

Risk

- Surprisingly, the option value is independent of q .^a
- Hence it is independent of the expected value 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.

^aMore 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

$$p \triangleq \frac{R-d}{u-d}. \quad (34)$$

Pseudo Probability (concluded)

- As $0 < p < 1$, it may be interpreted as probability.
- Alternatively,

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

interpolates the value at SR through points (Su, C_u) and (Sd, C_d) .

Risk-Neutral Probability

- The expected rate of return for the stock is equal to the riskless rate \hat{r} under p as

$$pSu + (1 - p)Sd = RS. \quad (35)$$

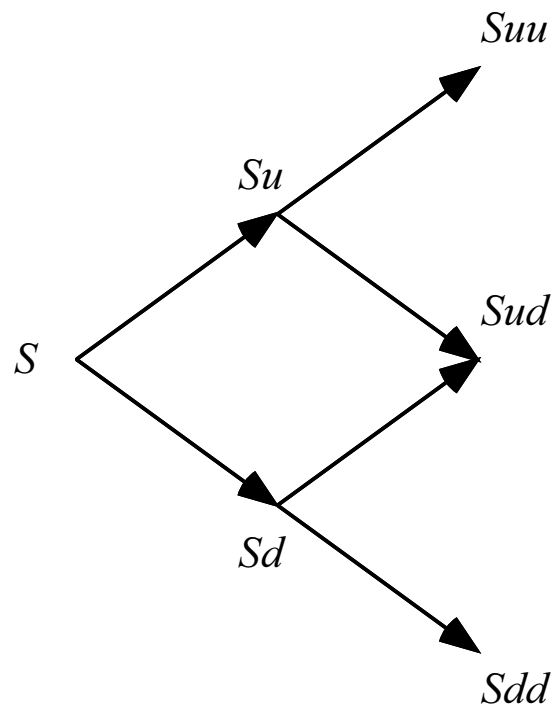
- The expected rates of return of all securities must be the riskless rate when investors are risk-neutral.
- For this reason, p is called the risk-neutral probability.
- The value of an option is the expectation of its discounted future payoff in a risk-neutral economy.
- So the rate used for discounting the FV is the riskless rate^a *in a risk-neutral economy*.

^aRecall the question on p. 240.

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 3 possible prices at time two: S_{uu} , S_{ud} , and S_{dd} .
 - There are 4 paths.
 - But the tree *combines* or *recombines*; hence there are only 3 terminal prices.
- At any node, the next two stock prices only depend on the current price, not the prices of earlier times.^a

^aIt is Markovian.



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

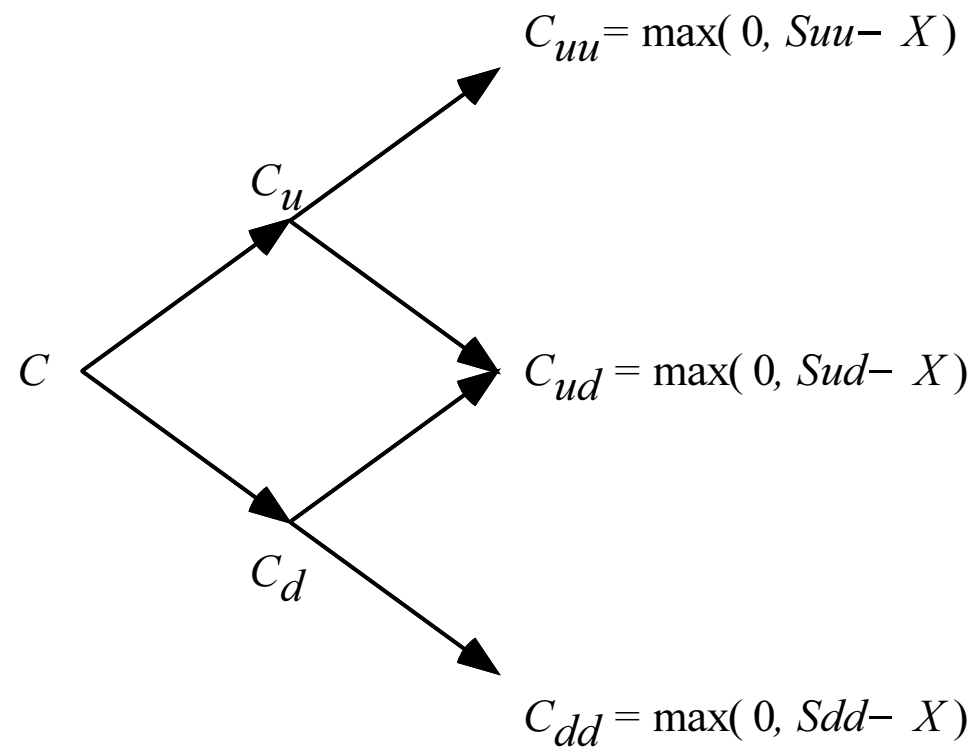
- Let C_{uu} be the call's value at time two if the stock price is S_{uu} .
- Thus,

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

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

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

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



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

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

$$\begin{aligned}C_u &= \frac{pC_{uu} + (1-p)C_{ud}}{R}, \\C_d &= \frac{pC_{ud} + (1-p)C_{dd}}{R}.\end{aligned}\tag{36}$$

- Deltas can be derived from Eq. (32) on p. 251.
- 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. (32)–(33) on p. 251.

