Chapter 4 Binomial Method of Option Pricing (v.17.1)

The major task of this chapter is to develop option pricing formulas and algorithms under reasonable and easily-implementable models of stock prices. The simple but yet powerful binomial option pricing model is the focus of this chapter, and the Black-Scholes formula is derived as a limiting case of it.

4.1 Introduction

The major problem toward an option pricing model is that it depends on the probability distribution of the underlying security's price and the interest rate used to discount the payoffs. In 1973 Black, Scholes and Merton were able to derive an option pricing formulas in which the problem of unknown probability distribution or risk-adjustment problems were resolved. The model now is known as the **Black-Scholes model**.

The Black-Scholes model is based on an assumption that security prices move continuously according to a Geometric Brownian Motion process, which makes it difficult to implement the model in other situations, in which no closed –form formula exist. The alternative, which is a discrete model of the price, is the **Binomial model,** which limits the price movement to two choices in every time-period, simplifying the calculations. Having enough number of time-periods for security price movements makes the price of the option converge to the price of the one in the Black-Scholes setting. In fact, the binomial model converges to the Black–Scholes model as the number of periods goes to infinity.

Throughout this chapter, C or c denotes the call option value, P or p the put option value, X - the strike price, S - the stock price, and D - the dividend amount.

4.2 The Binomial Option Pricing Model

In the Binomial model, maturity of the option is fixed and is measured in periods, the length of each period being δ. The model assumes that if the current stock price is S_0, it can go up to $S_u = S_0 u$, with some probability q, or go down to $S_d = S_0 d$ with probability $1 - q$, where $0 < q < 1$ and $\boldsymbol{d} < \boldsymbol{e^{r\delta}} < \boldsymbol{u}$, where r is the interest rate (annualized). The latter condition is the no-arbitrage condition. What if this condition is violated? Then, we can't apply the Binomial method to price options.

In particular,

(a) if $d \geq e^{r\delta}$ then one would borrow money and buy the stock. This strategy will lead to arbitrage profits (the expected payoff being positive and the payoff being non-negative in every state).

(b) On the other hand, if $e^{r\delta} \geq u$, then one would short-sell the stock and invest the proceeds at the risk-free rate. This strategy will lead to arbitrage profits.

4.2.1 Options on a Non-Dividend-Paying Stock: 1-Period Case

Suppose that the expiration date is only one period (time δ) from now. Let c_u be the value of the option at time δ if the stock price moves up to S_u and c_d be the value of the option at time δ if the stock price moves down to S_d.

We have,

$$c_u = \max(S_u - K, 0) = (S_u - K)^+, c_d = \max(S_d - K, 0) = (S_d - K)^+$$

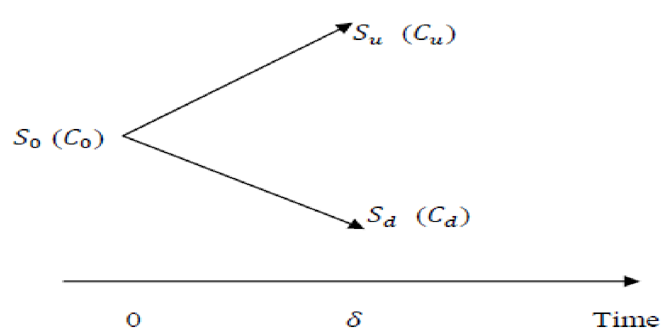

Figure 1: *One Step Binomial Tree*

4.2.2 A Replicating Portfolio

Now set up a portfolio π of Δ shares of stock and B dollars invested in a risk-free security (which pays at rate r). The value of the portfolio at the time of creation (time 0) is $\pi_0 = \Delta S_0 + B$. The value of this portfolio at time δ is either $\pi_u = \Delta S_0 u + Be^{r\delta}$ or $\pi_d = \Delta S_0 d + Be^{r\delta}$, depending on the movement of the stock price.

The idea of the portfolio replication is to choose Δ and B in such a way that the portfolio replicates the payoff of the call option in both up and down states for the stock price at time δ:

$$\begin{cases} \pi_u = \Delta S_0 u + Be^{r\delta} = c_u \\ \pi_d = \Delta S_0 d + Be^{r\delta} = c_d \end{cases}$$

Solving this system will yield the following:

$$\Delta = \frac{C_u - C_d}{S_0(u-d)}, \qquad B = e^{-r\delta}\frac{uC_d - dC_u}{(u-d)}$$

