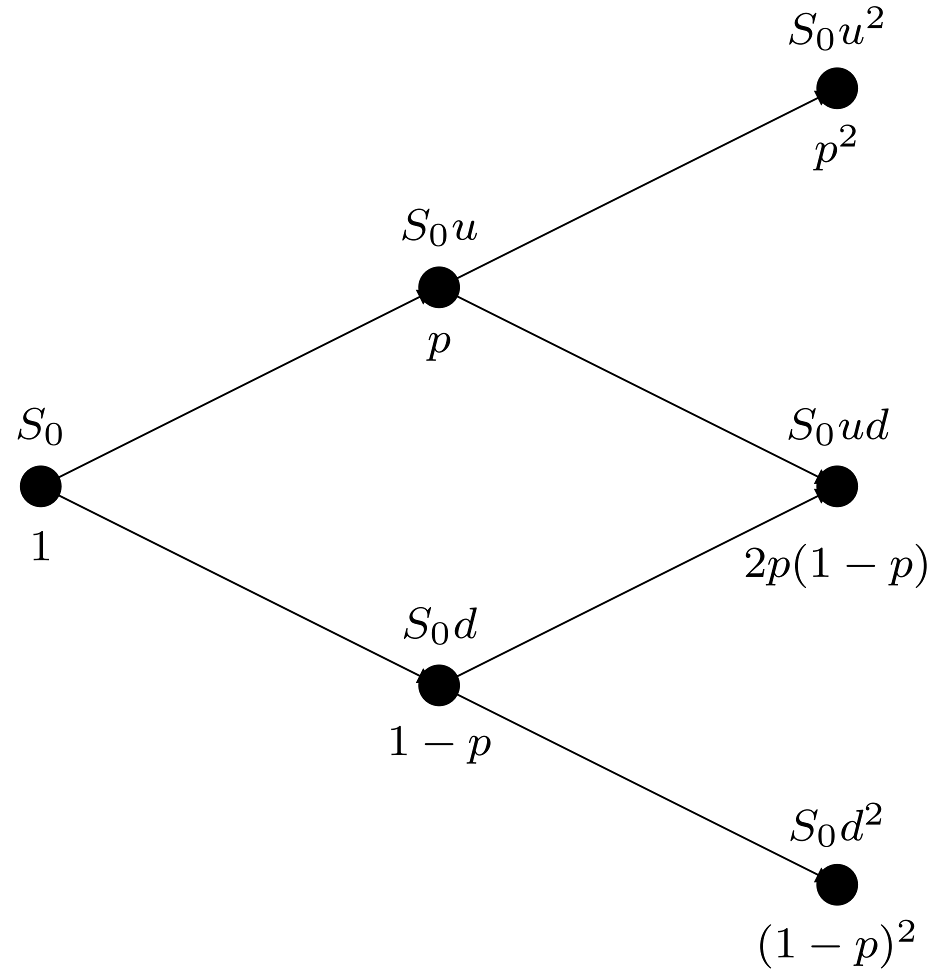
[a]Consistent with Theorem 5 (p. 226).

Backward Induction[a]

- 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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& [\,p^2 C_{uu} + 2p(1-p)\, C_{ud} + (1-p)^2 C_{dd}](1/R^2) \\
= \;& [\,p^2 \max\big(0, Su^2 - X\big) + 2p(1-p) \max\left(0, Sud - X\right) \\
& +(1-p)^2 \max\big(0, Sd^2 - X\big)\,]/R^2.
\end{aligned}
$$

[a]Ernst Zermelo (1871–1953).


