

Quantitative Finance

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Part A)

1. Financial Derivatives

Financial Derivatives definition:

Derivatives are financial assets in the form of contracts between two parties and their value is based on the value movements on one or more underlying asset.

Underlying asset :

The underlying asset is the yardstick for the value of the derivatives (on which the derivative's value is calculated). Thus, the value of derivatives is not fixed, but it is derived from the underlying asset that the parties have decided to indicate in the contract.

The underlying asset could be: stock/s, bonds, currencies.

The price of the derivative is a function of the price of the underlying asset.

$$D_j(t) = f[S_j(t)]$$

$D_j(t)$ The price of derivative j at time t.

$$S_j(t)$$

Represents the underlying asset of derivative j at time t.

Financial Derivatives Classification

Derivatives can be classified according to different factors:

By Maturity:

European derivatives:

Contracts that the holder may exercise only at maturity $T=1$.



American derivatives:

American derivatives (depending on the type of the derivative) may be exercised at any time within $T \leq 1$.



By consideration of the path of the underlying asset's price during the option's life:

Path independent derivatives:

Path-independent derivatives, also known as **European-style** derivatives, have **payoffs that depend only on the price of the underlying asset at the expiration date**.

Path Dependent:

Derivatives with payoffs that **depend on the entire price path of the underlying asset** over the life of the derivative, not just its value at the expiration date.

Example: Barrier Options

Complexity and Standardization :

Plain Vanilla Derivatives:

Standardized financial instruments with terms and conditions that are **well-defined and straightforward structures**. **Examples:** forwards, futures, swaps, options

(Exotic)NO plain vanilla derivatives:

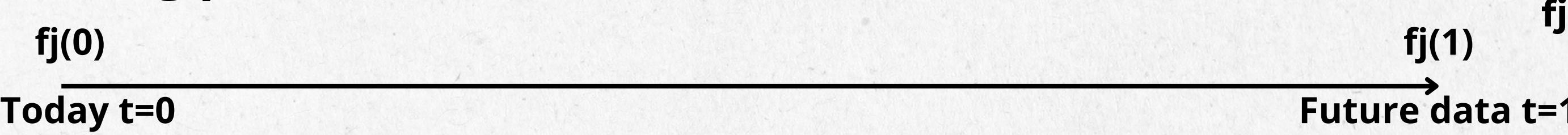
Highly customized contracts designed to meet specific needs or hedge particular risks of investors and a more complex payoff structures. **Examples:** basket options, rainbow options.

Plain Vanilla Derivatives: Forwards

Forwards are agreements to buy or sell an asset at a future prearranged date for a price agreed upon today (delivery price).

- **Long forward contract**----> agreement to buy a financial asset in the future (pre-set $t=1$) at a certain price (said to be delivery price) fixed today ($t=0$).
- **Short forward contract**----> agreement to sell a financial asset in a future date ($t=1$) for the (delivery) price that we set today ($t=0$).
- **The execution of the forward contract** is mandatory (distinguishing it from options).
- **Highly customizable** and traded over-the-counter (distinguishes them from the futures)

Long position:



where:

$fj(0)$: price of the forward today
and

$fj(1):=Sj(1)-E$
(final payoff)

Short position:



where:

$fj(0)$: price of the forward today
and

$fj(1):=E-Sj(1)$
(final payoff)

Plain Vanilla Derivatives: Futures

- A future has similar features of the forwards and is an agreement (obligation) to buy or sell a specified quantity of an asset at a specified price with delivery at a specified date in the future (used to hedge the price movement of an underlying asset to help prevent losses from unfavourable price changes). However there are some specificities that distinguish the futures from the other derivatives.
- Futures contracts have standardized features (size, expiration, delivery specification), while the forwards are tailored to meet the needs of the counterparties.
- Futures contracts are settled through a clearing house, while forwards are settled between the counterparties .
- Traded on organized exchanges (with clearing house), providing standardized contracts with set terms and conditions
- Finally, because of being exchange-traded, futures are regulated, whereas forwards, which are mostly over-the-counter (OTC) contracts, are loosely regulated (at least until the global financial crisis 2008).

Two examples of futures:

- **Energy Futures:** These provide exposure to the most common fuels and energy products, such as crude oil and natural gas.
- **Currency Futures:** provide exposure to changes in the exchange rates and interest rates of different national currencies.

Plain Vanilla Derivatives: Swaps

A swap is a derivative agreement where two parties exchange cash flows or obligations associated with two distinct financial instruments for a specified period .

- At the time the contract is initiated, **the value of at least one of the assets being swapped is determined by a random or uncertain variable**, such as an interest rate, a commodity price
- Swaps are customized contracts **traded in the over-the-counter market privately**, versus options and futures traded on a public exchange.

1. **Equity swaps** are contracts where two counterparties agree to exchange the total return on a stock in exchange of a floating rate of interest. Equity swaps can be used to hedge the positions in equity without giving up ownership of his share. At the same time, the party receiving equity return enjoys exposure without actually taking ownerships of shares.

Three Examples of swaps:

2. **Interest rate swaps**, are used to hedge against the risk of a floating interest rate on a loan. In this arrangement, a borrower enters into a derivative with a counterparty, agreeing to pay a fixed rate (for example) and receive the floating rate.

3. **Credit default swaps**, can be categorized as a distinct type of swaps. In these contracts, parties **don't hedge or speculate on the fluctuation in the value of an underlying asset**; rather, they focus on the **creditworthiness of an entity**. This contract serves to protect the buyer from losses stemming from the default of the issuer (of a bond) or a lender (loan). The contract involves payment of a periodic premium from the buyer to the seller

Plain Vanilla Derivatives: Options

An option is a contract between two parties , the *holder* and the *writer*, which gives the former the right (but not the obligation), to buy from or sell to the writer a particular underlying security at a predetermined strike price (K).

- This specific feature of the options **limits the investor's possible loss to the cost of the option**
- The *holder* of the option is said to be in **long position** and the *writer* is said to be in **short position**
- Options are usually traded on public exchange.

There are **two** basic types of options and each comes in two styles:



1) Call Option

A call option gives the holder the right, but not the obligation, to buy the underlying security at the strike price on or before expiration. A call option will therefore become more valuable as the underlying security rises in price.

2) Put Option

Opposite to call options, a put gives the holder the right, but not the obligation, to instead sell the underlying stock at the strike price on or before expiration. **A long put**, therefore, **is a short position** in the underlying security (the put gains value as the underlying's price falls).

European Style:

The holder of the option (put and call) can buy or sell **on a given date ($t=1$) only (usually maturity)**.