Thus, we have created a portfolio π that replicates the payoff of the call option at time δ.
By the no-arbitrage principle (or the Law of One Price), the call option should have the same price at time 0 as the cost of the portfolio π:

$$c_0 = \pi_0 = \Delta S_0 + B$$

By using the expressions for B and Δ, we get the following expression for the price of the call option:

$$c_0 = S_0 \frac{c_u - c_d}{S_0(u-d)} + e^{-r\delta}\frac{uc_d - dc_u}{(u-d)} = \cdots$$
$$= e^{-r\delta}(pc_u + (1-p)c_d) = e^{-r\delta}\,\mathbb{E}_p(c_\delta)$$

where

$$p = \frac{e^{r\delta} - d}{u - d}$$

That is, we can **think of C_0 as the discounted** (by the risk–free rate) **expected payoff of the option, under a certain measure-p**. This measure is the so-called **Risk-Neutral measure.**

Surprisingly, the option value is independent of q, the probability of an upward movement in price, and hence the expected return of the stock $qS_u + (1-q)\,S_d$. It therefore does not directly depend on investors' **risk preferences** and will have the same price regardless of investors' risk aversion.

That is, under the newly constructed measure $p,$ which we called a Risk-Neutral measure, the price of the option is the present value of the expected payoff at its maturity. This is the significance of the Risk-Neutral measure: it allows us to take the risk into account and just find the expected payoff of the option and discount it at the risk-free rate to find its price. We could not accomplish the same task under the measure q (called physical measure).

4.2.3 Options on a Non-Dividend-Paying Stock: 2-Period Case

Now we will consider a case in which the maturity of the option is divided into two periods, thus we will be dealing with a two-step binomial model of security prices.

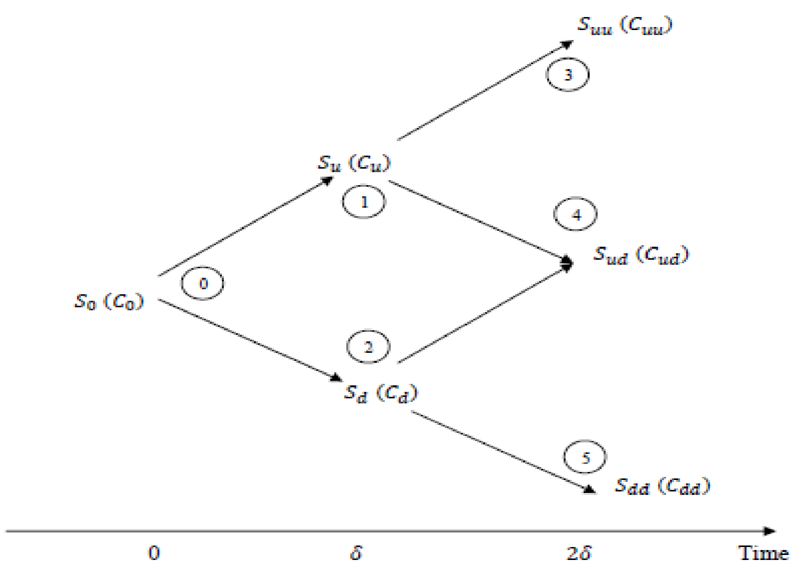

Figure 2: *Two Step Binomial Tree*

To find the value of the option at time 0, we start from the maturity, which is $2\delta,$ find the paoff of the option in two nodes (say 3 and 4), then using the 1-period model we can price the option at the node 1 because it is a 1-period case and w know how to piece in that case. The same way, using nodes 4 and 5, we find the price of the option at node 2. Now, that we have the prices at nodes 1 and 2, we can find the price of the option at time 0 by applying the 1-period pricing again.

In nodes 3, 4 and 5 the payoff/value of the call option is just the exercise value: $(S_{2\delta} - X)^+$

In node 1: $c_u = e^{-r\delta}(pc_{uu} + (1-p)c_{ud})$ (using the formula for 1-period)

In node 2: $c_d = e^{-r\delta}(pc_{ud} + (1-p)c_{dd})$

In node 0: $c_0 = e^{-r\delta}(pc_u + (1-p)c_d) = e^{-r2\delta}(p^2 c_{uu} + 2p(1-p)c_{ud} + (1-p)^2 c_{dd})$

$$= e^{-r2\delta}\,\mathbb{E}_p(c_{2\delta})$$

Thus, the price of the call option at time 0 is the same: **present value of the expected payoff at maturity under the Risk-Neutral Measure $\boldsymbol{p}$** (defined earlier).

4.2.4 Options on a Non-Dividend-Paying Stock: $\boldsymbol{n}$ −period Case

Consider a call option with n-periods remaining before expiration. That is, we will divide the maturity of the option into n equal sub-periods. Under the binomial model, the stock can take on the following $n+1$ possible values at maturity: $S_0 u^k d^{n-k}$ for any $k = 0,1, \dots, n$.