S_0u^2
p^2
S_0u
p
S_0
1
S_0ud
$2p(1-p)$
S_0d
$1-p$
S_0d^2
$(1-p)^2$

Backward Induction (continued)

- In the n-period case,

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

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

- Similarly,

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

Backward Induction (concluded)

- Note that
$$p_j \triangleq \frac{\binom{n}{j} p^j (1-p)^{n-j}}{R^n}$$
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 $\binom{n}{j} p^j (1-p)^{n-j}$—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

$$e^{-\hat{r}n} E^{\pi}[\,\mathcal{D}\,]. \tag{35}$$

  - E^{π} 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,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& C \\
= \; & \frac{\sum_{j=a}^{n} \binom{n}{j} p^j (1-p)^{n-j} \left(S u^j d^{n-j} - X \right)}{R^n} && (36) \\
= \; & S \sum_{j=a}^{n} \binom{n}{j} \frac{(pu)^j [\,(1-p)\, d\,]^{n-j}}{R^n} \\
& - \frac{X}{R^n} \sum_{j=a}^{n} \binom{n}{j} p^j (1-p)^{n-j} \\
= \; & S \sum_{j=a}^{n} b\,(j; n, pu/R) - X e^{-\hat{r} n} \sum_{j=a}^{n} b(j; n, p). && (37)
\end{aligned}
$$

