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.

^aContinuous-time trading may create arbitrage opportunities in practice (Budish, Cramton, & Shim, 2015)!

- 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 $n \to \infty$.

- First, $\hat{r} = r\tau/n$.
 - Each period is τ/n years long.
 - The period gross return $R = e^{\hat{r}}$.
- Let

$$\widehat{\mu} \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \frac{1}{n} E \left[\ln \frac{S_{\tau}}{S} \right]$$

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

• Let

$$\widehat{\sigma}^2 \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \frac{1}{n} \operatorname{Var} \left[\ln \frac{S_{\tau}}{S} \right]$$

denote the variance of that return.

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

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

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

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

^aRecall the Bernoulli distribution.

• The BOPM converges to the distribution only if

$$n\widehat{\mu} = n[q \ln(u/d) + \ln d] \to \mu \tau, \tag{40}$$

$$n\widehat{\sigma}^2 = nq(1-q)\ln^2(u/d) \to \sigma^2\tau. \tag{41}$$

• We need one more condition to have a solution for u, d, q.

• Impose

$$ud = 1$$
.

- It makes nodes at the same horizontal level of the tree have identical price (review p. 278).
- Other choices are possible (see text).
- Exact solutions for u, d, q are feasible if Eqs. (40)–(41) are replaced by equations: 3 equations for 3 variables.^a

^aChance (2008).

• The above requirements can be satisfied by

$$u = e^{\sigma\sqrt{\tau/n}}, \quad d = e^{-\sigma\sqrt{\tau/n}}, \quad q = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\frac{\mu}{\sigma}\sqrt{\frac{\tau}{n}}.$$
 (42)

• With Eqs. (42), it can be checked that

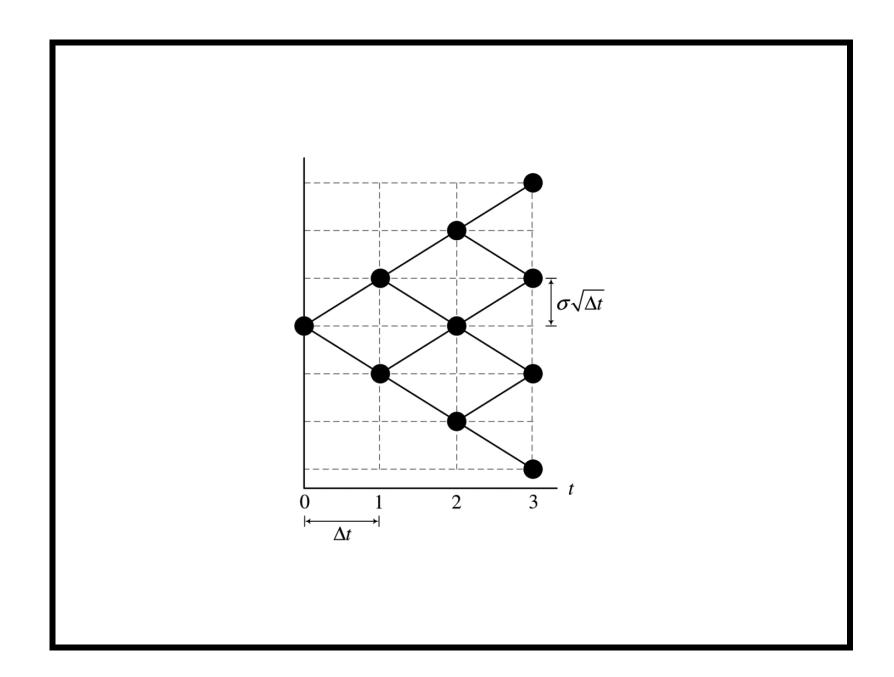
$$n\widehat{\mu} = \mu \tau,$$

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

- The choices (42) result in the CRR binomial model.^a
- With the above choice, even if σ is not calibrated correctly, the mean is still matched!^b

^aCox, Ross, & Rubinstein (1979).

^bRecall Eq. (35) on p. 250. So u and d are related to volatility exclusively in the CRR model. They do not depend on r.



- The no-arbitrage inequalities d < R < u may not hold under Eqs. (42) on p. 289 or Eq. (34) on p. 249.
 - If this happens, the probabilities lie outside [0,1].a
- \bullet 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 can be found in the textbook^b or will be presented later.

^aMany papers and programs forget to check this condition!

^bSee Exercise 9.3.1 of the textbook.

- 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.

^aThe normal distribution with mean $\mu\tau$ and variance $\sigma^2\tau$.

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 $n \to \infty$.
- Then $\mu = r \sigma^2/2$.

^aSee Lemma 9.3.3 of the textbook.

• 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.

^aBy Lemma 9 (p. 294) and Eq. (30) on p. 179.

^bIn 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, 1973)

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

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

where

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

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

- See Eq. (39) on p. 266 for the meaning of x.
- See Exercise 13.2.12 of the textbook for an interpretation of the probability associated with N(x) and N(-x).