American Style:

The holder of the option (put and call) **can buy or sell up to (till and including $t \leq 1$)** a given date



European Call Options

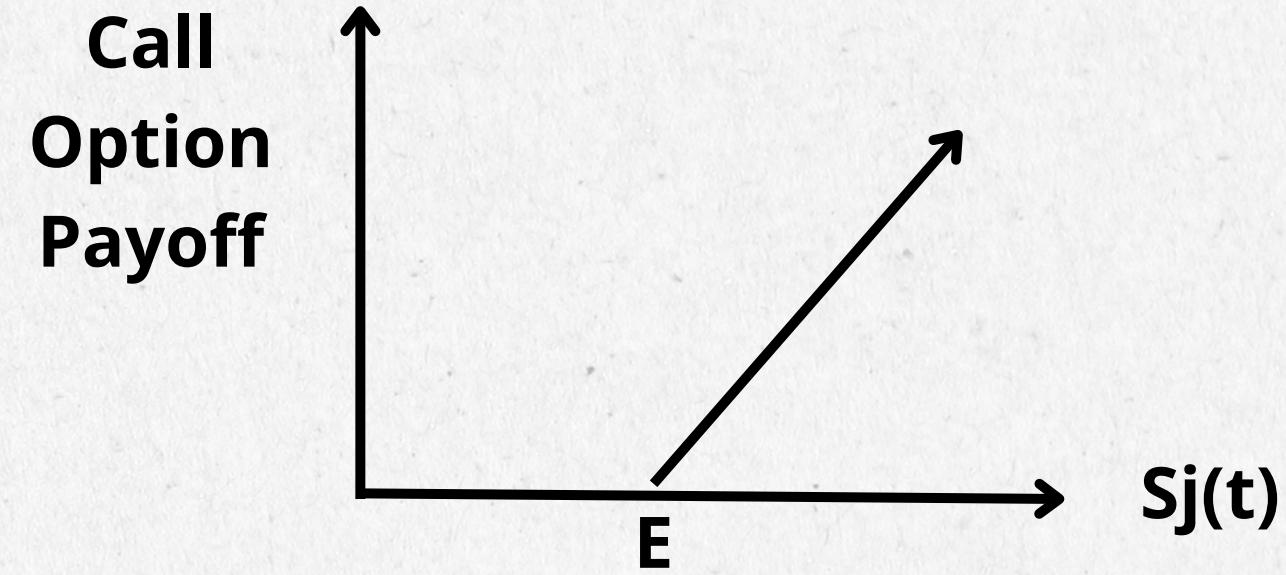
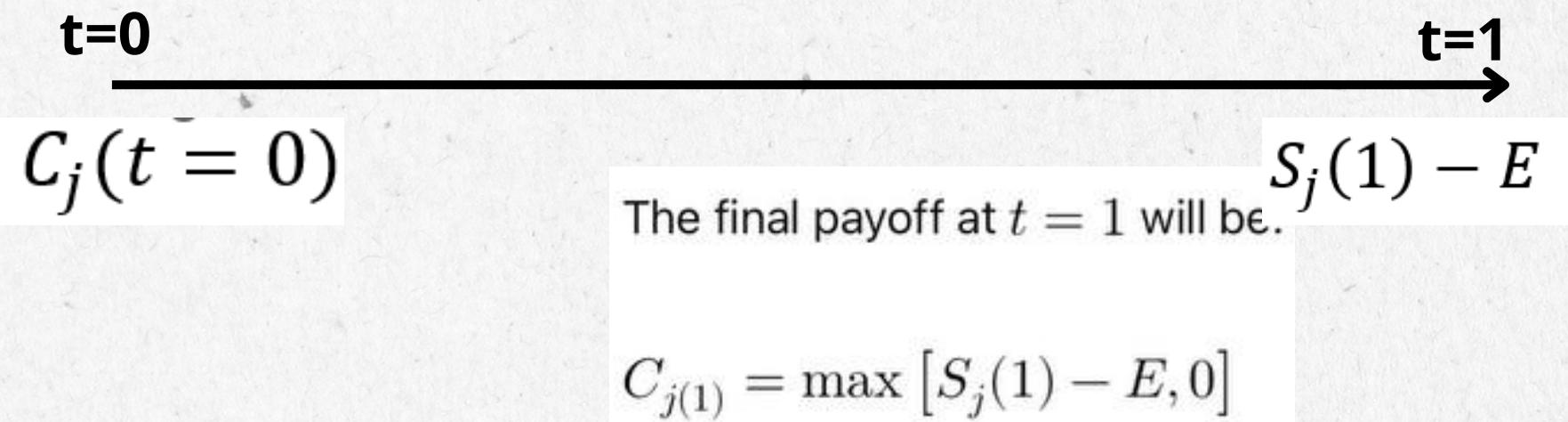
The option holder has the right to purchase a security (j) from the writer at a predetermined strike price (E) at the contract's maturity (T). The holder of a call option will exercise the call option if at maturity, the price of the security is greater than the strike price.

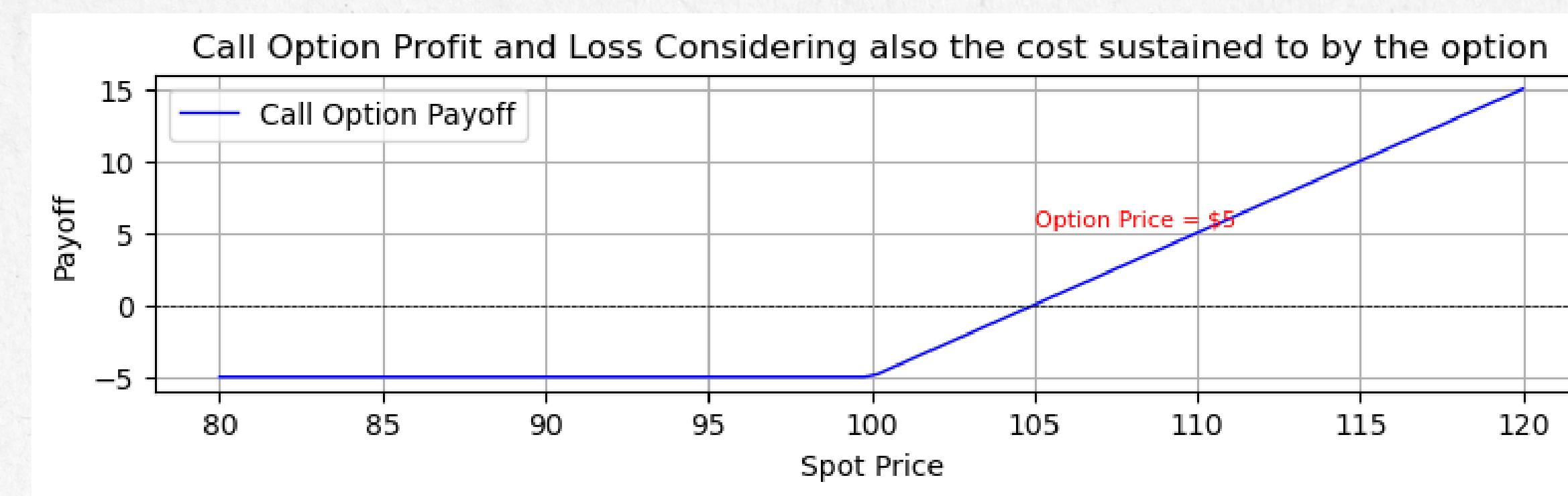
Payoff at Maturity can be expressed as $\max(S_j(t=1) - E, 0)$

- If $S_j(t=1) \geq E$, the holder will exercise the option and receive a payoff of $S_j(t=1) - E$.
 - If $S_j(t=1) < E$, the holder will not exercise the option because he/she will sustain a greater cost.