Using the same arguments of the 2-period case, we can write the value of the call option at time 0 to be

$$\begin{aligned} c_0 = e^{-rn\delta}\Bigg(\binom{n}{n}p^n(1-p)^0 c_{u^n} + \binom{n}{n-1}p^{n-1}(1-p)^1 c_{u^{n-1}d} + \cdots \\ + \binom{n}{k}p^k(1-p)^{n-k}c_{u^k d^{n-k}} + \cdots + \binom{n}{0}p^0(1-p)^n c_{d^n}\Bigg) \\ = e^{-rn\delta}\sum_{k=0}^{n}\binom{n}{k}p^n(1-p)^{n-k}(S_0 u^k d^{n-k} - X)^+ = e^{-rn\delta}\,\mathbb{E}_p(c_{n\delta}) \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, the value of a European put option is

$$p_0 = e^{-rn\delta} \sum_{k=0}^{n} \binom{n}{k} p^n (1-p)^{n-k} (X - S_0 u^k d^{n-k})^+ = e^{-rn\delta}\, \mathbb{E}_p(P_{n\delta})$$

Notice that the above formulas are closed form representations of the call and put option prices respectively. But when implementing the binomial pricing approach, it is computationally more efficient to start at the maturity and go back step-by-step to find the prices at time 0. (Why would that be more efficient?)

One of the big advantages of the binomial pricing model, compared with the Black-Scholes model, is that it can be used to price not only European but also American options. Starting at the end (maturity of options) we will follow these steps: for each time period and at each node we compare the value of keeping the option alive (the continuation value), with the exercise value of the options, and take the larger of the two. Continue this going back one period at a time until time 0 is reached. An example for an American option is discussed further below.

Exercises:

1. Show that the price of the call option above will converge to the Black-Scholes value of the option as $n \to \infty$.
2. What will be the convergence rate of the estimated call option price in the Binomial Model to the one of the Black-Scholes Model?
3. Assume the current stock price is $S_0 = \$10$ and with 65% probability it may go up to $12, and with probability of 35% will stay at $10 level in a month. Assume the risk-free rate is 0. What's the price of the European call option that expires in a month and has a strike price of $10? What is the put price with strike price $10?

4.2.5 Selection of Parameters

How to select the model parameters to price options in the Binomial Model?
We will use the continuous-time Black-Scholes model of stock prices to derive the parameters of the Binomial model in such a way that they are consistent with the Black-Scholes model.

Assume the stock price, that pays no dividends, follows a Geometric Brownian Motion (GBM) model under the risk-neutral measure:

$$dS_t = rS_t dt + \sigma S_t dW_t$$

and S_0 is given.

The value of the stock S_δ at time δ can be written as

$$S_\delta = S_0 e^{\left(r-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)\delta+\sigma W_\delta} = S_0 e^{r\delta}\, e^{-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}\delta+\sigma W_\delta}$$

The $k-th$ moment of S_t can be calculated to be:

$$ES_t^k = S_0^k e^{rtk}\, e^{\frac{k\sigma^2 t}{2}(k-1)}$$

This implies that the first two moments are given by

$$ES_\delta = S_0 e^{r\delta}$$

$$ES_\delta^2 = S_0^2 e^{(2r+\sigma^2)\delta}$$

Now, consider the Binomial Model, in which over a small time interval δ, the stock price can go up to $S_\delta = S_0 u$ with probability p, or go down to $S_\delta = S_0 d$, with probability $1-p$. The relationship between the parameters of the continuous-time process and the Binomial process is obtained by **equating the first and second moments of the processes** (continuous-time and discrete- time) over the time interval δ:

$$E[S_\delta] = pS_0 u + (1-p)S_0 d = S_0 e^{r\delta}$$

$$E[{S_\delta}^2] = pS_0^2 u^2 + (1-p)S_0^2 d^2 = S_0^2 e^{(2r+\sigma^2)\delta}$$

We have two equations (above) and three unknowns: $\boldsymbol{p}, \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{d}$.
We will consider various cases of parameter choices for the binomial model.

Notice, that the normal or lognormal distributions are determined by their first two moments. Thus, by equating the first two moments of the two cases (continuous and discrete) we determine the log-normal process with probability 1.

Case (a): Assume $u = 1/d$. Solving for p in both equations yields

$$p = \frac{e^{r\delta} - d}{u - d}$$
$$p = \frac{e^{(2r+\sigma^2)\delta} - d^2}{u^2 - d^2}$$

Setting the above two equal to each other, using $u = 1/d$, and getting an equation for d, and solving it gives

$$\begin{cases} d = g - \sqrt{g^2 - 1} \\ u = g + \sqrt{g^2 - 1} \\ g = \frac{1}{2}\left(e^{-r\delta} + e^{(r+\sigma^2)\delta}\right) \\ p = \frac{e^{r\delta} - d}{u - d} \end{cases}$$

One of the nice things about this case is the symmetry in the tree: up-down move in the stock price ends up in the same spot as the down-up move.

Case (b): Take $p = 1/2$.