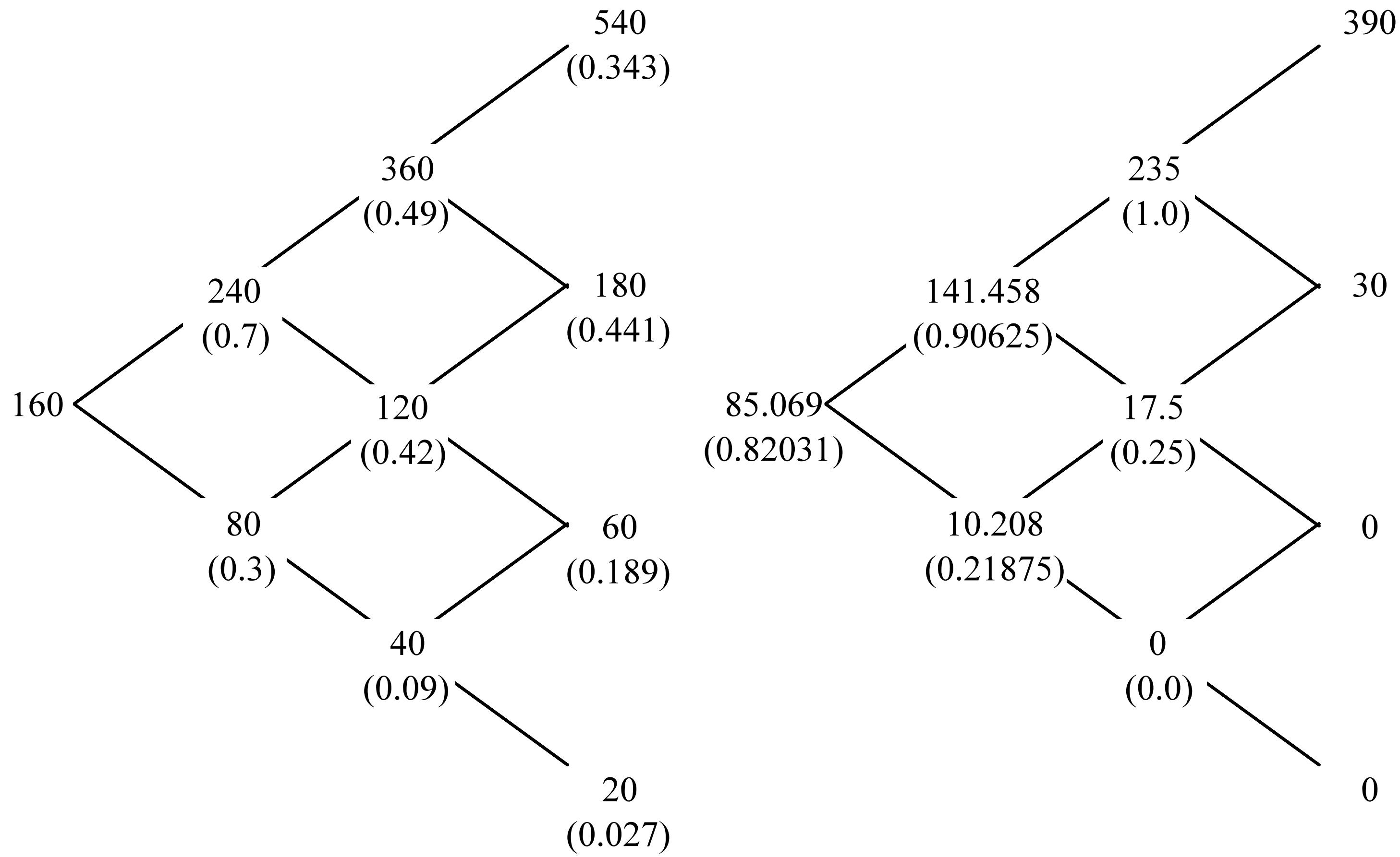
Numerical Examples

- 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)

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



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[a]

- 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.[b]
- $\cdots$
- Without hedge, one may end up forking out \$390 in the worst case![c]

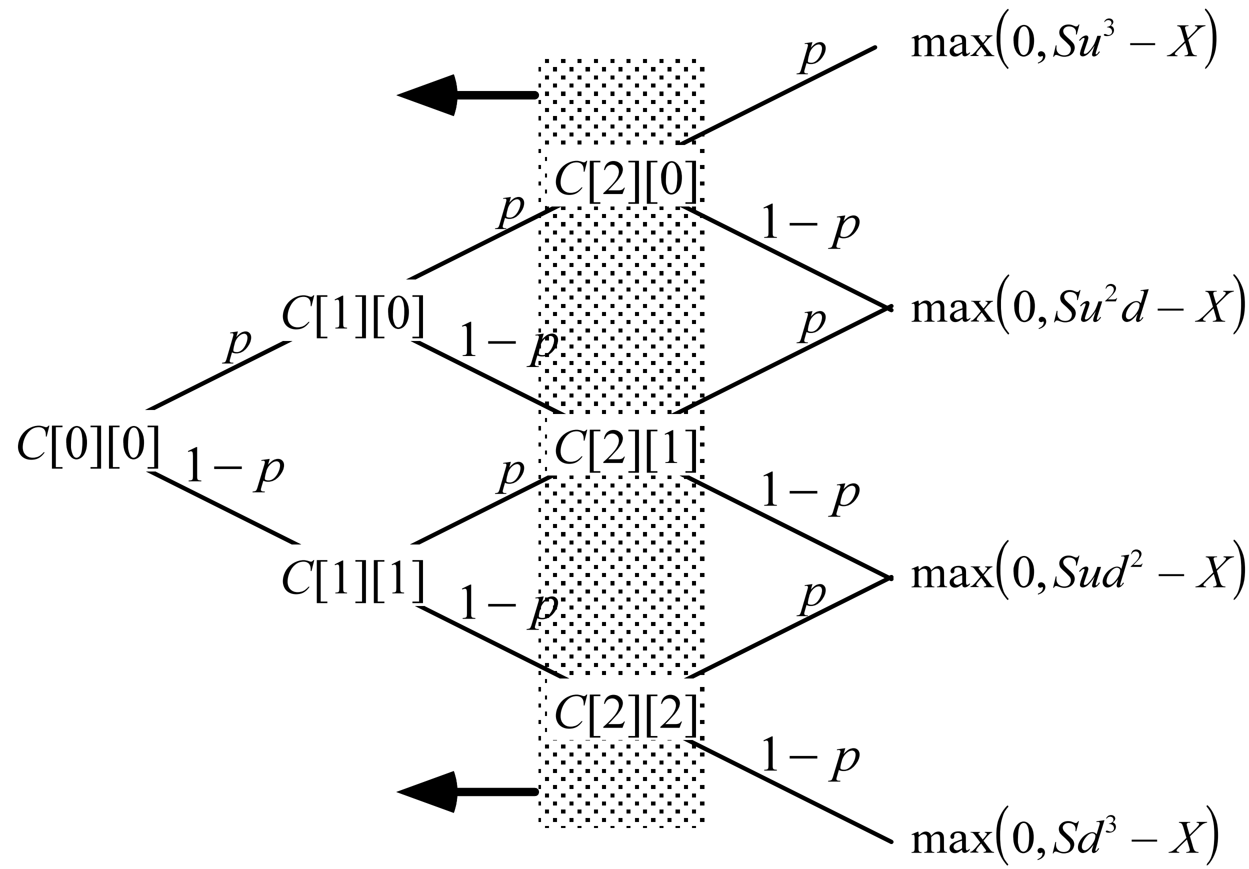
---

[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.