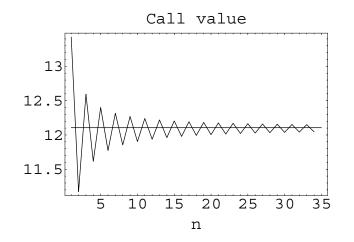
BOPM and Black-Scholes Model

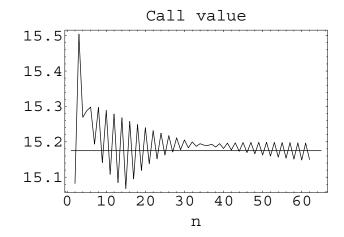
- The Black-Scholes formula needs 5 parameters: S, X, σ, τ , and r.
- Binomial tree algorithms take 6 inputs: S, X, u, d, \hat{r} , and n.
- The connections are

$$u = e^{\sigma\sqrt{\tau/n}},$$

$$d = e^{-\sigma\sqrt{\tau/n}},$$

$$\hat{r} = r\tau/n.$$





• 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

^aL. Chang & Palmer (2007).

^bSee 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?^b

http://www.ckgsb.com/uploads/report/file/201611/02/14780698476352 8.pdf).

^aImplied volatility is hard to compute when τ is small (why?).

^bOptionMetrics's (2015) IvyDB uses the CRR binomial tree (see

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

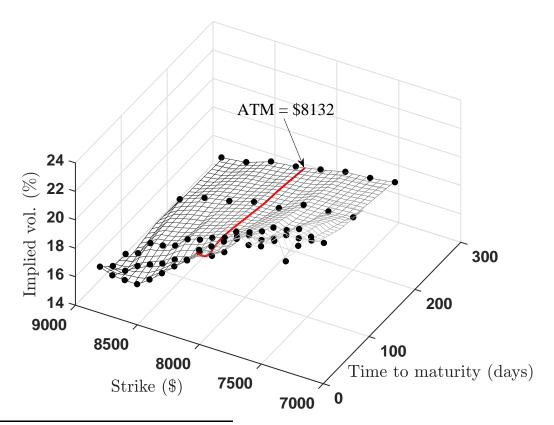
- Just think of it as an alternative to quoting option prices.
- Implied volatility is often preferred to historical volatility in practice.
 - Using the historical volatility is like driving a car with your eyes on the rearview mirror?

^aRebonato (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.





^aThe underlying Taiwan Stock Exchange Capitalization Weighted Stock Index (TAIEX) 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.

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

$$\sqrt{\frac{\int_0^\tau \sigma^2(t) \, dt}{\tau}}$$

^aMerton (1973).

Time-Dependent Instantaneous Volatility (concluded)

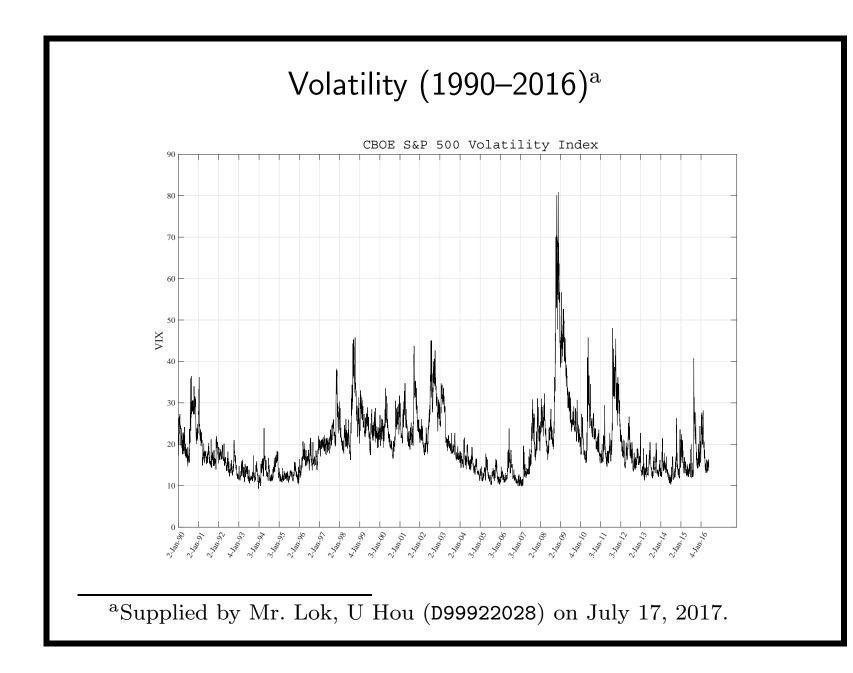
 \bullet For the binomial model, u and d depend on time:

$$u = e^{\sigma(t)\sqrt{\tau/n}},$$

$$d = e^{-\sigma(t)\sqrt{\tau/n}}.$$

• But how to make the binomial tree combine?^a

^aAmin (1991); C. I. Chen (R98922127) (2011).



Time-Dependent Short Rates

- Suppose the short rate (i.e., the one-period spot rate) changes over time but otherwise predictable.
- The annual riskless rate r in the Black-Scholes formula should be the spot rate with a time to maturity equal to τ .
- In other words,

$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{n-1} r_i}{\tau},$$

where r_i is the continuously compounded short rate measured in periods for period i.^a

• Will the binomial tree fail to combine?

^aThat is, one-period forward rate.

Trading Days and Calendar Days

- Interest accrues based on the calendar day.
- But σ is usually calculated based on trading days only.
 - Stock price seems to have lower volatilities when the exchange is closed.^a
- How to harmonize these two different times into the Black-Scholes formula and binomial tree algorithms?^b

^aFama (1965); K. French (1980); K. French & Roll (1986).