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

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

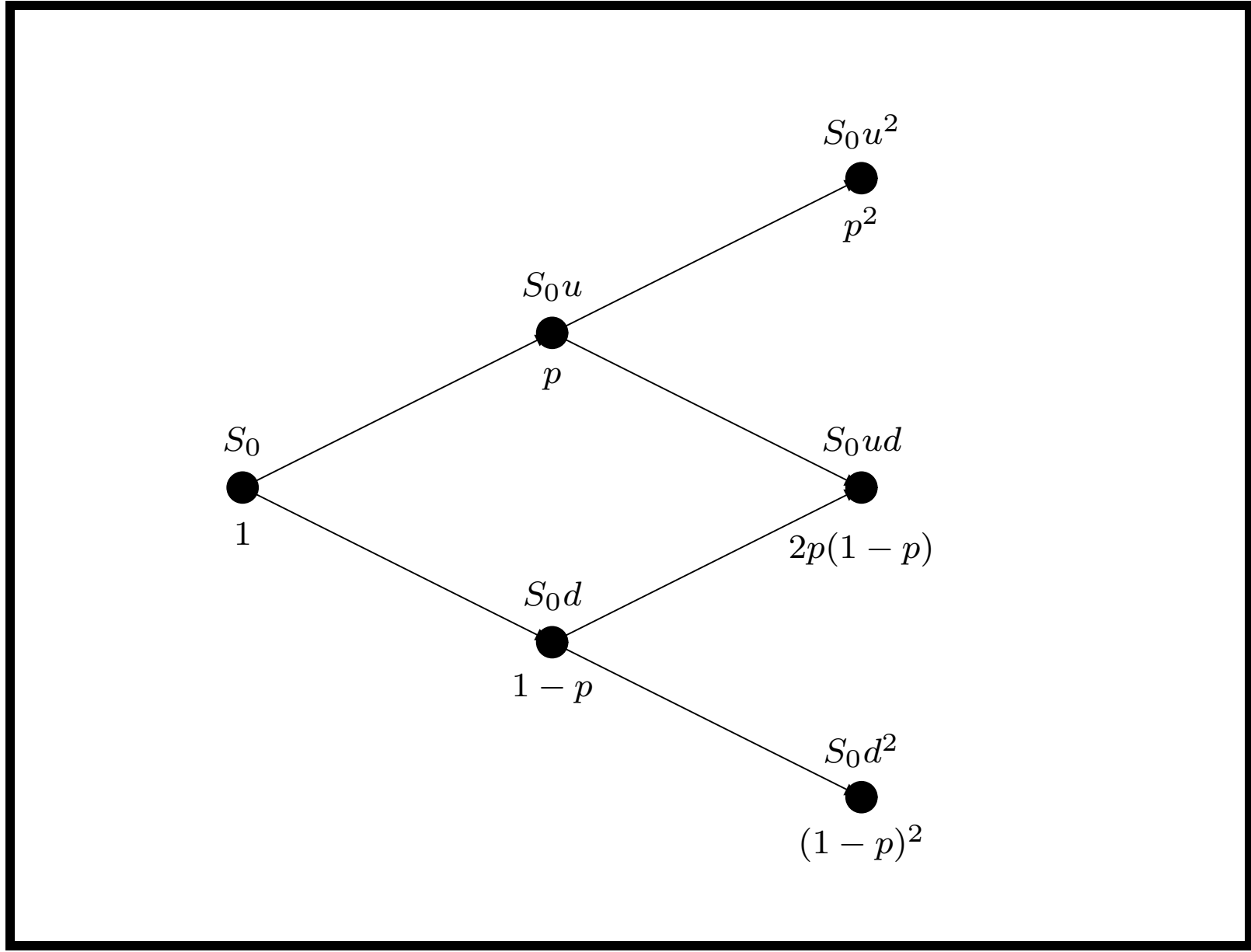
^aConsistent with Theorem 5 (p. 234).

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. (36) on p. 262.
- This recursive procedure is called backward induction.
- C equals

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

^aErnst 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

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

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

- In general,

$$\text{option price} = \sum_j (p_j \times \text{payoff at state } j).$$

^aRecall p. 212. 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 $X_H = Su^{j+1} d^{n-j-1}$. 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

$$e^{-\hat{r}n} E^{\pi}[\mathcal{D}]. \quad (37)$$

- 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.^a

^aDybvig & Ross (1987).