We can say that at time t , the option is:

- **In-the-Money** if $S_j(t) > E$, so the option has intrinsic value.
 - **At-the-Money** if $S_j(t) = E$, so the option's strike price equals the current asset price.
 - **Out-of-the-Money** if $S_j(t) < E$, so the option has no intrinsic value.





Assuming option execution

Since the holder of the option **has a right with no obligation**, and the writer instead **has a potential obligation**, the option has a value and therefore a price, called a *premium*.

To find the initial price (premium) of a call option we could follow two strategies **two (A and B) strategies:**

A) The initial cost (price) of the call option ($C_j(0)$) will be **equal to the initial cost ($V\theta(0)$) of the replication portfolio (θ) by the Law of One Price:**

Assuming:

1) The final payoff of the option=final payoff of the replicating portfolio (we replicating the payoff)

$$\tilde{C}_j(1) = V\theta_C(1)$$

2) The payoff of the replicating portfolio

$$V\theta_C(1)$$

The existing replicatiing portfolio

$$\theta_C$$

3 We can find the replicating portfolio

$$\theta_C = [\tilde{M}(1)]^{-1} V\theta_C(1)$$

From the law of one price:

$$C_j(0) = V\theta_C(0)$$

We find the price of the put option

$$C_j(0) = [-M(0)]\theta_C$$

B) The initial cost of the call option $C_j(0)$ is **equal to the expected value $C_j(1)$ under the risk probability measure (Q)**

$$C_j(0) = \frac{1}{1+r} \cdot \mathbb{E}^Q[\tilde{C}_j(1)]$$

European Put Options

The option holder has the right to sell a security (j) to the writer at a predetermined strike price (E) at the contract's maturity (T). The holder of a put option is hoping the asset price will fall (the opposite of the call option case).

Payoff at Maturity can be expressed as $E - S_j(t=1)$:

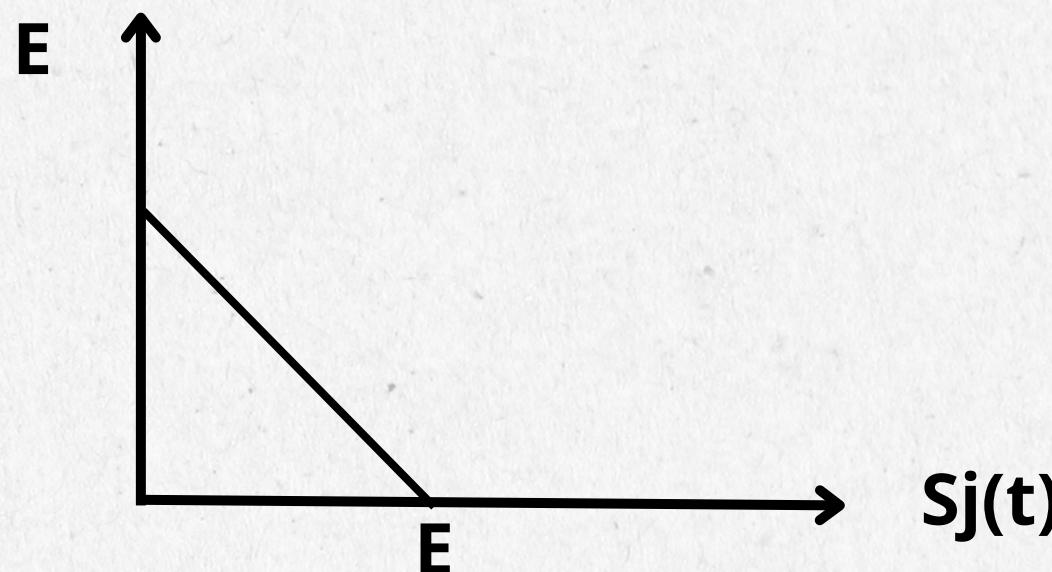
- If $S_j(t=1) \leq E$, the holder will exercise the option and receive a payoff of $E - S_j(t=1)$
- If $S_j(t=1) > E$, the holder will not exercise the option because they would sell the security for a smaller amount of money than the current price of the security.

We can say that at time t , the option is:

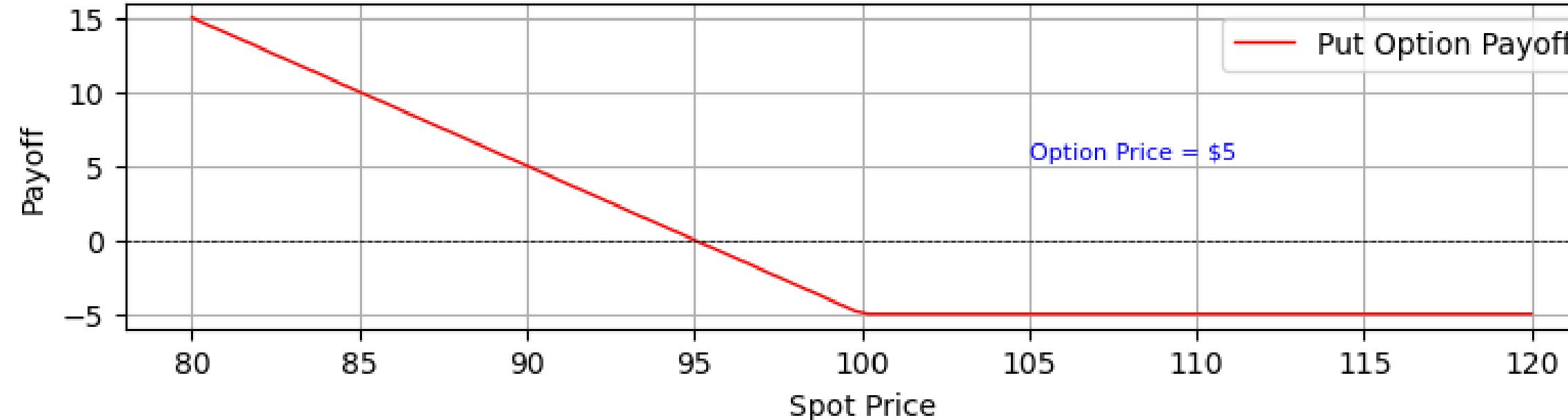
- In-the-Money if $S_j(t) < E$, so the option has intrinsic value.
- At-the-Money if $S_j(t) = E$, so the option's strike price equals the current asset price.
- Out-of-the-Money if $S_j(t) > E$, so the option has no intrinsic value.



The final payoff at $t=1$ will be
$$P_j(1) = \max[E - S_j(1), 0]$$



Put Option Profit and Loss Considering also the cost sustained to by the option

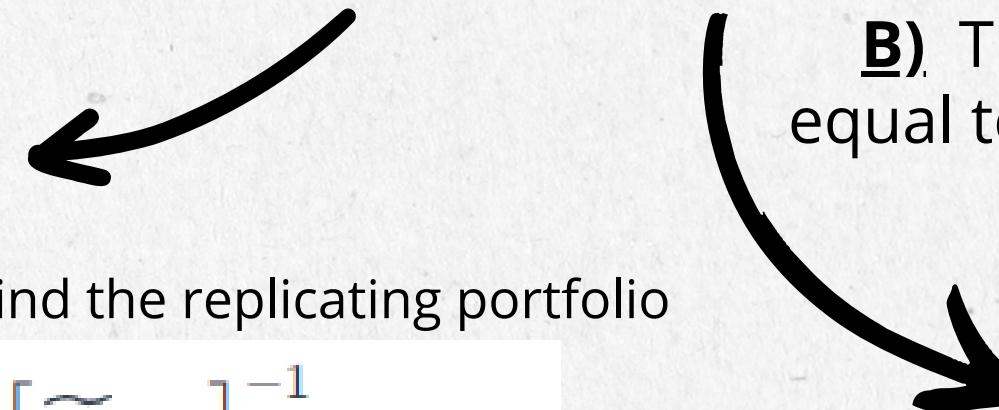


Assuming option execution

Since the holder of the option **has a right with no obligation**, and the writer instead **has a potential obligation**, the option has a value and therefore a price, called a *premium*.