Now we have

$$u + d = 2e^{r\delta}$$
$$u^2 + d^2 = 2e^{(2r+\sigma^2)\delta}$$

Solving for u and d gives

$$\begin{cases} d = e^{r\delta}\left(1 - \sqrt{e^{\sigma^2\delta} - 1}\right) \\ u = e^{r\delta}\left(1 + \sqrt{e^{\sigma^2\delta} - 1}\right) \\ p = 1/2 \end{cases}$$

Two particular cases of the above cases that are popular in the literature are the CRR (Cox-Ross-Rubinstein) case and the JR (Jarrow-Rudd) case. These parameter choices can be obtained by taking a few terms of the Taylor expansion in the above formulas.

CRR (Cox-Ross-Rubinstein) Model:

$$\begin{cases} d = e^{-\sigma\sqrt{\delta}} \\ u = e^{\sigma\sqrt{\delta}} \\ p = \dfrac{1}{2}\left(1 + \dfrac{\left(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)\sqrt{\delta}}{\sigma}\right) \end{cases}$$

The parameters above can be derived from case (a) using $1 + x$ as Taylor series expansion of e^x. See the original paper by Cox, Ross Rubinstein (1979) for an alternative derivation. Notice that under the CRR parameterization the tree is perfectly balanced in space and in time:

JR (Jarrow-Rudd) Model:

$$\begin{cases} d = e^{\left(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)\delta - \sigma\sqrt{\delta}} \\ u = e^{\left(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)\delta + \sigma\sqrt{\delta}} \\ p = 1/2 \end{cases}$$

Notice that we also obtain this model if we assume that the stock price follows a geometric Brownian motion. Thus, in a time step δ the stock price moves either to $Se^{\left(r-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)\delta+\sigma\sqrt{\delta}}$ or to $Se^{\left(r-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)\delta-\sigma\sqrt{\delta}}$.

The JR binomial tree is not balanced in the stock price space since it grows at rate $e^{\left(r-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)\delta}$. This behavior is qualitatively shown in Figure 4. It does not grow exactly at the forward risk-free interest rate curve, but it is possible to construct binomial trees with this property. See "Growing a Smiling Tree" by Barle, S. and N. Cakici (1995) for details.

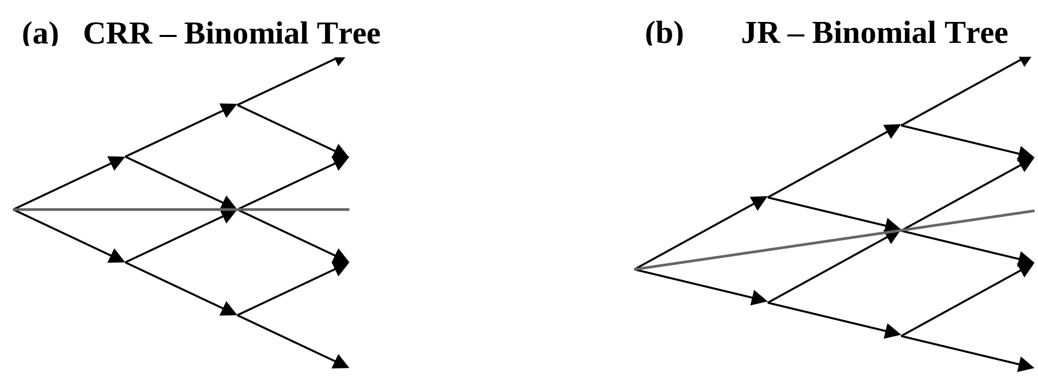

Figure 3: *Comparison Between a CRR– and JR-Binomial Tree*

More generally, in a recombining constant volatility tree u and d have the general form: $e^{\pi\delta+\sigma\sqrt{\delta}}$ and $e^{\pi\delta-\sigma\sqrt{\delta}}$ for any reasonable number π.

Both the CRR and JR binomial trees converge to the Black-Scholes model in the continuous time limit.

Another way to parameterize the binomial tree is to use the log-price processes (or returns), instead of stock-price processes.

Using the Log-price Process

Assume the price of a stock that pays no dividends follows a Geometric Brownian Motion (GBM) process, which under the risk-neutral measure is given by:

$$dS_t = rS_t dt + \sigma S_t dW_t$$

and S_0 is given. Using $X_t = \ln S_t$ transformation, we can write

$$dX_t = (r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})dt + \sigma dW_t$$

and $X_0 = \ln S_0$. Denote by $\gamma = r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}$.

Consider the Binomial model, in which over a small time interval δ, the asset price can go up by ΔX_u to $X_\delta = X_0 + \Delta X_u$ with probability p, or go down by ΔX_d to $X_\delta = X_0 + \Delta X_d$ with probability $1 - p$.