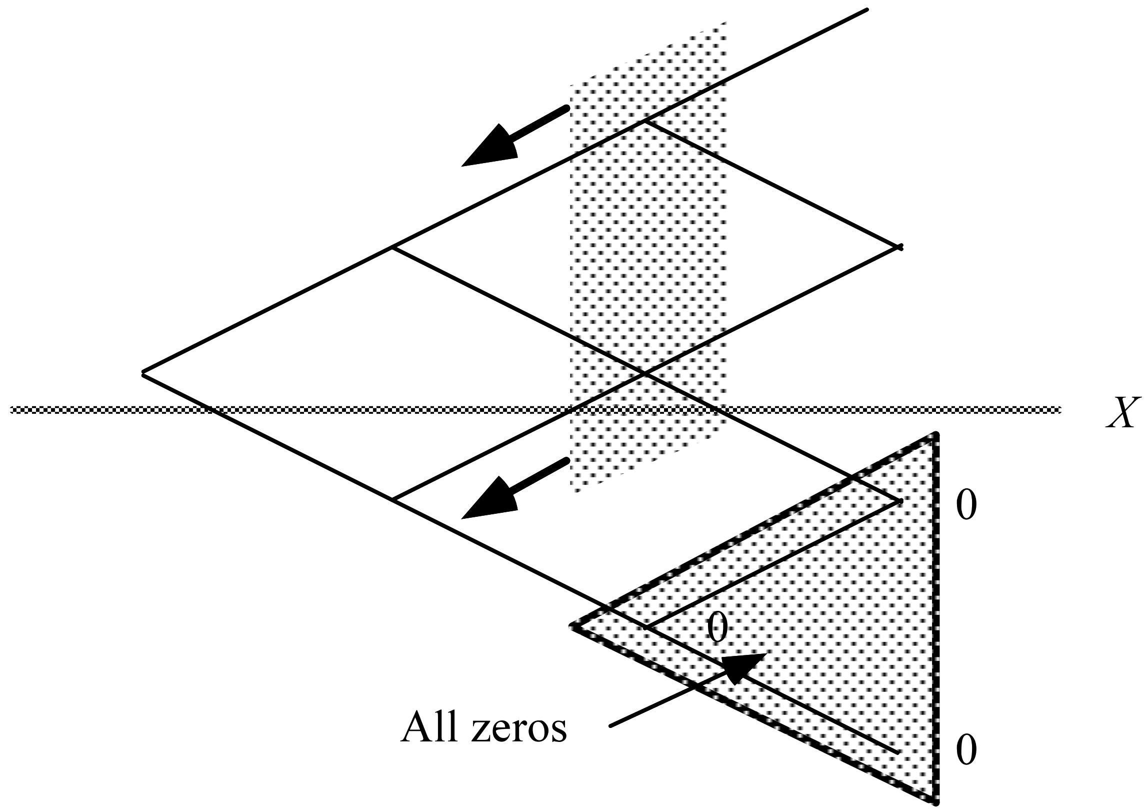
Binomial Tree Algorithms for European Options

- 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.


max(0, Su^3 − X)
p
C[2][0]
p
1 − p
max(0, Su^2d − X)
C[1][0]
p
p
1 − p
C[0][0]
C[2][1]
1 − p
p
1 − p
max(0, Sud^2 − X)
C[1][1]
p
1 − p
C[2][2]
1 − p
max(0, Sd^3 − X)

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)