To find the initial price (premium) of a put option we could follow **two (A and B) strategies:**

A) The initial cost of the put option ($P_j(0)$) will be equal to the initial cost ($V\theta(0)$) of the replication portfolio (Θ):



B) The initial cost of the put option $C_j(0)$ is equal to the expected value $P_j(1)$ under the risk probability measure (Q)

Assuming:

1 The final payoff of the option=final payoff of the replicating portfolio

$$\tilde{P}_j(1) = V\theta_p(1)$$

2 The payoff of the replicating portfolio

$$V\theta_p(1)$$

The existing replicating portfolio

$$\theta_p$$

From the law of one price:

$$P_j(0) = V\theta_p(0)$$

We find the price of the put option

$$P_j(0) = [-M(0)]\theta_p$$

$$P_j(0) = \frac{1}{1+r} \cdot E^Q[\tilde{P}_j(1)]$$

Hedging and Speculation with Options

Hedging: refers to strategic activities relating to attempts to reduce the amount of risk, or volatility, associated with a security's price change.

E.g. an airline company could take a long position in a call option that gives the company the right to buy fuel at a pre established price K. The call option reduces the risk associated with the price of fuel for the company.

Speculation: refers to a strategy attempting to make a profit from a security's price change and is more vulnerable to market fluctuations.

E.g. If the speculator believes that an asset will decrease in value, they would instead purchase put options with a strike price that is higher than the anticipated price level. If the price of the asset does fall below the put option's strike price, the speculator can sell the put options for a price that is equal to the difference between the strike price and the market price, plus any remaining time value, to realize a gain.

It is important to note that while the holder of the option has only the price of the option to lose, the writer stands a significantly greater loss .

To hedge against this loss, the writer could use the money acquired from selling the call option and start a portfolio (**hedging strategy**) with a maturity sufficiently large to settle the claim of the holder.

E.g. **The writer of a call option** could take a long position in one share of the security, resulting in a portfolio called a **covered call**. It involves selling a call option while simultaneously holding a long position in the underlying security to hedge against potential losses. If the call option is exercised, the writer uses the held shares to fulfill the obligation at the agreed-upon strike price. At time T the writer's net profit is $S(T) - ce^rT$, the value of the security less the loan. If the option is exercised, the holder can use the portfolio to settle the obligation of $S(T) - K$.

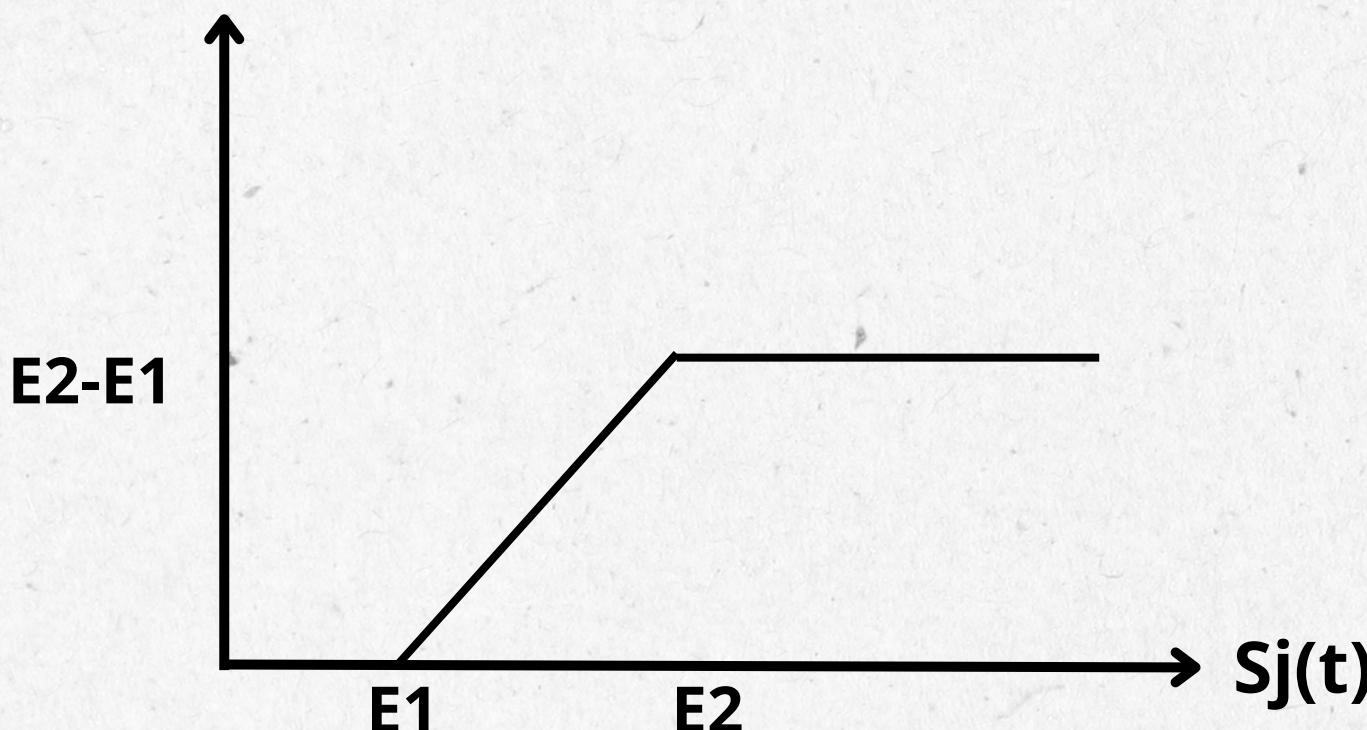
Put and Call Combination Portfolio

Put and call **combination portfolios involve using both put and call options in various combinations to achieve specific investment objective, payoffs and hedging effects.** For example, consider a portfolio that consists of a **long position in a call option with strike price E_1 and a short position in a call option with strike price $E_2 > E_1$** each with underlying security j and maturity T . Such a portfolio is called a **bull call spread**.

A bull call spread is an options trading strategy that involves **purchasing a call option while simultaneously selling another call option with the same expiration date but a higher strike price**. This strategy is also known as a "debit call spread" or "call vertical spread."

How a bull call spread portfolio works:

- 1.The investor buys a call option, giving them the right to purchase the underlying asset at a specific strike price (lower strike).
- 2.Simultaneously, the investor sells a call option with the same expiration date but a higher strike price (higher strike). This call option sold helps offset the cost of buying the initial call option.