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.

^aExcept at the beginning, of course, when the option premium is paid 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

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

- 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 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,

$$C = \frac{\sum_{j=a}^n \binom{n}{j} p^j (1-p)^{n-j} (Su^j d^{n-j} - X)}{R^n} \quad (38)$$

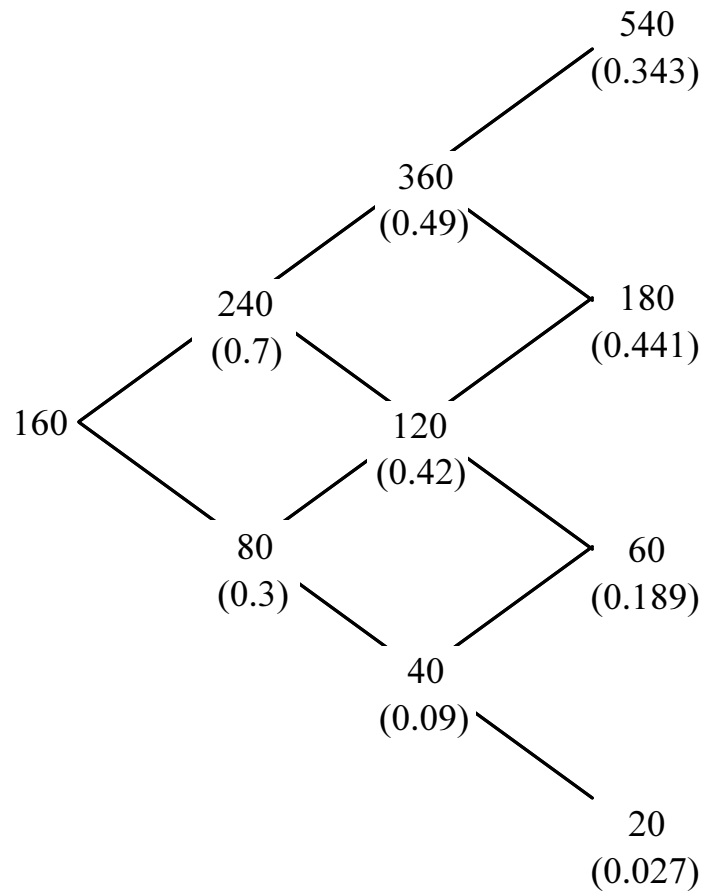
$$\begin{aligned} &= S \sum_{j=a}^n \binom{n}{j} \frac{(pu)^j [(1-p)d]^{n-j}}{R^n} \\ &\quad - \frac{X}{R^n} \sum_{j=a}^n \binom{n}{j} p^j (1-p)^{n-j} \\ &= S \sum_{j=a}^n b(j; n, pu/R) - Xe^{-\hat{r}n} \sum_{j=a}^n b(j; n, p). \end{aligned} \quad (39)$$

Numerical Examples

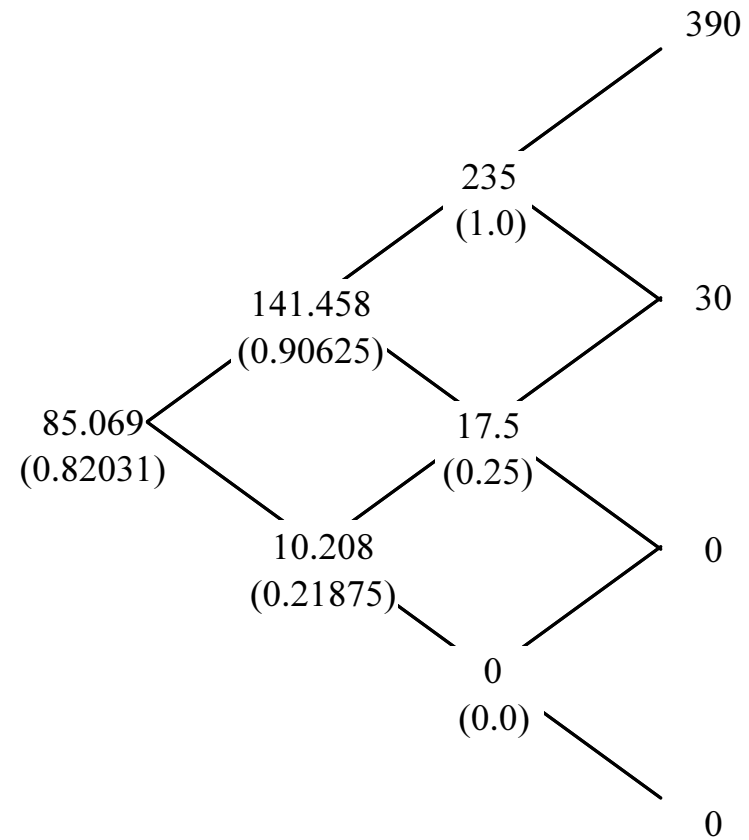
- A non-dividend-paying stock is selling for \$160.
- $u = 1.5$ and $d = 0.5$.
- $r = 18.232\%$ per period ($R = e^{0.18232} = 1.2$).
 - Hence $p = (R - d)/(u - d) = 0.7$.
- Consider a European call on this stock with $X = 150$ and $n = 3$.
- The call value is \$85.069 by backward induction.
- Or, the 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.
- Invest \$85.069 in the *replicating* portfolio with 0.82031 shares of stock as required by the 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 by backward induction!^a

^aSee p. 275.