^bRecall p. 162 about dating issues.

Trading Days and Calendar Days (continued)

- Think of σ as measuring the annualized volatility of stock price one year from now.
- Suppose a year has m (say 253) trading days.
- We can replace σ in the Black-Scholes formula with^a

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

^aD. French (1984).

Trading Days and Calendar Days (concluded)

- This works only for European options.
- How about binomial tree algorithms?^a

^aContributed by Mr. Lu, Zheng-Liang (D00922011) in 2015.

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.

$$(Su - D) u$$

$$Su - D$$

$$(Su - D) d$$

$$S$$

$$(Sd - D) u$$

$$Sd - D$$

$$(Sd - D) d$$

An Ad-Hoc Approximation

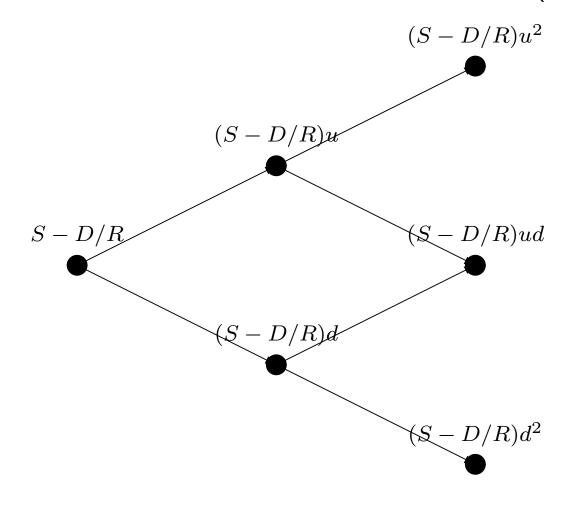
- Use the Black-Scholes formula with the stock price reduced by the PV of the dividends.^a
- This essentially decomposes the stock price into a riskless one paying known dividends and a risky one.
- The riskless component at any time is the PV of future dividends during the life of the option.
 - Then, σ is the volatility of the process followed by the *risky* component.
- The stock price, between two adjacent ex-dividend dates, follows the same lognormal distribution.

^aRoll (1977); Heath & Jarrow (1988).

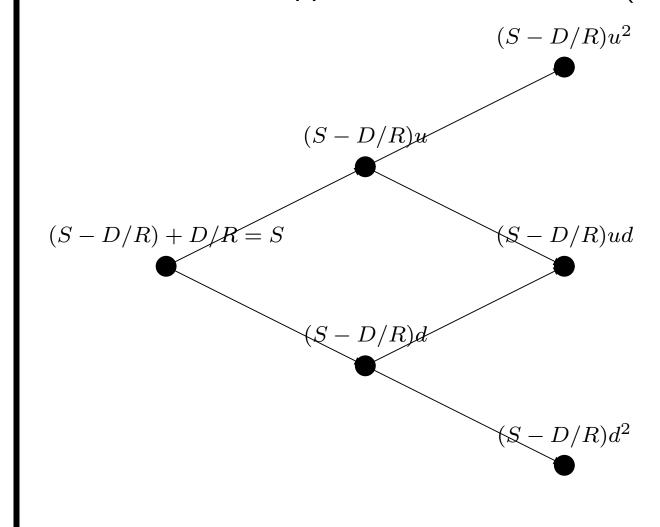
An Ad-Hoc Approximation (concluded)

- 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.

The Ad-Hoc Approximation vs. P. 317 (Step 1)



The Ad-Hoc Approximation vs. P. 317 (Step 2)



The Ad-Hoc Approximation vs. P. 317^a

- The trees are different.
- The stock prices at maturity are also different.

$$- (Su - D) u, (Su - D) d, (Sd - D) u, (Sd - D) d$$
(p. 317).

$$-(S-D/R)u^{2}, (S-D/R)ud, (S-D/R)d^{2}$$
 (ad hoc).

• Note that, as d < R < u,

$$(Su - D) u > (S - D/R)u^2,$$

 $(Sd - D) d < (S - D/R)d^2,$

^aContributed by Mr. Yang, Jui-Chung (D97723002) on March 18, 2009.

The Ad-Hoc Approximation vs. P. 317 (concluded)

- So the ad hoc approximation has a smaller dynamic range.
- This explains why in practice the volatility is usually increased when using the ad hoc approximation.

A General Approach^a

- 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 (see pp. 769ff).
- Other approaches include adjusting σ and approximating the known dividend with a dividend yield.^b

^aDai (B82506025, R86526008, D8852600) & Lyuu (2004). Also Arealy & Rodrigues (2013).

^bGeske & Shastri (1985). It works well for American options but not European options (Dai, 2009).

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_{τ} 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.^a

^aIn pricing European options, only the distribution of S_{τ} matters.

Continuous Dividend Yields (continued)

• So the Black-Scholes formulas hold with S replaced by $Se^{-q\tau}$:

$$C = Se^{-q\tau}N(x) - Xe^{-r\tau}N(x - \sigma\sqrt{\tau}), \tag{43}$$

$$P = Xe^{-r\tau}N(-x + \sigma\sqrt{\tau}) - Se^{-q\tau}N(-x),$$
(43')

where

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

• Formulas (43) and (43') remain valid as long as the dividend yield is predictable.

^aMerton (1973).