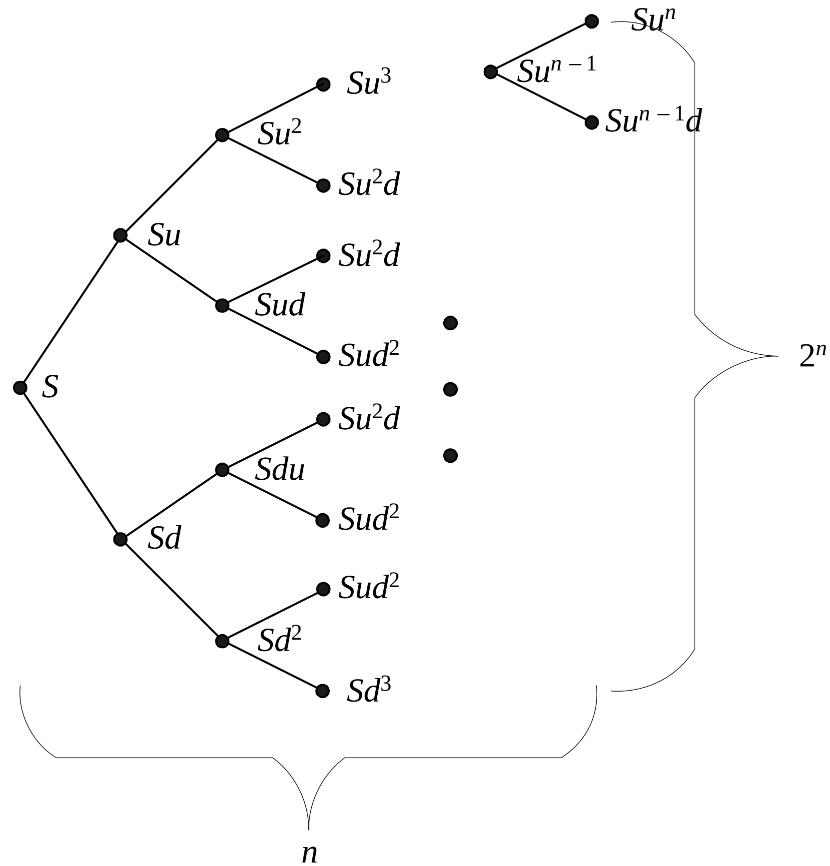
- The following program computes $b(j; n, p)$ in $b[\,j\,]$:
- It runs in $O(n)$ steps.

$b[\,a\,] := \binom{n}{a}\, p^a (1-p)^{n-a}$;
for $j = a+1, a+2, \ldots, n$ **do**
  $b[\,j\,] := b[\,j-1\,] \times p \times (n-j+1)/((1-p) \times j)$;
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.

The Bushy Tree



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 τ 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 τ/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 τ/n years long.
  - The period gross return $R = e^{\hat{r}}$.
- Let
$$\widehat{\mu} \triangleq \frac{1}{n} E\left[\ln \frac{S_\tau}{S}\right]$$
denote the expected value of the continuously compounded rate of return per period of the BOPM.
- Let
$$\widehat{\sigma}^2 \triangleq \frac{1}{n} \operatorname{Var}\left[\ln \frac{S_\tau}{S}\right]$$
denote the variance of that return.

Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

- Under the BOPM, it is not hard to show that[a]

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{\mu} &= q\ln(u/d)+\ln d,\\ \widehat{\sigma}^2 &= q(1-q)\ln^2(u/d).\end{aligned}$$

- Assume the stock's *true* continuously compounded rate of return over τ years has mean $\mu\tau$ and variance $\sigma^2\tau$.
- Call σ the stock's (annualized) volatility.

[a]The Bernoulli distribution.

Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

- The BOPM converges to the distribution only if

$$\begin{aligned} n\widehat{\mu} &= n[\, q \ln(u/d) + \ln d \,] \to \mu\tau, & (38) \\ n\widehat{\sigma}^2 &= nq(1-q) \ln^2(u/d) \to \sigma^2\tau. & (39) \end{aligned}$$

- 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

$$u = e^{\sigma \sqrt{\tau/n}}, \quad d = e^{-\sigma \sqrt{\tau/n}}, \quad q = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\,\frac{\mu}{\sigma}\sqrt{\frac{\tau}{n}}\,. \tag{40}$$

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

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

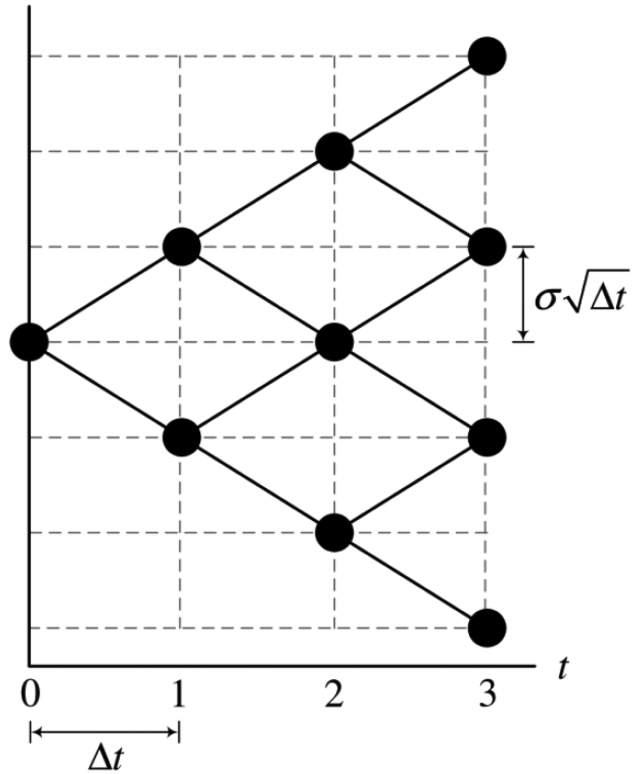
Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

- 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.



$\sigma\sqrt{\Delta t}$
t
0
1
2
3
Δt

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 $[\,0,1\,]$.[a]
- 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_τ 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

$$p \stackrel{\Delta}{=} (e^{r\tau/n} - d)/(u - d).$$

- Let $n \to \infty$.[a]
- 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)[a]

Theorem 10 (The Black-Scholes Formula)

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

where

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

[a]On a United flight from San Francisco to Tokyo on March 7, 2010, a real-estate manager mentioned this formula to me!

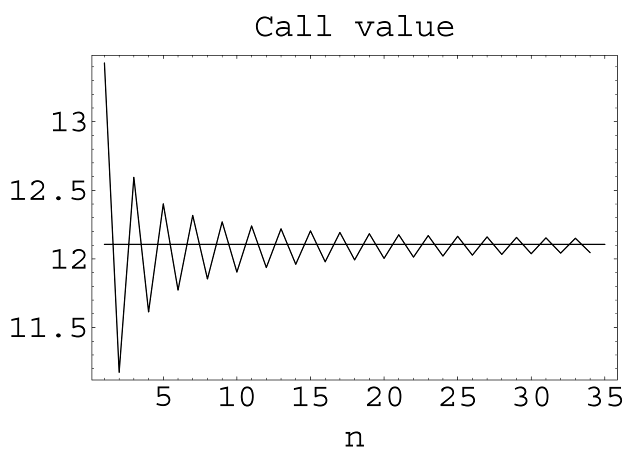
Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (concluded)

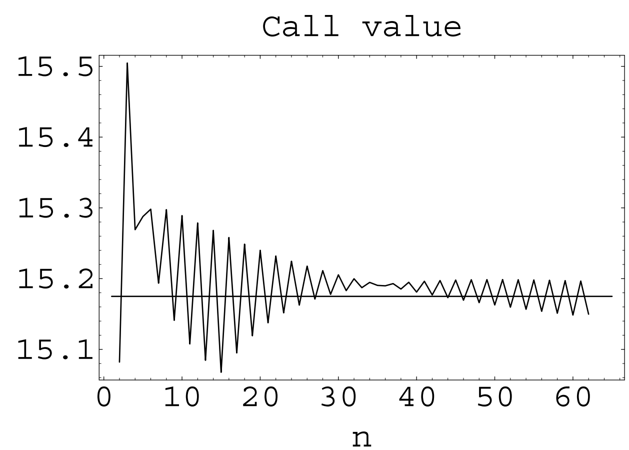
- See Eq. (37) on p. 261 for the meaning of x.
- See Exercise 13.2.12 of the textbook for an interpretation of the probability measure associated with $N(x)$ and $N(-x)$.