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.
- Close out the call's short position by buying back the call or buying a share of stock for delivery.
- This results in a loss of $180 - 150 = 30$ dollars.
- 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
- ...
- Without hedge, one may end up forking out \$390 in the worst case (see p. 275)!^c

^aThanks to a lively class discussion on March 16, 2011.

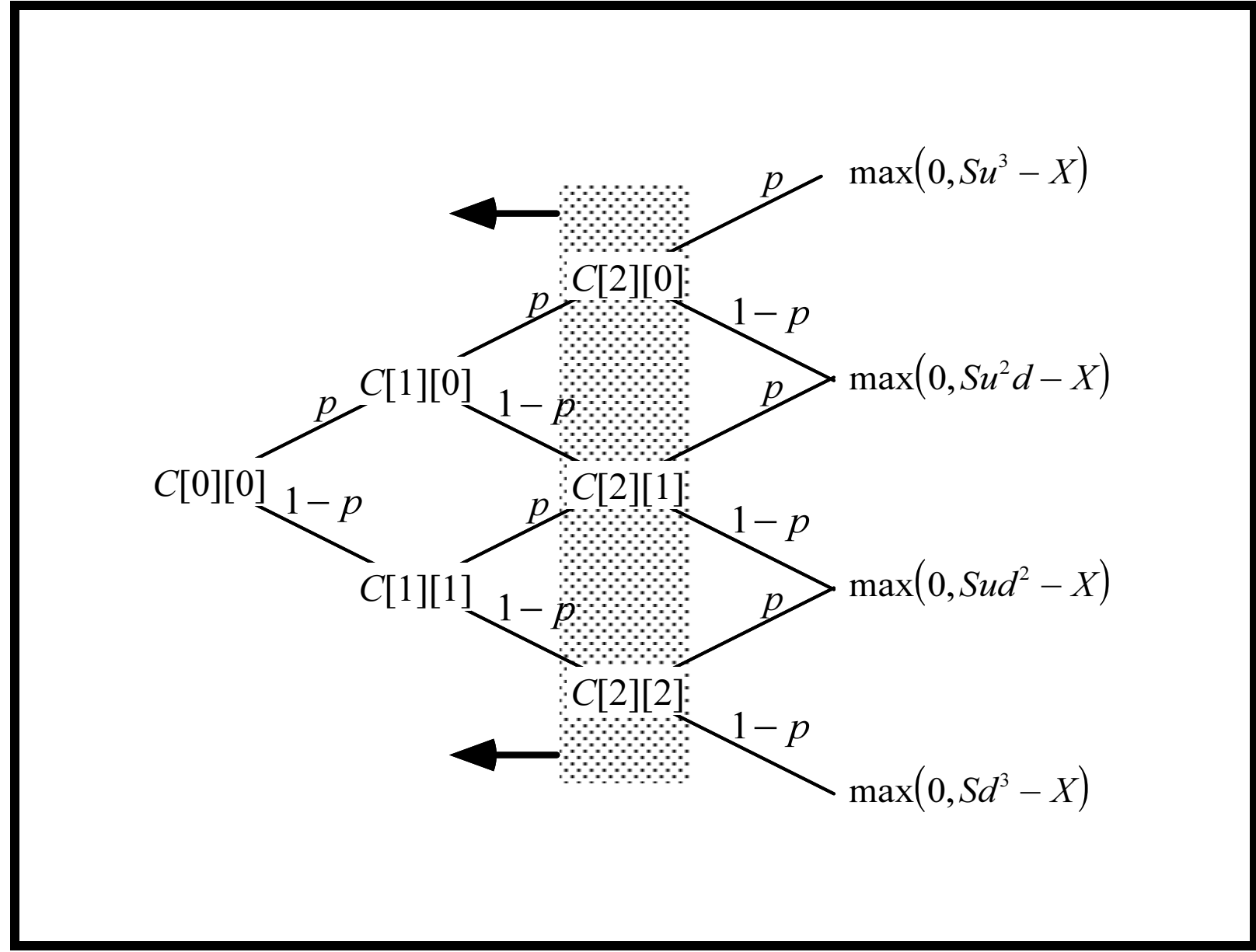
^bHedging and replication are mirror images.