Continuous Dividend Yields (continued)

- To run binomial tree algorithms, replace u with $ue^{-q\Delta t}$ and d with $de^{-q\Delta t}$, where $\Delta t \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \tau/n$.
 - 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 $d!^{\mathbf{a}}$

^aContributed by Ms. Wang, Chuan-Ju (F95922018) on May 2, 2007.

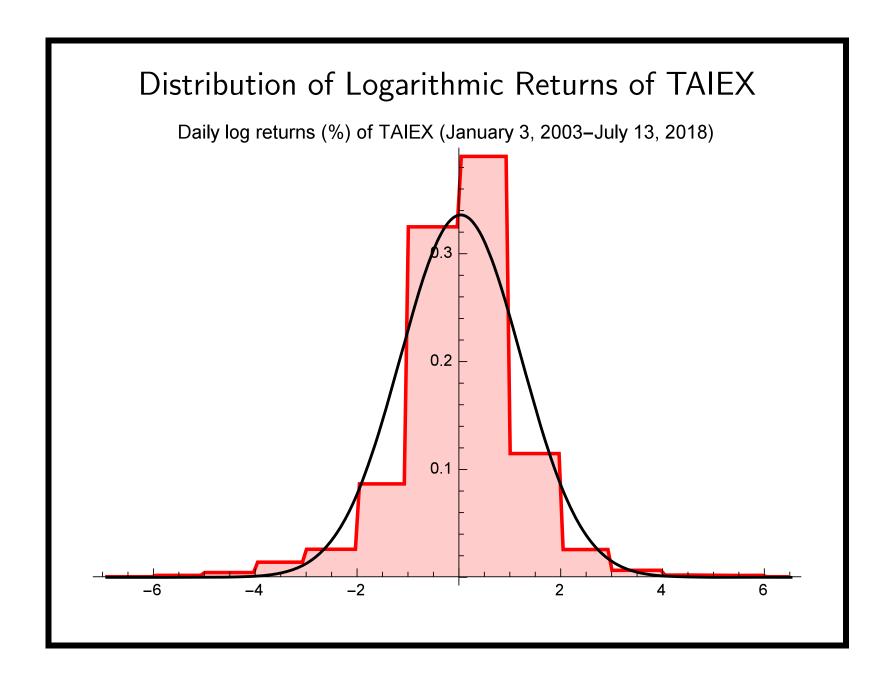
Continuous Dividend Yields (concluded)

• Alternatively, pick the risk-neutral probability as

$$\frac{e^{(r-q)\,\Delta t} - d}{u - d},\tag{44}$$

where $\Delta t \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \tau/n$.

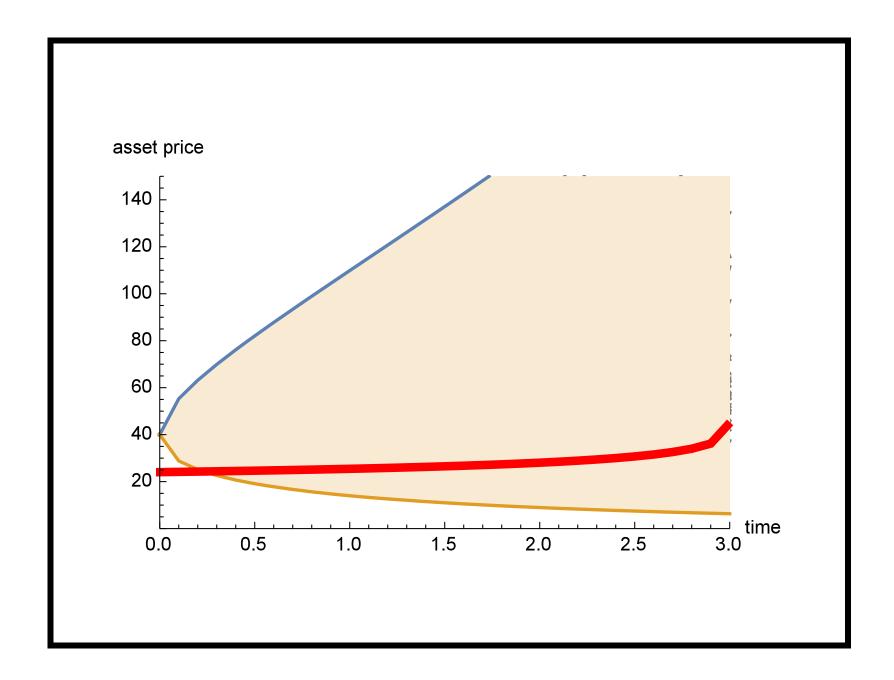
- The reason: The stock price grows at an expected rate of r-q in a risk-neutral economy.
- The u and d remain unchanged.
- Other than the change in Eq. (44), binomial tree algorithms stay the same as if there were no dividends.