Payoff of bull call spread

$$(S_j(t) - E_1)^+ - (S_j(t) - E_2)^+ \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } S_j(t) \leq E_1 \\ S_j(t) - E_1 & \text{if } E_1 \leq S_j(t) \leq E_2 \\ E_2 - E_1 & \text{if } E_2 < S_j(t) \end{cases}$$

A **bear call spread** is an options trading strategy that involves selling a call option (c1) and simultaneously buying another call option (c2) with the same expiration date but a higher strike price. This strategy is also referred to as a "credit call spread" or "call vertical spread."

How a bear call spread portfolio works:

- 1.The investor sells a call option, granting someone else the right to buy the underlying asset at a specific strike price (lower strike).
- 2.Simultaneously, the investor buys a call option (c2) with the same expiration date but a higher strike price (higher strike).

This purchased call option **limits** the potential losses from the obligation created by selling the initial call.

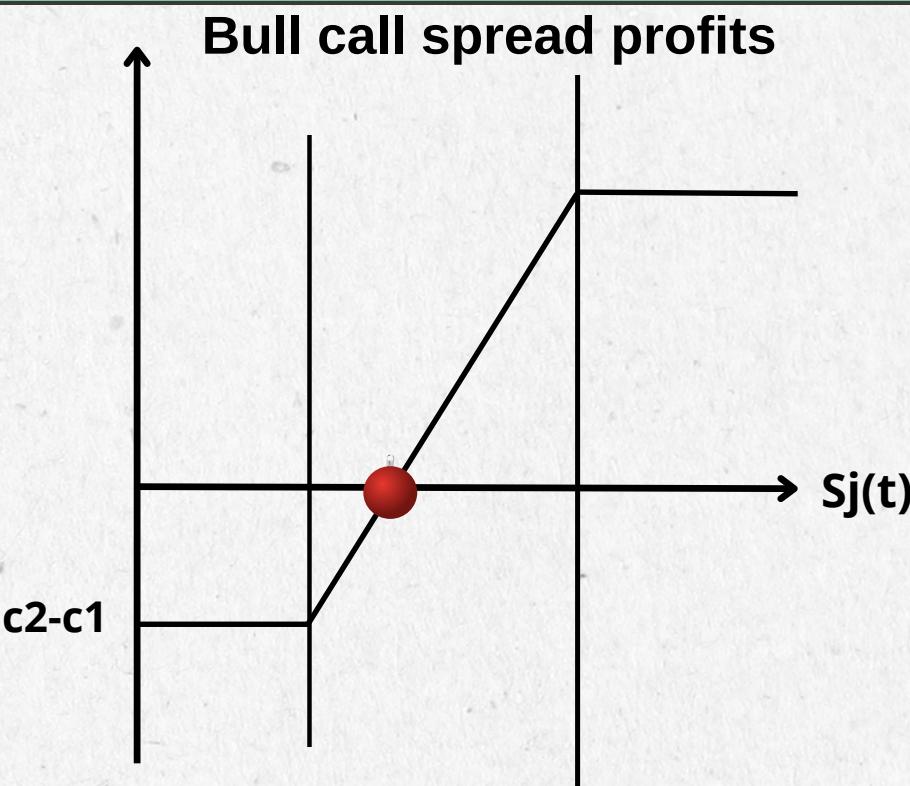
The payoff in this case is simply the negative of that of the bull call spread, hence the payoff diagram is the reflection in the $S_j(t)$ axis of that of the bull call spread.

c_j : denotes the cost of the K_j -call.

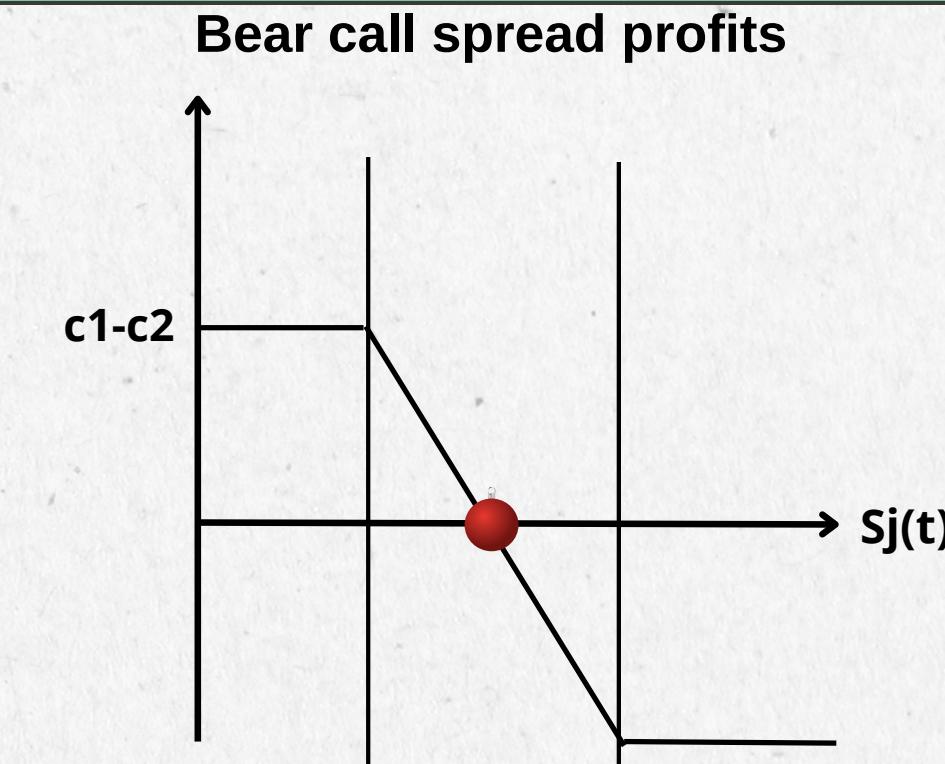
● : **Breakeven**: the profit and loss are zero

(bull) : The spread profits **as the underlying asset's price moves above the higher strike** price (the strike price E_2 of the call option that the investor buys). **The maximum profit is** capped at the difference between the strike prices minus the net premium paid for the options.

(bear): Profits in a bear call spread occur when **the price of the underlying asset remains below the lower strike price**. The maximum profit is capped at the net premium received for the options.



Considering the fact that the option with a lower strike price produces a greater payoff, we see that in the "bull" case we start with a **positive cost** which is the difference between premiums of the two options ($c_2 - c_1$) negative value.



The difference in premiums is often referred to as the "**credit**" when you receive **more premium from the options you sell than you pay for the options you buy**. Considering the fact that the option with a lower strike price produces a greater payoff, we see that in the case of bear initially we have **credit** ($c_1 - c_2$)

Put and Call Parity Formula

The put-call parity is a financial principle that defines a relationship between the price of European call options and European put options of the same class (with the same strike prices and expiration dates).

Put-call parity states that simultaneously holding a short European put and long European call of the same class will deliver the same return as holding one forward contract on the same underlying asset, with the same expiration, and a forward price equal to the option's strike price.