The relationship between the parameters of the continuous time process and the binomial process is obtained by equating the first and second moments of the processes over the time interval δ:

$$E(\Delta X) = E(X_\delta - X_0) = p\Delta X_u + (1-p)\Delta X_d = \gamma\delta$$

$$E(\Delta X)^2 = E(X_\delta - X_0)^2 = p\,(\Delta X_u)^2 + (1-p)(\Delta X_d)^2 = \gamma^2\delta^2 + \sigma^2\delta$$

We have two equations (above) and three unknowns: $\boldsymbol{p}, \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{d}$.

We will consider various cases of parameter choices for this model below.

Case (a): $\Delta X = \Delta X_u = -\Delta X_d$. Solving the above equations will yield

$$\begin{cases} \Delta X = \sqrt{\sigma^2\delta + \gamma^2\delta^2} \\ p = \dfrac{1}{2}\left(1 + \dfrac{\gamma\delta}{\Delta X}\right) \end{cases}$$

As in the case of the CRR binomial tree, this parameterization results in a symmetric tree up-down move in the stock price ends up in the same spot as the down-up move.

Case (b): $p = 1/2$.

Solving the above equations for ΔX_u and ΔX_d we get

$$\begin{cases} \Delta X_u = \dfrac{1}{2}\gamma\delta + \dfrac{1}{2}\sqrt{4\sigma^2\delta - 3\gamma^2\delta^2} \\ \Delta X_d = \dfrac{3}{2}\gamma\delta - \dfrac{1}{2}\sqrt{4\sigma^2\delta - 3\gamma^2\delta^2} \\ p = 1/2 \end{cases}$$

where $\gamma = r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}$.

One can consider many other choices for the parameters $p, \Delta X_u, \Delta X_d$ and derive various models as long as they satisfy the following two equations:

$$p\Delta X_u + (1-p)\Delta X_d = \gamma\delta$$

$$p\,(\Delta X_u)^2 + (1-p)(\Delta X_d)^2 = \gamma^2\delta^2 + \sigma^2\delta$$

4.2.6 Example: Pricing an American Put Option

Binomial trees can be used to evaluate American options. An American option allows the holder to exercise the option before maturity. Since an American option carries all the rights of a European option with the same strike and written on the same underlying, it is clear that an American option is at least as expensive as its European counterpart. It can be shown that the price of an American call option written on a non-dividend paying stock is *the same* as the price of the equivalent European option.

To evaluate an American option it is necessary to compare at each node the continuation value and the exercise value and take the larger of the two as the value of the option. If the exercise value is higher than the continuation value, then the option is exercised. The following example illustrates the pricing of an American put option.

The parameters are as follows: $S_0 = 65, X = 60, T = 3, u = 1.25, d = 0.8, r = 9.531\%$. Then, $p = \frac{e^r - d}{u - d} = 0.667$. Also, $e^{-0.09531} = \frac{1}{1.1}$ (this is only for demonstration purposes). Here the nodes are underlined and in orange blocks, the stock prices in each node are the first numbers at that node, and the value of the option is in parenthesis, under the stock prices (in blue). The EV is the Exercise Value, and the CV is the continuation value.