^cThanks to a lively class discussion on March 16, 2016.

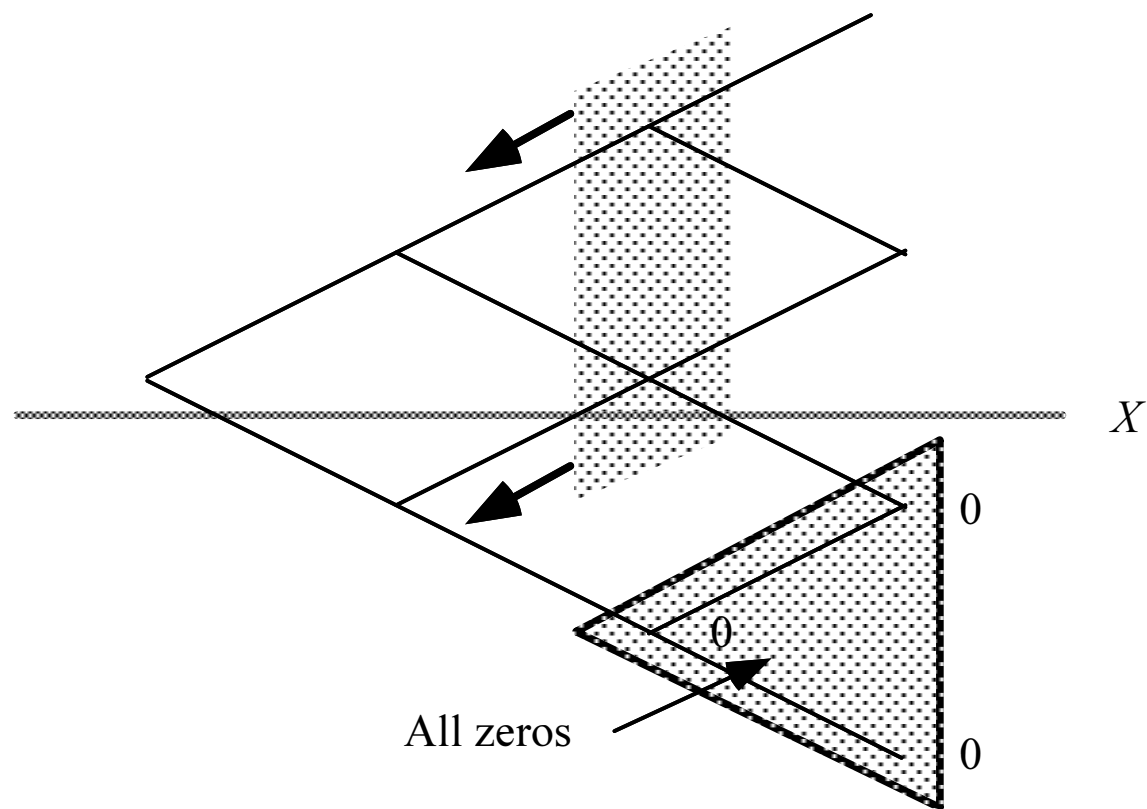
Binomial Tree Algorithms for European Options

- 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 find the hedge ratio, apply formula (32) on p. 251.
- To price European puts, simply replace the payoff.

^aBut 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)