BOPM and Black-Scholes Model

- The Black-Scholes formula needs 5 parameters: S, X, σ, τ, and r.
- Binomial tree algorithms take 6 inputs: S, X, u, d, $\hat{r}$, and n.
- The connections are

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





- $S = 100$, $X = 100$ (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]

[a] L. Chang & Palmer (2007).

[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 σ given the option price, S, X, τ, and r with numerical methods.
  - How about American options?

[a]Implied volatility is hard to compute when τ 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]

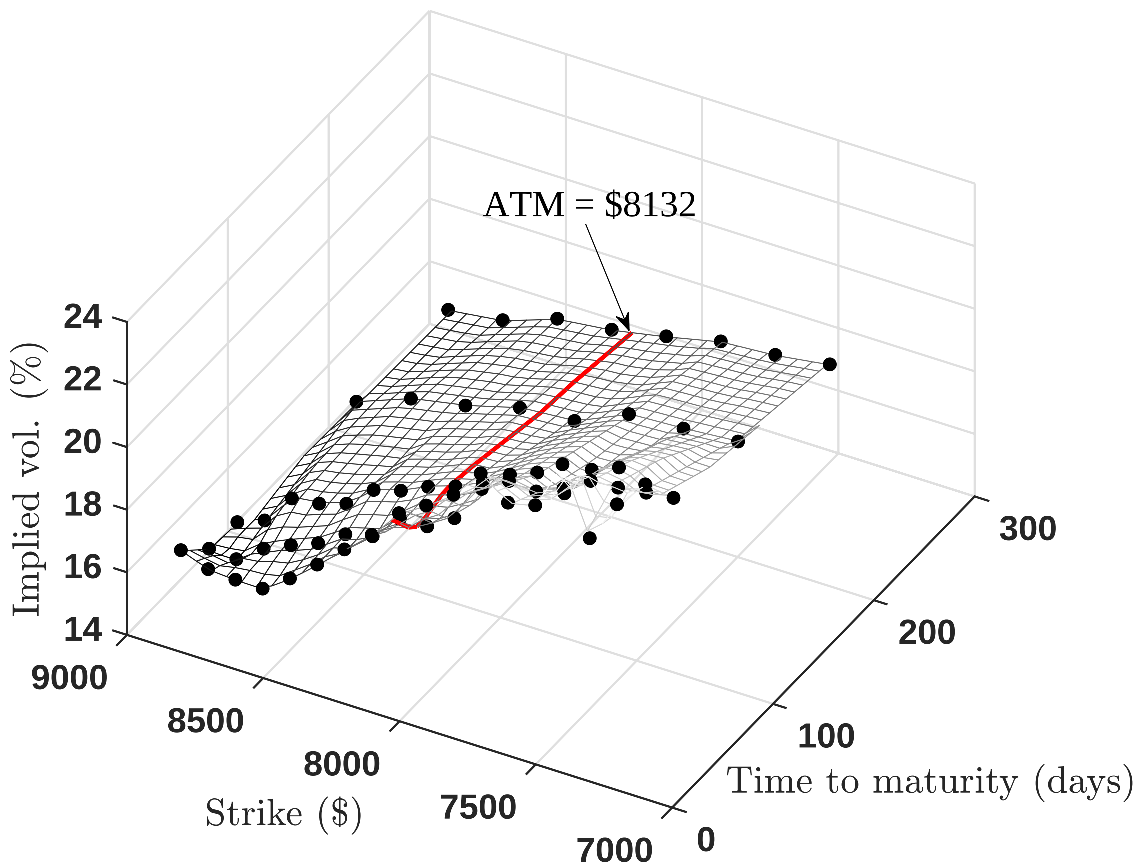
- Implied volatility is often preferred to historical volatility in practice.
  - Using the historical volatility is like driving a car with your eyes on the rearview mirror?