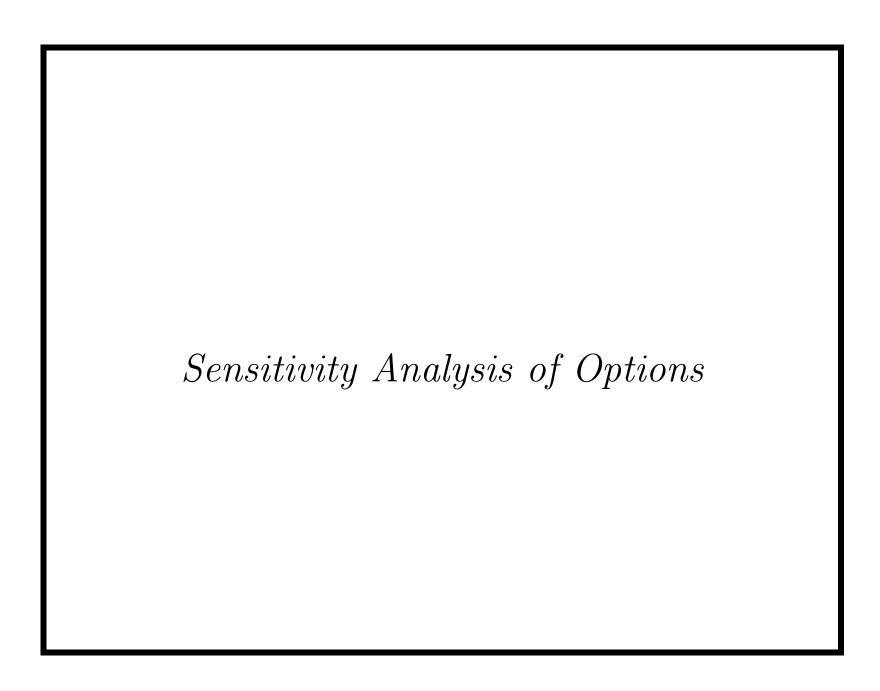


Exercise Boundaries of American Options (in the Continuous-Time Model)^a

- The exercise boundary is a nondecreasing function of t for American puts (see the plot next page).
- The exercise boundary is a nonincreasing function of t for American calls.

^aSee Section 9.7 of the textbook for the tree analog.





Cleopatra's nose, had it been shorter, the whole face of the world would have been changed. — Blaise Pascal (1623–1662)	

Sensitivity Measures ("The Greeks")

- How the value of a security changes relative to changes in a given parameter is key to hedging.
 - Duration, for instance.
- Let $x \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \frac{\ln(S/X) + (r + \sigma^2/2) \tau}{\sigma \sqrt{\tau}}$ (recall p. 296).
- Recall that

$$N'(y) = \frac{e^{-y^2/2}}{\sqrt{2\pi}} > 0,$$

the density function of standard normal distribution.

Delta

• Defined as

$$\Delta \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \frac{\partial f}{\partial S}.$$

- -f is the price of the derivative.
- -S is the price of the underlying asset.
- The delta of a portfolio of derivatives on the same underlying asset is the sum of their individual deltas.^a
- The delta used in the BOPM (p. 243) is the discrete analog.
- The delta of a long stock is apparently 1.

^aElementary calculus.

Delta (continued)

• The delta of a European call on a non-dividend-paying stock equals

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial S} = N(x) > 0.$$

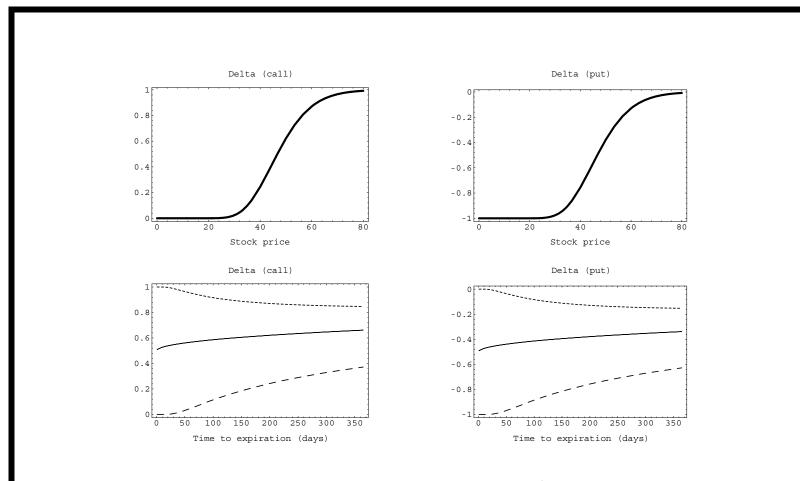
• The delta of a European put equals

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial S} = N(x) - 1 = -N(-x) < 0.$$

• So the deltas of a call and an otherwise identical put cancel each other when N(x) = 1/2, i.e., when^a

$$X = Se^{(r+\sigma^2/2)\tau}. (45)$$

^aThe straddle (p. 210) C + P then has zero delta!



Dotted curve: in-the-money call or out-of-the-money put.

Solid curves: at-the-money options.

Dashed curves: out-of-the-money calls or in-the-money puts.

Delta (continued)

- Suppose the stock pays a continuous dividend yield of q.
- Let

$$x \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \frac{\ln(S/X) + (r - q + \sigma^2/2)\tau}{\sigma\sqrt{\tau}} \tag{46}$$

(recall p. 326).