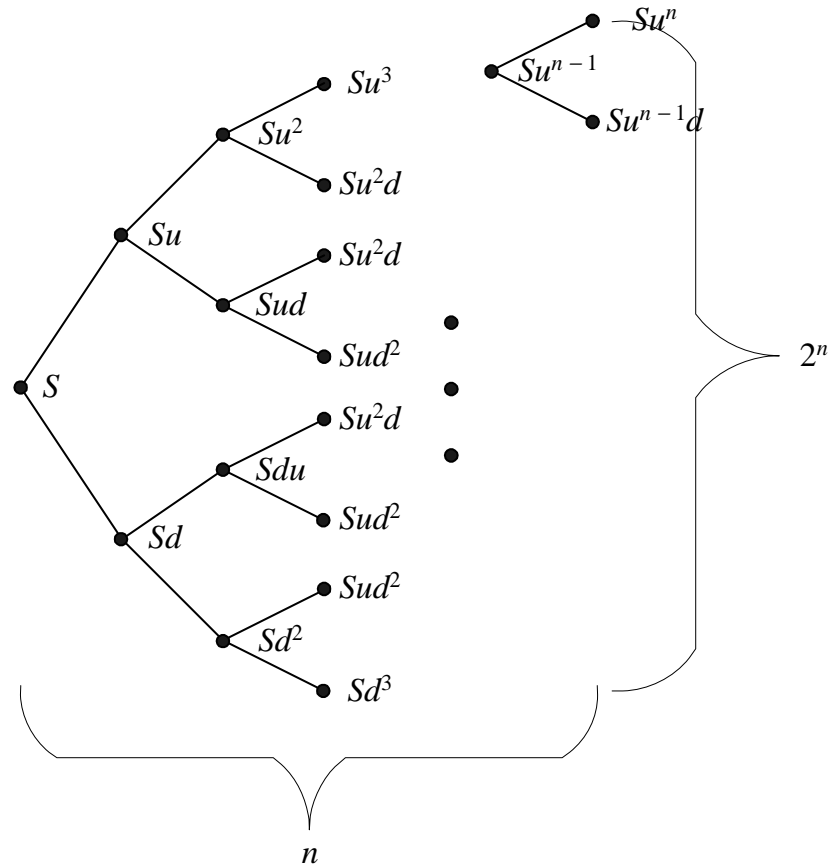
- The following program computes $b(j; n, p)$ in $b[j]$:
- It runs in $O(n)$ steps.

```
1:  $b[a] := \binom{n}{a} p^a (1-p)^{n-a};$   
2: for  $j = a + 1, a + 2, \dots, n$  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 (38) on p. 273 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 $\max(S_n - X, 0)$.
- This forward-induction approach *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.

^aContinuous-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 $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

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

- Let

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

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

- Let

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

denote the variance of that return.

Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

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

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

- 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.

^aIt follows the Bernoulli distribution.

Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

- The BOPM converges to the distribution only if

$$n\hat{\mu} = n[q \ln(u/d) + \ln d] \rightarrow \mu\tau, \quad (40)$$

$$n\hat{\sigma}^2 = nq(1 - q) \ln^2(u/d) \rightarrow \sigma^2\tau. \quad (41)$$

- 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. 285).
- 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).

Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

- The above requirements can be satisfied by

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

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

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

- With the above choice, even if σ is not calibrated correctly, the mean is still matched!^a

^aRecall Eq. (35) on p. 257. So u and d are related to volatility exclusively in the CRR model. Both are independent of r and μ .

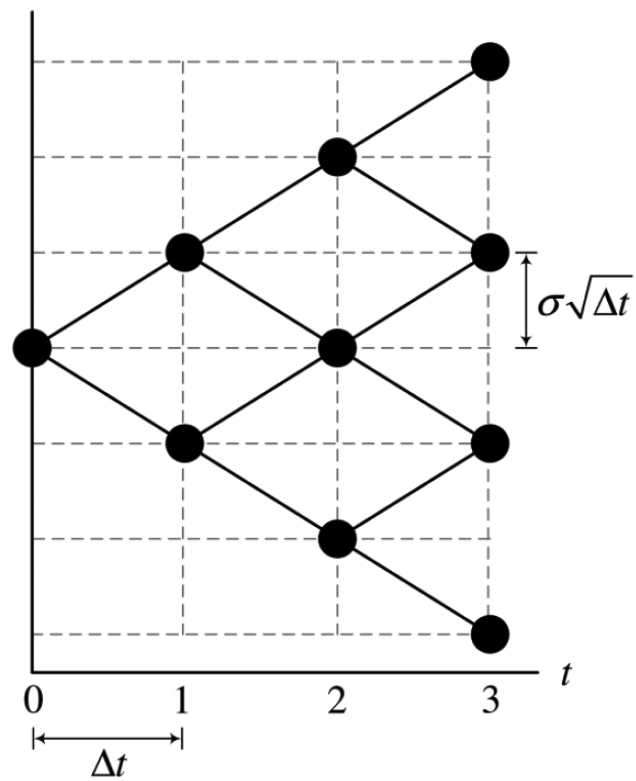
Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

- The choices (42) result in the CRR binomial model.^a
 - Black (1992), “This method is probably used more than the original formula in practical situations.”
 - OptionMetrics’s (2015) IvyDB uses the CRR model.^b
- The CRR model is best seen in logarithmic price:

$$\ln S \rightarrow \begin{cases} \ln S + \sigma\sqrt{\Delta t}, & \text{up move,} \\ \ln S - \sigma\sqrt{\Delta t}, & \text{down move.} \end{cases}$$

^aCox, Ross, & Rubinstein (1979).

^bSee <http://www.ckgsb.com/uploads/report/file/201611/02/1478069847635278.pdf>



Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

- The no-arbitrage inequalities $d < R < u$ may not hold under Eqs. (42) on p. 296 or Eq. (34) on p. 255.
 - If this happens, the probabilities lie outside $[0, 1]$.^a
- The problem disappears when n satisfies $e^{\sigma\sqrt{\Delta t}} > e^{r\Delta t}$, i.e., when

$$n > \frac{r^2}{\sigma^2} \tau. \quad (43)$$

- 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.

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.

^aThe normal distribution with mean $\mu\tau$ and variance $\sigma^2\tau$. As our probabilities depend on n , this argument is heuristic.

Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)

Lemma 10 *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

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

- Let $n \rightarrow \infty$.^a
- Then $\mu = r - \sigma^2/2$.

^aSee 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 is thus the riskless rate r .
 - By rate of return we mean $(1/\tau) \ln E[S_\tau/S]$ (arithmetic average rate of return) not $(1/\tau)E[\ln(S_\tau/S)]$ (geometric average rate of return).
 - The latter would give $r - \sigma^2/2$ by Lemma 10.

^aBy Lemma 10 (p. 301) and Eq. (29) on p. 180.

Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (continued)^a

Theorem 11 (The Black-Scholes Formula, 1973)

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

where

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