The payoff from the call option

$$\tilde{C}_j(1) = \max[\tilde{S}_j(1) - E, 0] \quad \text{for } j=1, \dots, N$$

The payoff from the put option

$$\tilde{P}_j(1) = \max[E - \tilde{S}_j(1), 0] \quad \text{for } j=1, \dots, N$$

So our financial position is:

$$\tilde{C}_j(1) - \tilde{P}_j(1) = \max[\tilde{S}_j(1) - E, 0] - \max[E - \tilde{S}_j(1), 0]$$

Considering the property we can do the following:

$$\tilde{C}_j(1) - \tilde{P}_j(1) = \max[\tilde{S}_j(1) - E, 0] + \min[S_j(1) - E, 0]$$



If $\tilde{S}_j(1) \geq E$ then $\underline{\tilde{C}_j(1)} - \underline{\tilde{P}_j(1)} = \underline{\tilde{S}_j(1)} - \underline{E} + 0$ $\forall w_k \in \Omega$

If $\tilde{S}_j(1) < E$ then $\underline{\tilde{C}_j(1)} - \underline{\tilde{P}_j(1)} = 0 + \underline{\tilde{S}_j(1)} - \underline{E}$, $\forall w_k \in \Omega$

We move from our financial position: we buy 1 unit of the call option and we sell 1 unit of the put option

We see that in both cases the initial financial position is equivalent (has the same final payoff) to buying the risky security j (or holding a forward contract on j) and selling a riskless security (assuming riskless security's price= E (strike price) if not a forward price (selling) equal to the option's strike price).

From the Law of One price, the two financial positions have (today the same financial price.



$$C_j(0) - P_j(0) = S_j(0) - \mathbb{E}^Q[E] \cdot \frac{1}{(1+r)}$$

This formula is said to be the put call parity

Put and Call Parity Formula

Moving from this one

$$\tilde{C}_j(1) - \tilde{P}_j(1) = \tilde{S}_j(1) - E$$

$$\tilde{C}_j(1) = \tilde{P}_j(1) + \tilde{S}_j(1) - E$$

A long position on a call option can be replicated **by buying 1 unit of a put option, 1 unit of a risky security j and selling one unit of the riskless security**

$$\tilde{P}_j(1) = \tilde{C}_j(1) - \tilde{S}_j(1) + E$$

A long position on a put option can be replicated **by buying 1 unit of a call option, 1 unit of a riskless security and selling one unit of the risky security j.**

$$\tilde{S}_j(1) = \tilde{C}_j(1) - \tilde{P}_j(1) + E$$

A long position on risky security j can be replicated by buying **1 unit of a call option, 1 unit of a riskless security and selling one unit of put option on j.**

$$E = \tilde{S}_j(1) - \tilde{C}_j(1) + \tilde{P}_j(1)$$

A long position on riskless security j can be replicated **by buying 1 unit of risky security j , 1 unit of put option on j and selling one unit of call option on j.**

$$\tilde{C}_j(1) - \tilde{P}_j(1) = \tilde{S}_j(1) - E$$

$$\tilde{f}_j(1) = \tilde{S}_j(1) - E \quad \text{for every } w_k \in \Omega$$

This implies that **our financial position** (long position on a call option and short position on a put option **is equivalent to a forward contract** as stated in the previous slide.

Theoretical implications of the put-call parity formula

Price Relationships: Put-call parity establishes a clear relationship between the prices of European call and put options with the same strike price and expiration date. It ensures that the prices of these options are interrelated in a specific way.

Arbitrage-Free Pricing: When one side of the put-call parity equation is greater than the other, this represents an arbitrage opportunity. You can sell the more expensive side of the equation and buy the cheaper side to make, for all intents and purposes, a risk-free profit.

Synthetic Positions: Put-call parity allows for the creation of synthetic positions. For example, by holding a long call an investor can replicate the payoff of a portfolio with a long position on one unit of put option and risky security and short position on a riskless security.

Market Efficiency: Put-call parity contributes to the efficiency of financial markets. If there were discrepancies in option prices that violate put-call parity, sophisticated investors could exploit these discrepancies, leading to market corrections.

Part B) Pricing of contingent claims: Data

We are using the treasury bill rates from [U.S. DEPARTMENT OF THE TREASURY](#)

52 WEEKS Bill rate June 2023: COUPON EQUIVALENT: 5.26% (you can click on the text to check the rates)

Contract Name: [MO240621C00040000](#)

Strike Price: 40

Implied Volatility: 14.49%

Expiration Date of the call option : 21/06/2024

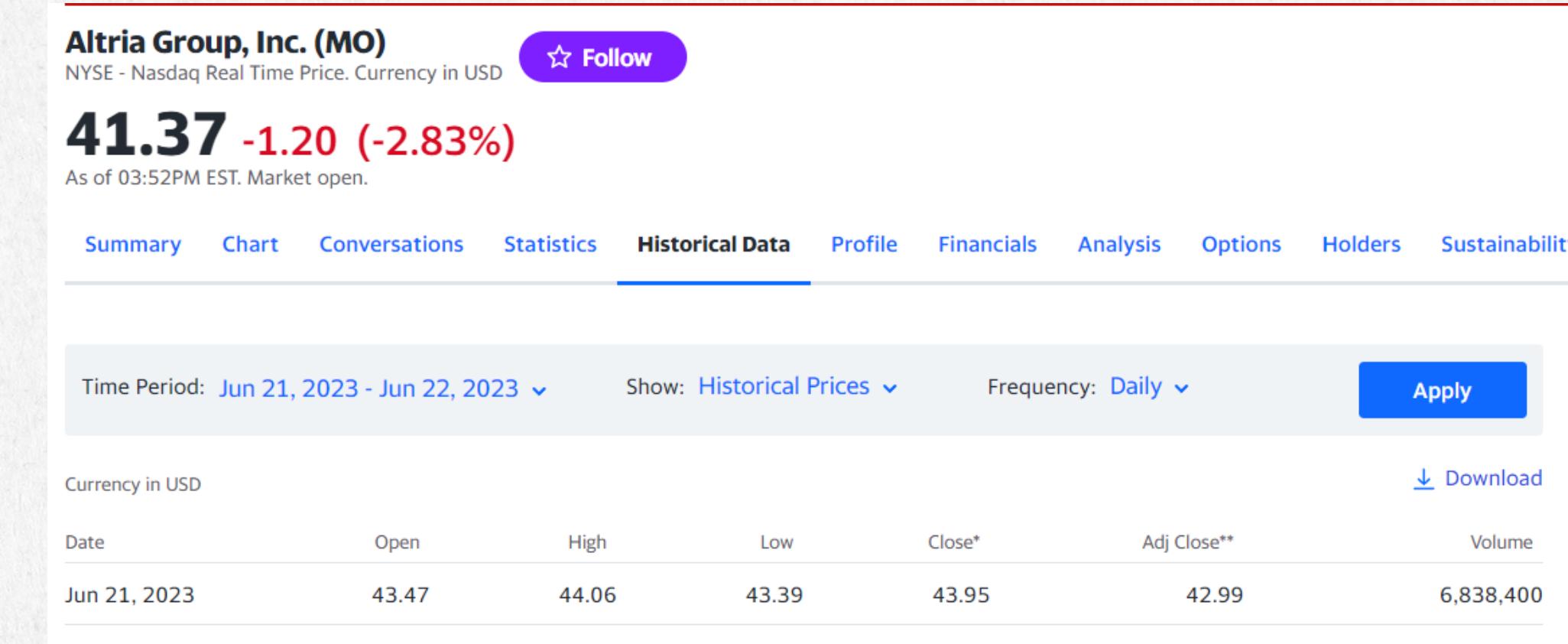
The Closing of the underlying asset Price

21/06/2023 : 43.95 \$

(you can click on
the text to check
the contract)

Throughout the project we use
the continuous interest rate that
is derived from the one-year
treasury bill (coupon equivalent
interest rate).