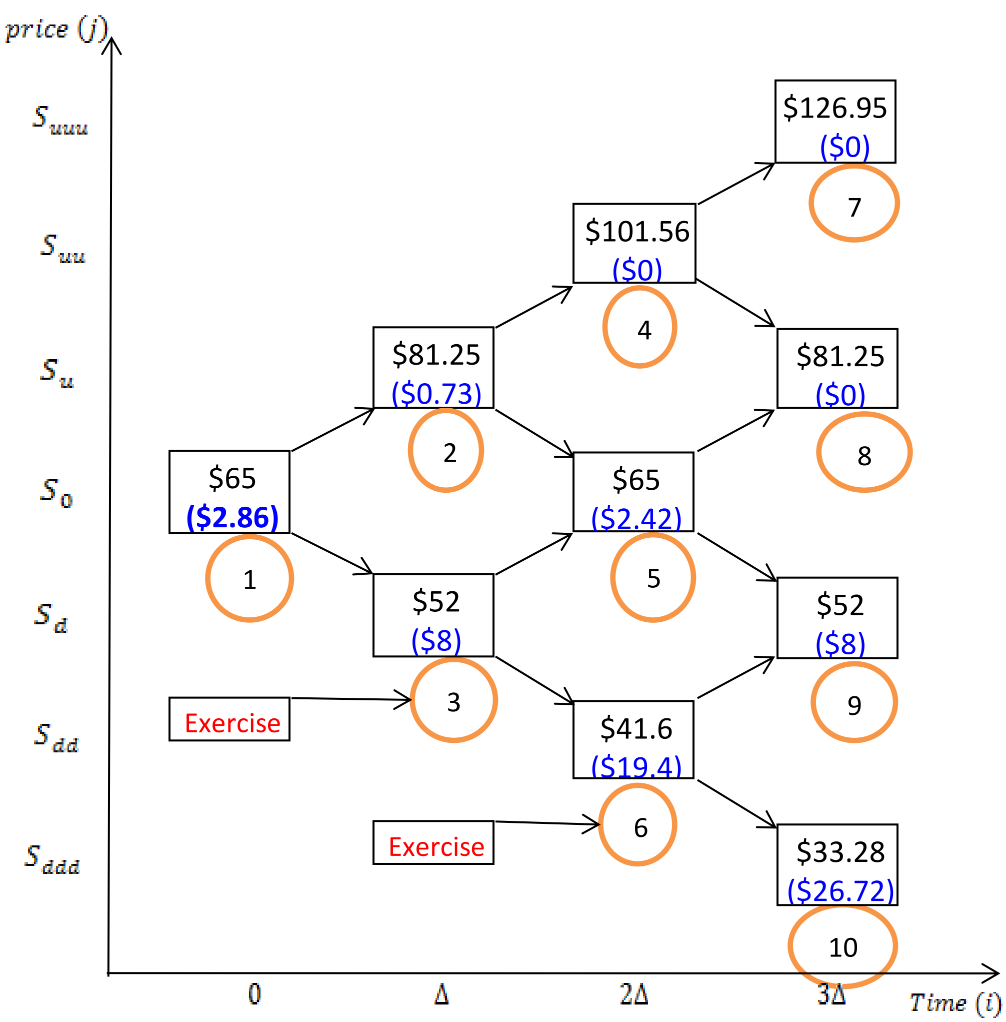

Figure 4: *Evaluating an American Put Option with a Binomial Tree*

In every node, we will compute the exercise value – EV - and the continuation value- CV - which will be computed using a simple 1-period Binomial Model, compare the two, and take the larger of the two.

At node 10: The payoff of the put is $(X - S_T)^+ = (\$60 - \$33.28)^+ = \$26.72$. Therefore, the EV=\$26.72. The CV=\$0. Thus, the value of the option is **\$26.72.**

At node 9: The payoff of the put is $(X - S_T)^+ = (\$60 - \$52)^+ = \$8$. Therefore, the EV=\$8. The CV=\$0. Thus, the value of the option is **\$8.**

At node 8: The payoff of the put is $(X - S_T)^+ = (\$60 - \$81.25)^+ = \$0$. Therefore, the EV=\$0. The CV=\$0. Thus, the value of the option is **\$0.**

At node 7: The payoff of the put is $(X - S_T)^+ = (\$60 - \$126.95)^+ = \$0$. Therefore, the EV=\$0. The CV=\$0. Thus, the value of the option is **\$0.**

At node 6: $EV = (X - S_t)^+ = (\$60 - \$41.6)^+ = \$19.4$,

$$CV = e^{-r}(pc_u + (1-p)c_d) = e^{-0.09531}(0.667 * \$8 + 0.333 * \$26.72) = \$12.94$$

Thus, it is **<u>optimal to exercise</u>**, and the value of the option is **\$19.4.**

At node 5: $EV = (X - S_t)^+ = (\$60 - \$65)^+ = \$0.$

$$CV = e^{-r}(pc_u + (1-p)c_d) = e^{-0.09531}(0.667 * \$0 + 0.333 * \$8) = \$2.42$$

Thus, the value of the option is **\$2.42.**

At node 4: $EV = (X - S_t)^+ = (\$60 - \$101.56)^+ = \$0.$

$$CV = e^{-r}(pc_u + (1-p)c_d) = e^{-0.09531}(0.667 * \$0 + 0.333 * \$0) = \$0$$

Thus, the value of the option is **\$0.**

At node 3: $EV = (X - S_t)^+ = (\$60 - \$52)^+ = \$8.$

$$CV = e^{-r}(pc_u + (1-p)c_d) = e^{-0.09531}(0.667 * \$2.42 + 0.333 * \$18.4) = \$7$$

Thus, it is **<u>optimal to exercise</u>**, and the value of the option is **\$8.**

At node 2: $EV = (X - S_t)^+ = (\$60 - \$81.25)^+ = \$0.$

$$CV = e^{-r}(pc_u + (1-p)c_d) = e^{-0.09531}(0.667 * \$0 + 0.333 * \$2.42) = \$0.73$$

Thus, the value of the option is **\$0.73.**

At node 1: $EV = (X - S_t)^+ = (\$60 - \$65)^+ = \$0.$

$$CV = e^{-r}(pc_u + (1-p)c_d) = e^{-0.09531}(0.667 * \$0.73 + 0.333 * \$8) = \$2.86$$

Thus, the value of the option is **$2.86.**

Exercises

1. Why is it not optimal to exercise an American call option on a non-dividend paying stock before maturity?
2. Can it be optimal to exercise an American call option before maturity?
3. Why can it be optimal to exercise an American put option early?