[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]



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

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

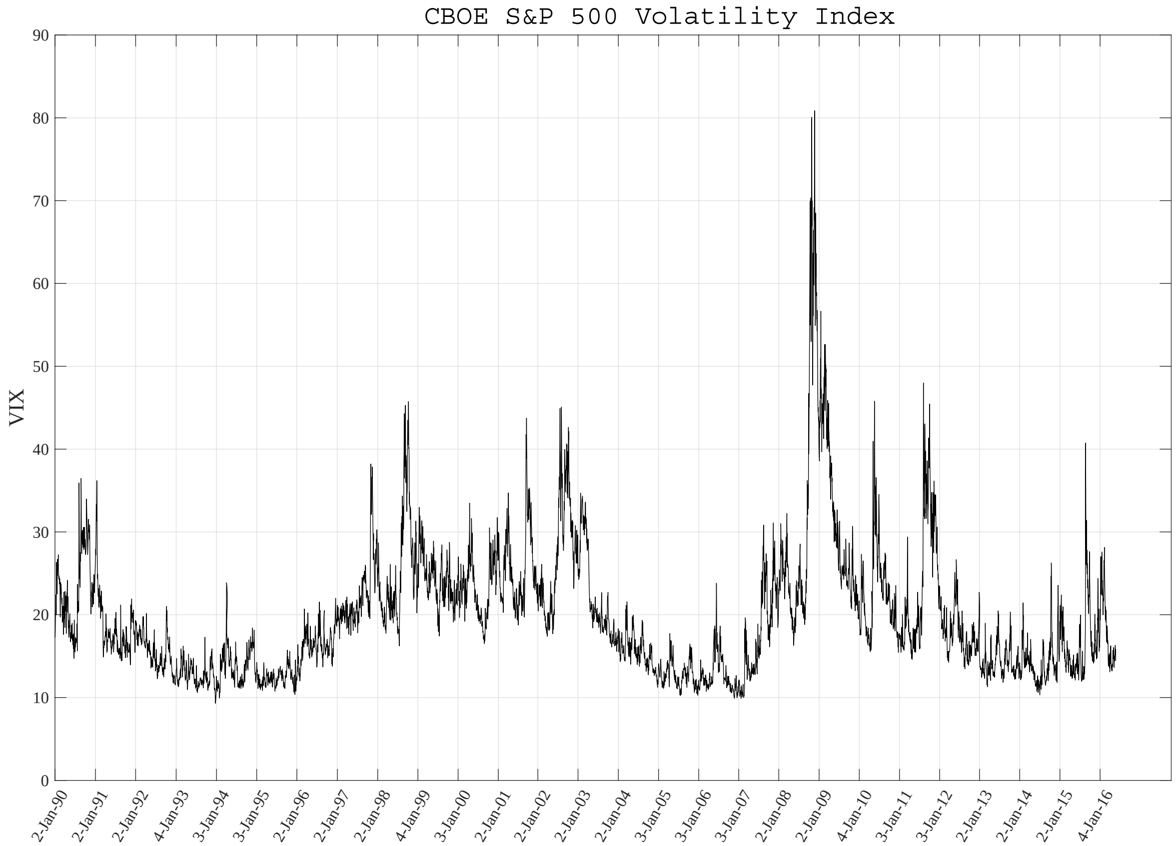
- There is no guarantee that the implied volatility is constant.
- For the binomial model, u and d depend on time:

$$\begin{aligned} u &= e^{\sigma(t)\sqrt{\tau/n}}, \\ d &= e^{-\sigma(t)\sqrt{\tau/n}}. \end{aligned}$$

- How to make the binomial tree combine?[a]

[a] Amin (1991); C. I. Chen (R98922127) (2011).

Volatility (1990–2016)[a]



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