Considering the lack of put options for the
company, we assumed the same strike for a put
option



The implied volatility is taken directly from the
option contract.

Legend for the Excel File:

S: price risk security

c: call option

p: put option

pi and (1-pi): synthetic probabilities

Note that for each period we
have created ***different sheets within the Excel file***

Pricing of contingent claims: 1 periods

For the one period pricing we use two strategies

- 1) The Binomial Model
- 2) Replicating Portfolio Strategy.

We see that in both cases the result is the same

Click here to see the manual resolution of the exercise

Click here to access the Excel file with the formulas

Strike Price	Implied Volatility	Price underlying asset	Simple interest Rate
40,00	0,1449	43,95	5,26%
Continous Interest			
0,05126329394			
Up Factor	Down Factor	pi	1-p
1,216725573	0,9106135225	0,4638382489	0,5361617511
S0	S1		
43,95	53,47508893		
	40,02146432		
Using the Binomial Model			
c0	c1		
5,948859966	13,48		
	0,02		
Using Replicating Portfolio			
Delta (amount of risky asset)	Amount of riskless asset		
1	-38,00114003		
	we are taking a loan	c0=delta*S0+b	5,948859966

The result from the replicating portfolio



Pricing of contingent claims: 2 periods



When pricing the contingent claim while considering two steps we use the Binomial model to find both the call option and the put option

[Click here to see the manual resolution of the exercise](#)

[Click here to access the Excel file with the formulas](#)

Strike Price	Implied Volatility	Price underlying	Simple interest Rate	
40,00	0,1449	43,95	5,26%	
Continous Interest				
0,05126329394				
		Discount Factor		
		0,974694055		
Up Factor	Down Factor	Pi	1-Pi	Check
1,136656911	0,926049004	0,4744074422	0,5255925578	1
		S1		
	S1	56,78291358		
S0	49,95607122			
43,95		46,26177		
	40,69985373			
		37,69005901		
		c2		p2
	c1	16,78		0,00
c0	10,96830902			p1 0
6,555087887		6,26	0,6062279208	0,00
	2,895455682			1,183364156
		0,00		2,31

Pricing of contingent claims: 4 periods

As for the previous ones we used the Binomial model for the option pricing

Even though our option is American, we decided to check the put-call parity formula.

Unfortunately the parity is absent

Put Call Parity Formula	
5,948859966	c(0)-p(0)
4,46	S(0)-Strike*Discount Factor

We remind that we *assumed a put option considering the lack of such. Therefore such an option does not exist in reality and it could be that assuming such a put option we are violating the 'no-arbitrage' condition.*

We also checked the put-call parity formula for an easier example (2 periods) and we saw that neither the parity is present.

[Click here to access the Excel file with the formulas](#)

Click here to see the manual resolution of the exercise

Pricing of contingent claims: 4 periods

January 19, 2024	In The Money	Show: List	Straddle	Option Lookup						
Calls for January 19, 2024										
Contract Name Last Trade Date Strike ▾ Last Price Bid Ask Change % Change Volume Open Interest Implied Volatility										
E240119C00030000	2023-12-08 10:33AM EST	30.00	2.53	2.50	2.85	+0.21	+9.05%	1	2	33.11%
E240119C00035000	2023-11-29 9:30AM EST	35.00	0.25	0.00	0.35	0.00	-	-	3	27.54%
Puts for January 19, 2024										
Contract Name Last Trade Date Strike ▾ Last Price Bid Ask Change % Change Volume Open Interest Implied Volatility										
E240119P00032500	2023-12-06 11:08AM EST	32.50	0.95	0.55	2.35	0.00	-	-	17	50.73%

To make sure that we have exhausted all possible options at hand, we took an **European option contract**. [E240119C00030000](#)

What we immediately saw is that **none of the options with the same maturity (put and call) were of the same class (same strike price)** and as expected (considering that the condition for parity is violated) the put-call parity is absent even in the case of the European option (You can see in the Excel file).

We adjusted all the input values according to the maturity and the contract (volatility, interest rate, strike price, continuous interest rate).

Click here to access the Excel file with the formulas



Pricing of contingent claims: 8 periods

Here you can see the pricing for call
and put options for 8 periods.

To access the entire data with all the estimations you can use the following link.

We have used the Recombinant Binomial model (for simplicity)



**Click here to access the
Excel file with the
formulas**

								c8^0
								29,6968
						c6^0	26,04874442	
					c5^0	22,61764817		22,9093
				c4^0	19,39131841		19,64143342	
		c3^0	16,35820609			16,56919911		16,7829
		c2^0	13,6648309		13,6816321		13,85810186	
c0	c1^0	11,17388014		11,27726367		11,10978154		11,2530
	8,871369562		8,947401892		9,134339873		8,637983183	
6,819960507		6,795056733		6,846056911		7,372058784		6,2617
	4,956492913		4,835381569		4,75787198		3,926228584	
c1^1	3,271880806		2,985734903		2,333881416			1,7565
	c2^2	1,827476985		1,339526907		0,8503130722		
	c3^3	0,7499713233		0,4116224475				0,0000
		c4^4	0,1992595961		0			
			c5^5		0			0,0000
				c6^6		0		
					c7^7		0,0000	
						c8^8		
						p8^0	0,000000	
						p7^0		
					p6^0	0,00		
				p5^0	0,00			0,000000
			p4^0	0,00		0,00		
		p3^0	0,00			0,00		0,000000
	p2^0	0,00				0,00		
p0	p1^0	0,04		0,00		0,00		0,000000
	0,19		0,08		0,00		0,00	
0,5139474926		0,34		0,16		0,00		0,000000
	0,83		0,58		0,31		0,00	
p1^1	1,31		0,99		0,60			0,000000
	p2^2	2,01		1,66		1,18		
		p3^3	3,00		2,69			2,309941
			p4^4	4,31		4,17		
				p5^5	5,90			5,980408
					p6^6	7,63		
					p7^7		9,293424	
						p8^8		

Pricing of contingent claims: 16 periods

We have used the Recombinant Binomial model (for simplicity) . (Months are considered as non discrete).

Here you can see the prices of the underlying asset (a stock) of the option throughout the 16 periods.

																	S16^0
																	S15^0
																	82,59225558
																	76,820069
																	73,850070
																	71,451287
																	66,457717
																	63,88834575
																	61,813137
																	59,423333
																	57,493156
																	55,270370
																	53,475089
																	49,737835
																	47,814884
																	46,261770
																	45,966276
																	44,473209
																	43,028639
																	41,365077
																	40,021464
																	38,474164
																	37,224454
																	35,785292
																	34,622921
																	33,28433821
																	32,203203
																	30,958171
																	29,952594
																	27,859274
																	26,782186
																	25,912252
																	S16^16

Click here to access the
Excel file with the
formulas

Pricing of contingent claims: 16 periods

By using the Backward Induction Strategy we get the Present Value of the Call Option.