4.3 Trinomial Trees

The obvious advantage of trinomial tree model of stock prices compared to the binomial tree model is that it provides more flexibility for the stock price movements. For example, we can choose the parameters in such a way that the stock price can not only increase and decrease, but can also stay the same. This seems to be a more realistic model for the evolution of the stock price, than the binomial model.

In order to fit a trinomial tree (and be consistent with the Black-Scholes model) we need to choose five parameters: three stock price changes and two probabilities. There are multiple ways to fit these parameters. We will discuss two approaches in this section.

Assume the risk-neutral SDE for a non-dividend paying stock price follows a Geometric Brownian Motion (GBM) process

$$dS_t = rS_t dt + \sigma S_t dW_t$$

and S_0 is given. Using $X_t = \ln S_t$ transformation, and denoting $\gamma = r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}$, we can write

$$dX_t = \left(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)dt + \sigma dW_t = \gamma dt + \sigma dW_t$$

and $X_0 = \ln S_0$.

Consider the Trinomial model, in which over a small time interval δ, the asset price can go up by ΔX with probability p_u, stay at the same level X with probability p_m, or go down by ΔX with probability p_d.

The relationship between the parameters of the continuous time process and the trinomial process is obtained by equating the first and second moments of the processes over the time interval δ:

Case 1:

By taking $\Delta X = \sigma\sqrt{3\delta}$ (this choice will be explained later in discussing the convergence of stability of the method), and equating the first and second moments of the processes over the time interval Δ, we can solve and get p_u, p_m, p_d:

$$\begin{cases} E[\Delta X] = p_u(\Delta X) + p_m(0) + p_d(-\Delta X) = \gamma\delta \\ E[\Delta X^2] = p_u(\Delta X^2) + p_m(0) + p_d(-\Delta X^2) = \sigma^2\delta + \gamma^2\delta^2 \\ p_u + p_m + p_d = 1 \end{cases}$$

Solving the above equations gives

$$\begin{cases} p_u = \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\sigma^2\delta + \gamma^2\delta^2}{\Delta X^2} + \frac{\gamma\delta}{\Delta X}\right) \\ p_d = \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\sigma^2\delta + \gamma^2\delta^2}{\Delta X^2} - \frac{\gamma\delta}{\Delta X}\right) \\ p_m = 1 - p_d - p_u \end{cases}$$

In a 1-period case the price of a call option will be given by

$$C = e^{-r\delta}(p_u C_u + p_m C_m + p_d C_d)$$

In a 2-period case the price of a call option will be given by

$$C = e^{-r\delta}(p_u C_u + p_m C_m + p_d C_d)$$

where

$$C_u = e^{-r\delta}(p_u C_{uu} + p_m C_{um} + p_d C_{mm})$$

$$C_m = e^{-r\delta}(p_u C_{um} + p_m C_{mm} + p_d C_{md})$$

$$C_d = e^{-r\delta}(p_u C_{du} + p_m C_{dm} + p_d C_{dd})$$

Using the above three expressions in the pricing formula, we get

$$C = e^{-r2\delta}({p_u}^2 C_{uu} + 2p_u p_m C_{um} + (p_u p_d + {p_m}^2 + p_d p_u)C_{mm}) + 2p_m p_d C_{md} + {p_d}^2 C_{dd})$$

Generally, in a n −period model, the algorithm for pricing options is similar to the one in a binomial case: start from the last (terminal) time-point, find the option payoffs and move backward in time by computing the option values in every node as discounted expected payoffs in the next period:

Denoting by i the time and by j the price axis, we will have in node (i, j):

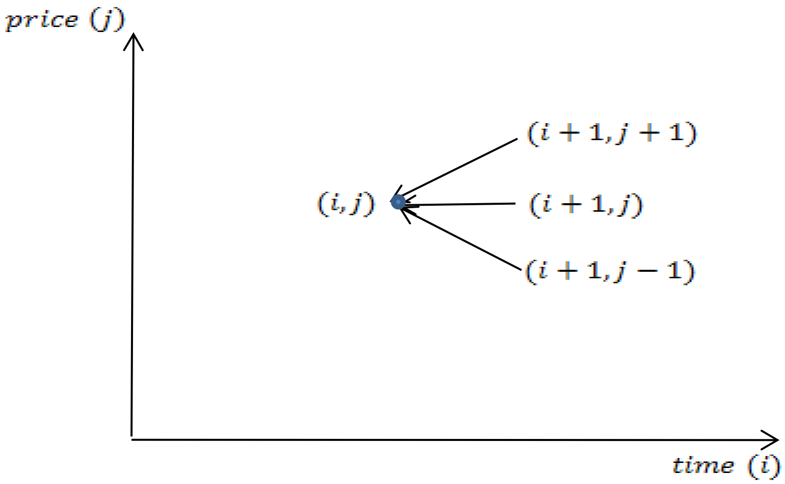

Figure 5: *Trinomial Tree*

$$C_{i,j} = e^{-r\delta}(p_u C_{i+1,j+1} + p_m C_{i+1,j} + p_d C_{i+1,j-1})$$

The price of the option will be $C_{0,0}$.