• Then

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial S} = e^{-q\tau} N(x) > 0,$$

$$\frac{\partial P}{\partial S} = -e^{-q\tau} N(-x) < 0$$

Delta (continued)

- Consider an X_1 -strike call and an X_2 -strike put, $X_1 \geq X_2$.
- They are otherwise identical.
- Let

$$x_i \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \frac{\ln(S/X_i) + (r - q + \sigma^2/2) \tau}{\sigma\sqrt{\tau}}.$$
 (47)

- Then their deltas sum to zero when $x_1 = -x_2$.
- That implies

$$\frac{S}{X_1} = \frac{X_2}{S} e^{-(2r - 2q + \sigma^2)\tau}.$$
 (48)

^aThe strangle (p. 212) C + P then has zero delta!

Delta (concluded)

- Suppose we demand $X_1 = X_2 = X$ and have a straddle.
- Then

$$X = Se^{(r-q+\sigma^2/2)\,\tau}$$

leads to a straddle with zero delta.

- This generalizes Eq. (45) on p. 336.
- When $C(X_1)$'s delta and $P(X_2)$'s delta sum to zero, does the portfolio $C(X_1) P(X_2)$ have zero value?
- In general, no.

Delta Neutrality

- A position with a total delta equal to 0 is delta-neutral.
 - A delta-neutral portfolio is immune to *small* price changes in the underlying asset.
- Creating one serves for hedging purposes.
 - A portfolio consisting of a call and $-\Delta$ shares of stock is delta-neutral.
 - Short Δ shares of stock to hedge a long call.
 - Long Δ shares of stock to hedge a short call.
- In general, hedge a position in a security with delta Δ_1 by shorting Δ_1/Δ_2 units of a security with delta Δ_2 .

Theta (Time Decay)

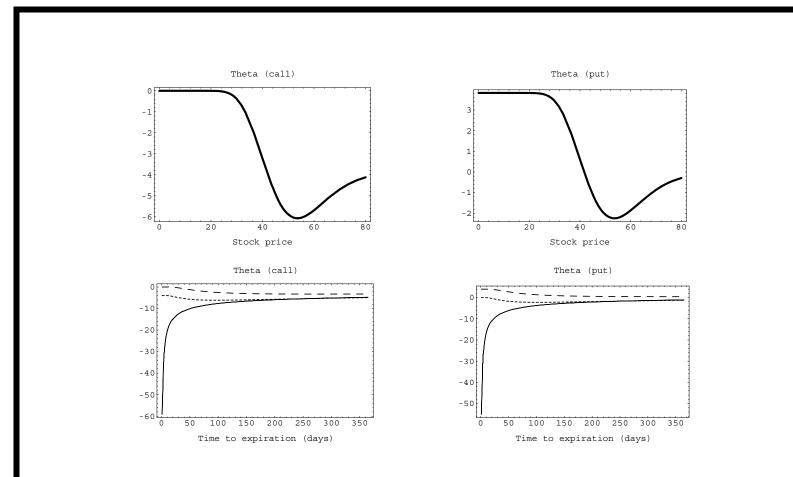
- Defined as the rate of change of a security's value with respect to time, or $\Theta \stackrel{\triangle}{=} -\partial f/\partial \tau = \partial f/\partial t$.
- For a European call on a non-dividend-paying stock,

$$\Theta = -\frac{SN'(x)\,\sigma}{2\sqrt{\tau}} - rXe^{-r\tau}N(x - \sigma\sqrt{\tau}) < 0.$$

- The call loses value with the passage of time.
- For a European put,

$$\Theta = -\frac{SN'(x)\sigma}{2\sqrt{\tau}} + rXe^{-r\tau}N(-x + \sigma\sqrt{\tau}).$$

- Can be negative or positive.



Dotted curve: in-the-money call or out-of-the-money put.

Solid curves: at-the-money options.

Dashed curve: out-of-the-money call or in-the-money put.

Theta (concluded)

- Suppose the stock pays a continuous dividend yield of q.
- Define x as in Eq. (46) on p. 338.
- For a European call, add an extra term to the earlier formula for the theta:

$$\Theta = -\frac{SN'(x)\sigma}{2\sqrt{\tau}} - rXe^{-r\tau}N(x - \sigma\sqrt{\tau}) + qSe^{-q\tau}N(x).$$

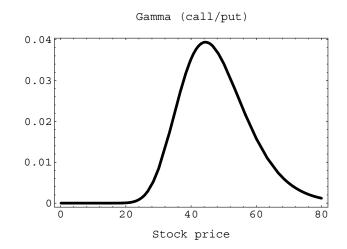
• For a European put, add an extra term to the earlier formula for the theta:

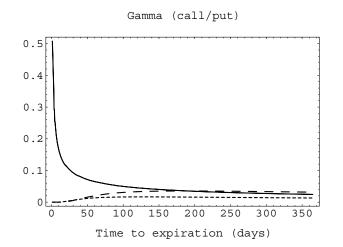
$$\Theta = -\frac{SN'(x)\sigma}{2\sqrt{\tau}} + rXe^{-r\tau}N(-x + \sigma\sqrt{\tau}) - qSe^{-q\tau}N(-x).$$

Gamma

- Defined as the rate of change of its delta with respect to the price of the underlying asset, or $\Gamma \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \partial^2 \Pi / \partial S^2$.
- Measures how sensitive delta is to changes in the price of the underlying asset.
- In practice, a portfolio with a high gamma needs be rebalanced more often to maintain delta neutrality.
- Roughly, delta \sim duration, and gamma \sim convexity.
- The gamma of a European call or put on a non-dividend-paying stock is

$$N'(x)/(S\sigma\sqrt{\tau}) > 0.$$





Dotted lines: in-the-money call or out-of-the-money put.