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

Toward the Black-Scholes Formula (concluded)

- See Eq. (39) on p. 273 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

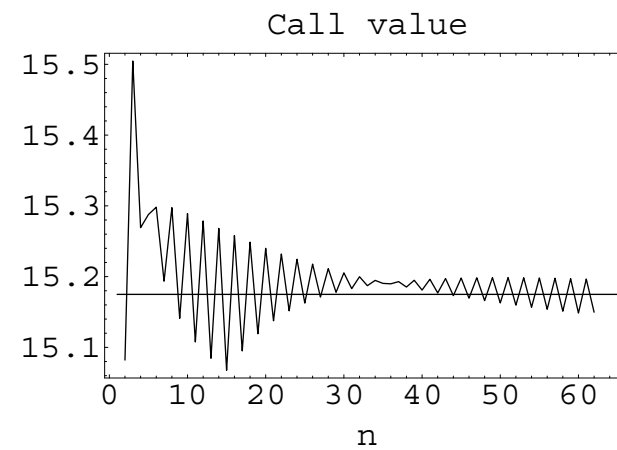
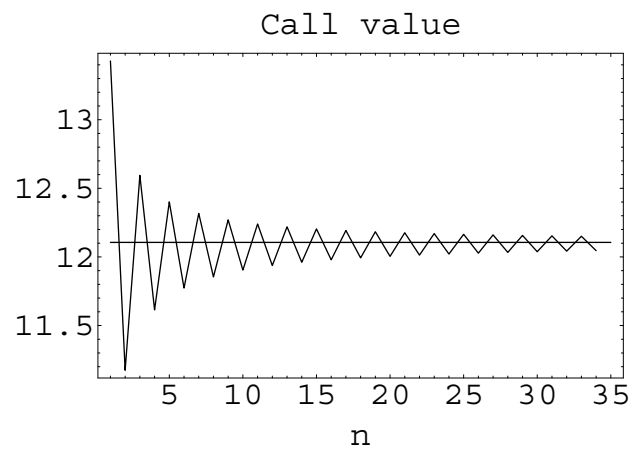
- The Black-Scholes formula needs 5 parameters: S , X , σ , τ , and r .
- Binomial tree algorithms take 6 inputs: S , X , u , d , \hat{r} , and n .
- The connections are

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

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

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

- This holds for the CRR model as well.



- $S = 100$, $X = 100$ (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 judicious choices of u and d .^b

^aF. Diener & M. Diener (2004); L. 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?

^aImplied 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
- 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?^b

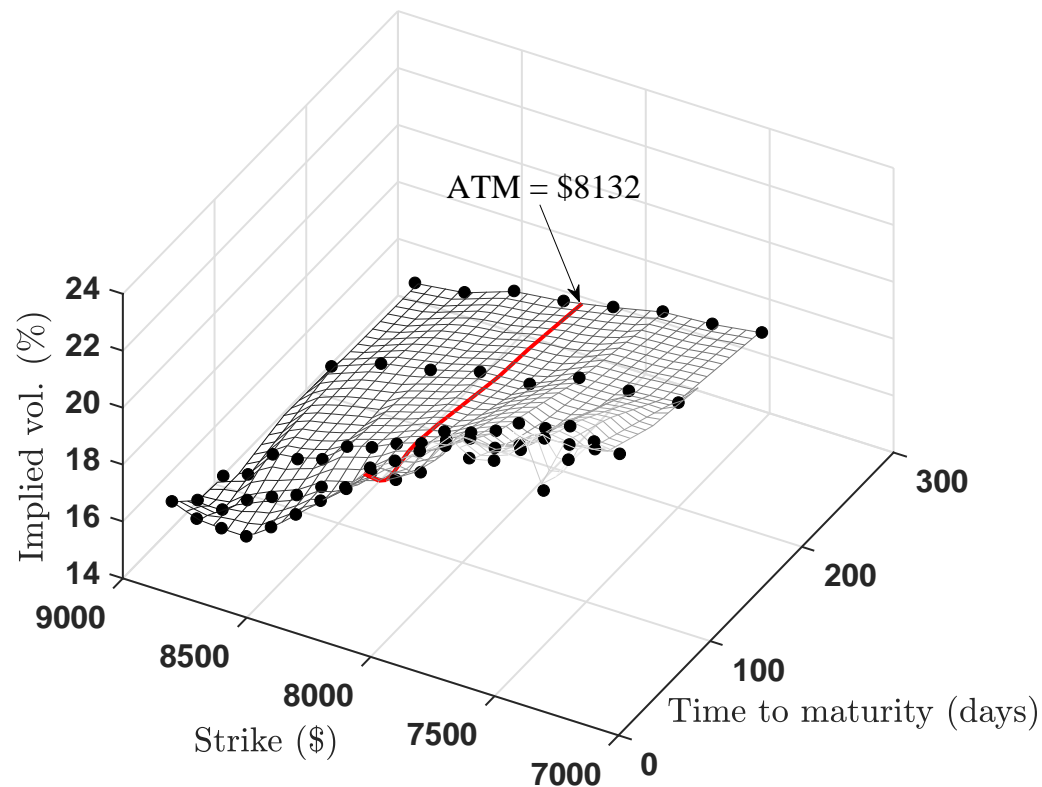
^aRebonato (2004).

^bE.g., 1:16:23 of <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8TJQhQ2GZ0Y>

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 Calls (September 25, 2015)^a



^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.

Tackling 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, compare the payoff if exercised and the *continuation value*.
- Keep 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 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)

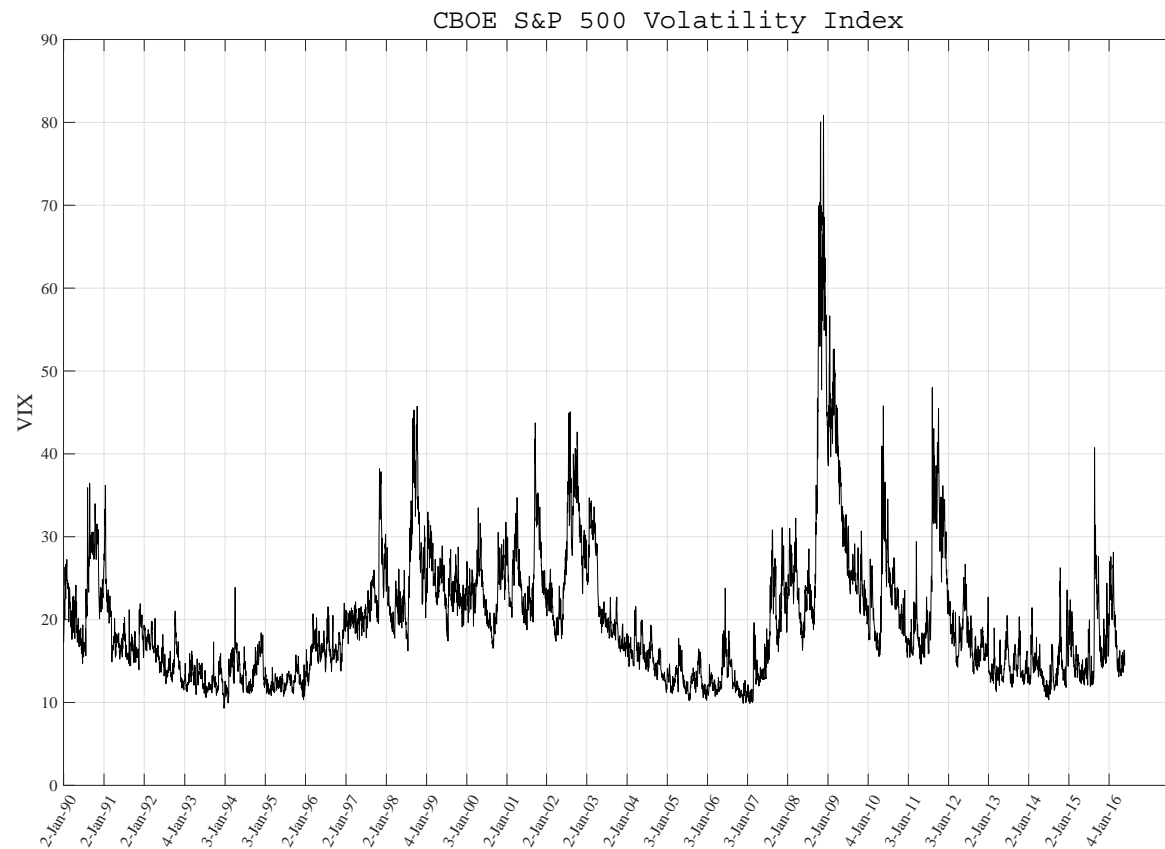
- For the binomial model, u and d depend on time:

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

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

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

Volatility (1990–2016)^a



^aSupplied by Mr. Lok, U Hou (D99922028) on July 17, 2017.

Time-Dependent Short Rates

- Suppose the short rate (i.e., the one-period spot rate or forward rate) changes over time but 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.