In the Excel file you can see the values also for the Put option.

[Click here to access](#) a PDF
with the Call Option Tree

																c16^0	
															c15^0	42,592256	
															c14^0	39,527048	
															c13^0	36,820069	
															c12^0	33,978024	
															c11^0	31,451287	
															c10^0	28,816808	
															c9^0	26,457717	
															c8^0	24,016299	
															c7^0	21,813137	
															c6^0	19,551286	
															c5^0	17,493156	
															c4^0	15,398323	
															c3^0	13,475089	
															c2^0	11,535602	
															c1^0	9,737835	
c0	7,837751	9,421487	11,141399	12,977766	14,914381	16,941567	18,056522	21,261135	23,559025	25,953959	28,449854	31,050785	31,250394	31,451287	c15^0	42,592256	
6,409043	6,359769	6,310605	6,263308	6,191861	6,008654	5,941567	5,807559	5,7811157	5,710474	5,6302319	5,552426	5,449854	5,359769	5,263308	c14^0	39,527048	
	5,071566	4,989499	4,903219	4,813482	4,722435	4,635942	4,571773	4,503610	4,461919	4,336924	4,2105157	4,174083	4,087531	3,9613833	3,892102	c13^0	36,820069
	3,861164	3,746848	3,622427	3,56238	3,486319	3,336924	3,2105157	3,174083	3,087531	3,009294	2,892102	2,7841692	2,6182032	2,5221773	2,4601162	c12^0	24,016299
	2,797312	2,655238	2,496581	2,422427	2,36238	2,21066	2,105157	2,087531	2,009294	1,9613833	1,846127	1,7841692	1,6182032	1,5221773	1,4601162	c11^0	21,813137
	1,899191	1,739197	1,557794	1,486319	1,346308	1,2105157	1,105157	1,087531	1,009294	0,9613833	0,846127	0,7841692	0,6182032	0,5221773	0,4601162	c10^0	17,493156
	1,182015	0,652109	1,019721	0,507220	0,349572	0,2105157	0,105157	0,088130	0,043434	0,009294	0,005140	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	c9^0	13,475089	
		0,301685	0,193111	0,0836230	0,0507220	0,0349572	0,02105157	0,0105157	0,008130	0,0043434	0,002516	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	c8^0	10,000000	
		0,105365	0,021405	0,000295	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	c7^0	0,000000	
			0,021405	0,000295	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	c6^0	0,000000	
				0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	c5^0	0,000000	
					0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	c4^0	0,000000	
						0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	c3^0	0,000000	
							0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	c2^0	0,000000	
								0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	c1^0	0,000000	
									0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	0,000000	c0	0,000000

[Click here to access the](#)
[Excel file with the](#)
[formulas](#)

The trees are on the right in the Excel (after the estimation of the values) file

Pricing of contingent claims: 16 & 32 periods

By using the Backward Induction Strategy we get the Present Value of the Call Option.

In the Excel file you can see the values also for the Put option.

By using Python we managed to estimate the present value for the Call Option for 16 and for 32 periods.

16 periods

```
5th period: [14.914381367505914, 11.191860835331351, 7.811157483425823, 4.9032188366447595, 2.6552375814553564, 1.1820154748547105]  
4th period: [12.977765840122519, 9.440600238444546, 6.310604696315053, 3.746848166719318, 1.89919143536481]  
3th period: [11.141399287964733, 7.822157505696496, 4.989499178106789, 2.797311952266522]  
2th period: [9.421487361396304, 6.359768788833327, 3.861163902342425]  
1th period: [7.837751337057636, 5.071565698052871]  
0th period: [6.409042767121809]
```

32 periods

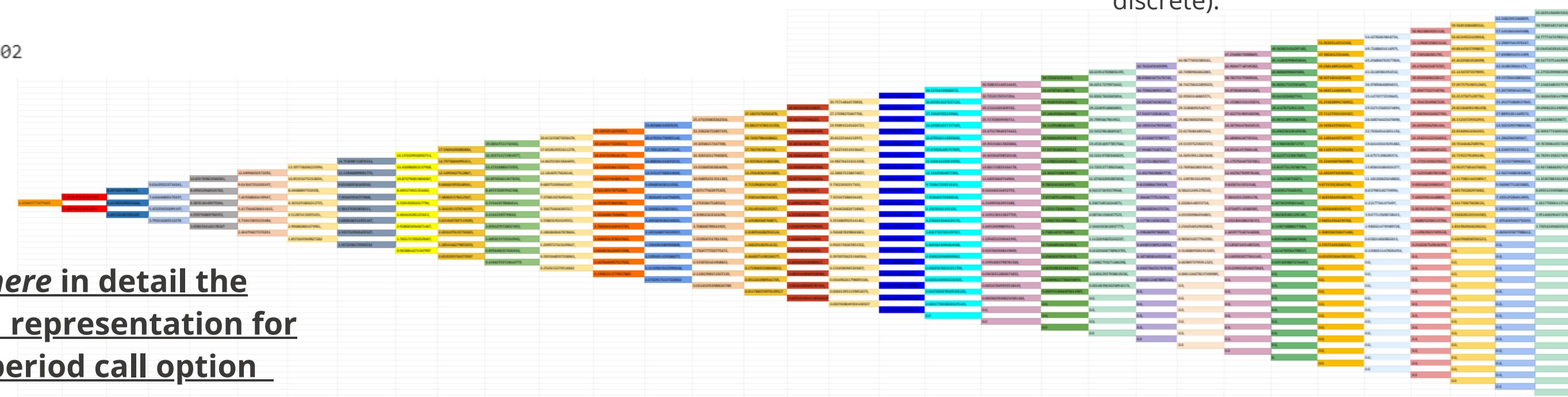
```
27 [12.08996050572092, 9.643647254200197, 7.403588064139947, 5.4175648286611615, 3.738153833233484, 2.40479467727025  
28 [10.833769823560301, 8.495652940525702, 6.387618149575594, 4.559794869766553, 3.0580334142178107]  
29 [9.634293223716341, 7.416246800170237, 5.453259250095197, 3.793216265513278]  
30 [8.49744337899105, 6.411903299233168, 4.605224481905445]  
31 [7.429407536437494, 5.488196014362396]  
32 [6.436052771879402]
```

The Present Value of the option is: 6.436052771879402

[Click here to access and view the Python Code with Google Colab and the results](#)



[Click here in detail the graphical representation for the 32 period call option](#)



We have used the Recombinant Binomial model. (Months are considered as non discrete).

A) Sources

- Investopedia. (n.d.). Investopedia. <https://www.investopedia.com/>
- (2023) U.S. Department of the Treasury. Available at: https://home.treasury.gov/resource-center/data-chart-center/interest-rates/TextView?type=daily_treasury_bill_rates&field_tdr_date_value=2023 (Accessed: 07 December 2023).
- Yahoo Finance - Stock Market Live, Quotes, Business & Finance News. (n.d.). Yahoo Finance - Stock Market Live, Quotes, Business & Finance News. <https://finance.yahoo.com/>

B) Instruments

- Python Programming language
- Google Sheets (Excel)
- Excel
- Google Colab

Thank you
very much!