Solid lines: at-the-money option.

Dashed lines: out-of-the-money call or in-the-money put.

Vega^a (Lambda, Kappa, Sigma)

• Defined as the rate of change of a security's value with respect to the volatility of the underlying asset

$$\Lambda \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma}.$$

- Volatility often changes over time.
- A security with a high vega is very sensitive to small changes or estimation error in volatility.
- The vega of a European call or put on a non-dividend-paying stock is $S\sqrt{\tau} N'(x) > 0$.
 - So higher volatility always increases the option value.

^aVega is not Greek.

Vega (continued)

• Note that^a

$$\Lambda = \tau \sigma S^2 \Gamma.$$

• If the stock pays a continuous dividend yield of q, then

$$\Lambda = Se^{-q\tau} \sqrt{\tau} \, N'(x),$$

where x is defined in Eq. (46) on p. 338.

• Vega is maximized when x = 0, i.e., when

$$S = Xe^{-(r-q+\sigma^2/2)\tau}.$$

 \bullet Vega declines very fast as S moves away from that peak.

^aReiss & Wystup (2001).

Vega (continued)

- Now consider a portfolio consisting of an X_1 -strike call C and a short X_2 -strike put $P, X_1 \geq X_2$.
- The options' vegas cancel out when

$$x_1 = -x_2,$$

where x_i are defined in Eq. (47) on p. 339.

- This also leads to Eq. (48) on p. 339.
 - Recall the same condition led to zero delta for the strangle C + P (p. 339).

Vega (concluded)

• Note that if $S \neq X$, $\tau \to 0$ implies

$$\Lambda \to 0$$

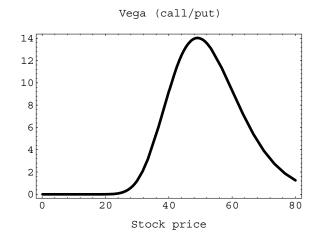
(which answers the question on p. 301 for the Black-Scholes model).

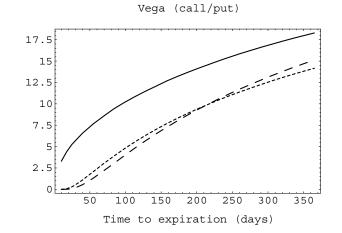
• The Black-Scholes formula (p. 296) implies

$$C \rightarrow S,$$
 $P \rightarrow Xe^{-r\tau},$

as $\sigma \to \infty$.

• These boundary conditions may be handy for certain numerical methods.





Dotted curve: in-the-money call or out-of-the-money put.

Solid curves: at-the-money option.

Dashed curve: out-of-the-money call or in-the-money put.

Variance Vega^a

• Defined as the rate of change of a security's value with respect to the variance (square of volatility) of the underlying asset

variance vega
$$\stackrel{\triangle}{=} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma^2}$$
.

- Note that it is not defined as $\partial^2 f/\partial \sigma^2$!
- It is easy to verify that

variance vega =
$$\frac{\Lambda}{2\sigma}$$
.

^aDemeterfi, Derman, Kamal, & Zou (1999).

Volga (Vomma, Volatility Gamma, Vega Convexity)

• Defined as the rate of change of a security's vega with respect to the volatility of the underlying asset

$$volga \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \frac{\partial \Lambda}{\partial \sigma} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \sigma^2}.$$

• It can be shown that

volga =
$$\Lambda \frac{x(x - \sigma\sqrt{\tau})}{\sigma}$$

 = $\frac{\Lambda}{\sigma} \left[\frac{\ln^2(S/X)}{\sigma^2 \tau} - \frac{\sigma^2 \tau}{4} \right]$,

where x is defined in Eq. (46) on p. 338.^a

^aDerman & M. B. Miller (2016).

Volga (concluded)

- Volga is zero when $S = Xe^{\pm \sigma^2 \tau/2}$.
- For typical values of σ and τ , volga is positive except where $S \approx X$.
- Volga can be used to measure the 4th moment of the underlying asset and the smile of implied volatility at the same maturity.^a

^aBennett (2014).

Rho

• Defined as the rate of change in its value with respect to interest rates

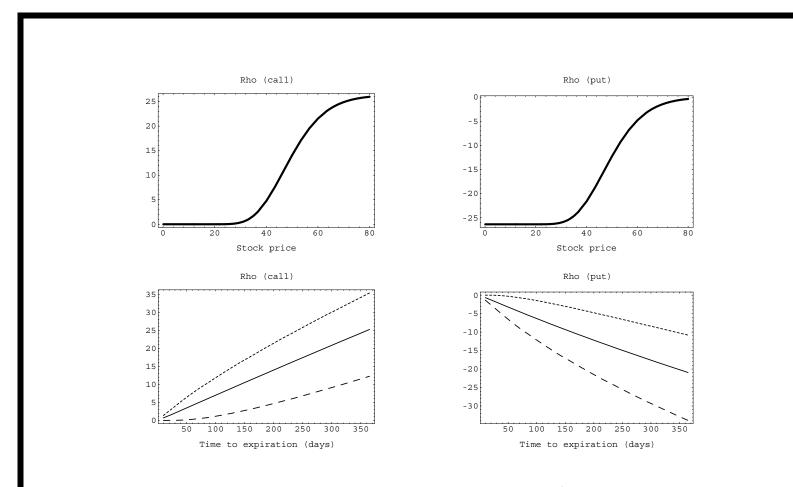
$$\rho \stackrel{\Delta}{=} \frac{\partial f}{\partial r}.$$

• The rho of a European call on a non-dividend-paying stock is

$$X\tau e^{-r\tau}N(x-\sigma\sqrt{\tau})>0.$$

• The rho of a European put on a non-dividend-paying stock is

$$-X\tau e^{-r\tau}N(-x+\sigma\sqrt{\tau})<0.$$



Dotted curves: in-the-money call or out-of-the-money put.

Solid curves: at-the-money option.

Dashed curves: out-of-the-money call or in-the-money put.

Numerical Greeks

- Needed when closed-form formulas do not exist.
- Take delta as an example.
- A standard method computes the finite difference,

$$\frac{f(S+\Delta S)-f(S-\Delta S)}{2\Delta S}.$$

• The computation time roughly doubles that for evaluating the derivative security itself.

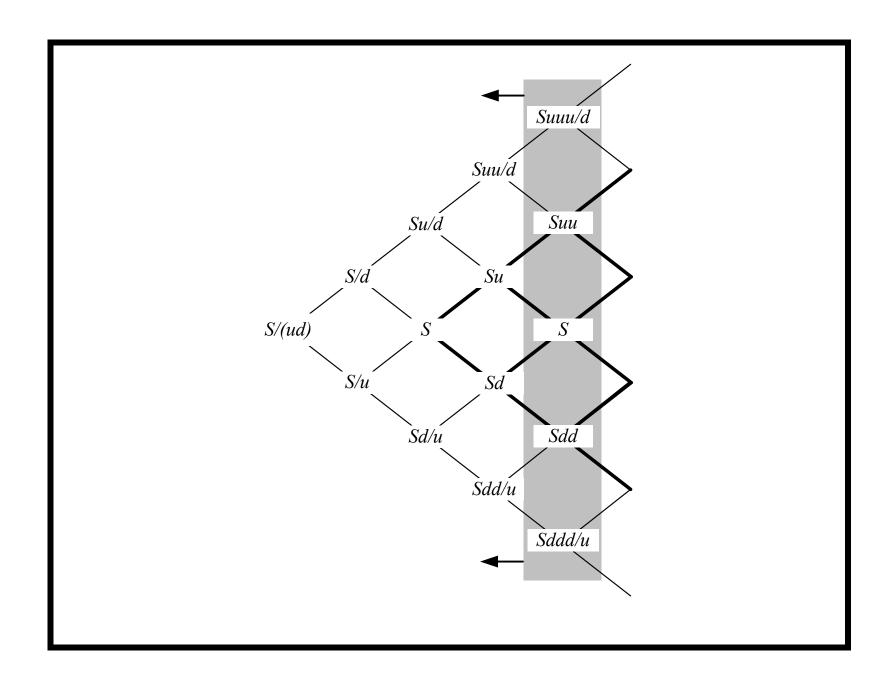
An Alternative Numerical Delta^a

- Use intermediate results of the binomial tree algorithm.
- When the algorithm reaches the end of the first period, f_u and f_d are computed.
- These values correspond to derivative values at stock prices Su and Sd, respectively.
- Delta is approximated by

$$\frac{f_u - f_d}{Su - Sd}. (49)$$

• Almost zero extra computational effort.

^aPelsser & Vorst (1994).



Numerical Gamma

- At the stock price (Suu + Sud)/2, delta is approximately $(f_{uu} f_{ud})/(Suu Sud)$.
- At the stock price (Sud + Sdd)/2, delta is approximately $(f_{ud} f_{dd})/(Sud Sdd)$.
- Gamma is the rate of change in deltas between (Suu + Sud)/2 and (Sud + Sdd)/2, that is,

$$\frac{\frac{f_{uu} - f_{ud}}{Suu - Sud} - \frac{f_{ud} - f_{dd}}{Sud - Sdd}}{(Suu - Sdd)/2}.$$
 (50)

• Alternative formulas exist (p. 671).

Alternative Numerical Delta and Gamma

- Let $\epsilon \equiv \ln u$.
- Think in terms of $\ln S$.
- Then

$$\left(\frac{f_u - f_d}{2\epsilon}\right) \frac{1}{S}$$

approximates the numerical delta.

• And

$$\left(\frac{f_{uu}-2f_{ud}+f_{dd}}{\epsilon^2}-\frac{f_{uu}-f_{dd}}{2\epsilon}\right)\frac{1}{S^2}$$

approximates the numerical gamma.

Finite Difference Fails for Numerical Gamma

• Numerical differentiation gives

$$\frac{f(S+\Delta S)-2f(S)+f(S-\Delta S)}{(\Delta S)^2}.$$

- It does not work (see text for the reason).
- In general, calculating gamma is a hard problem numerically.
- But why did the binomial tree version work?

Other Numerical Greeks

• The theta can be computed as

$$\frac{f_{ud} - f}{2(\tau/n)}$$

- In fact, the theta of a European option can be derived from delta and gamma (p. 670).
- The vega of a European option can be derived from gamma (p. 348).
- For rho, there seems no alternative but to run the binomial tree algorithm twice.^a

^aBut see p. 850 and pp. 1040ff.