Now we'll use the Geometric Brownian Motion (GBM) price process to solve for the parameters of the trinomial tree.

$$dS_t = rS_t dt + \sigma S_t dW_t$$

and S_0 is given.

Case 2:

Consider the Trinomial model, in which over a small time interval δ, the asset price can go up from S_0 to $S_0 u$ with probability p_u, stay at the same level S_0 with probability p_m, or go down to $S_0 d$ with probability p_d.

By equating the first and second moments of the processes over the time interval δ, we get:

$$\begin{cases} E[S_\delta] = p_u(S_0 u) + p_m(S_0) + p_d(S_0 d) = S_0 e^{r\delta} \\ E[S_\delta^2] = p_u(S_0 u)^2 + p_m(S_0)^2 + p_d(S_0 d)^2 = {S_0}^2 e^{(2r+\sigma^2)\delta} \\ p_u + p_m + p_d = 1 \end{cases}$$

Solving the above equations we get:

$$\begin{cases} p_u = \dfrac{e^{(2r+\sigma^2)\delta} - (d+1)e^{r\delta} + d}{(u-1)(u-d)} \\ p_d = \dfrac{e^{(2r+\sigma^2)\delta} - (u+1)e^{r\delta} + u}{(1-d)(u-d)} \\ p_m = 1 - p_d - p_u \end{cases}$$

We can take $u = e^{\sigma\sqrt{3\delta}}$ and $d = \frac{1}{u}$.

This choice of parameters will be explained later in discussing the convergence and the stability of the method. One can use a simpler version of the above equations, and equating the first and second moments of the processes over the time interval δ, and by using the Taylor approximation of the exp(.) function of the right hand sides:

$$\begin{cases} E[S_\delta] = p_u(S_0 u) + p_m(S_0) + p_d(S_0 d) = S_0(1 + r\delta) \\ E[S_\delta^2] = p_u(S_0 u)^2 + p_m(S_0)^2 + p_d(S_0 d)^2 = {S_0}^2(1 + r\delta)^2 + {S_0}^2\sigma^2\delta \\ p_u + p_m + p_d = 1 \end{cases}$$

Solving the above equations gives

$$\begin{cases} p_u = \dfrac{\sigma^2\delta + r^2\delta^2 - (d-1)r\delta}{(u-1)(u-d)} \\ p_d = \dfrac{\sigma^2\delta + r^2\delta^2 - (u-1)r\delta}{(1-d)(u-d)} \\ p_m = 1 - p_d - p_u \end{cases}$$

There are many more possibilities to fit the parameters for a trinomial tree. In order to reduce the variance of the option price estimates it is possible to use variance reduction techniques from the previous chapter. For example, if we want to estimate the price of an American put on a stock without dividends, we could use the price of an American call as the control variate because we have an explicit formula for the latter -the price of the American call in this case is equal to the Black Scholes price.

It is also an interesting question to compare the performance of binomial and trinomial models. For a comparison for American puts, see for example “Trinomial or Binomial: Accelerating American Put Option Price on Trees” by Chan, Joshi, Tang, and Yang (2008).

So far we have only considered binomial and trinomial trees with constant volatility. One major advantage of tree models is that it is possible to construct binomial and trinomial trees with changing volatility, so-called implied binomial and trinomial trees. These trees make it possible to model volatility smiles or skews. Derman, Kani, and Chris discuss the construction of implied trinomial tree in “Implied Trinomial Trees of the Volatility Smile” by Derman, Kani and Chriss (1996).

Exercises

1. Use the Binomial Method to price a 6-month European Call option with the following information: the risk-free interest rate is 5% per annum and the volatility is 24%/annum, the current stock price is \$32 and the strike price is \$30. Divide the time interval into n parts to

estimate the price of this option. Use $n = 10, 15, 20, 40, 70, 80, 100, 200$ and 500 to compute the approximate price and draw them in one graph, where the horizontal axis measures n, and the vertical one– the price of the option. Compare the convergence rates of the four methods below:

(a) Use the binomial method in which

$$u = \frac{1}{d}, d = c - \sqrt{c^2 - 1}, \qquad c = \frac{1}{2}\left(e^{-r\Delta} + e^{(r+\sigma^2)\Delta}\right), \qquad p = \frac{e^{r\Delta} - d}{u - d}$$

(b) Use the binomial method in which

$$u = e^{r\Delta}\left(1 + \sqrt{e^{\sigma^2\Delta} - 1}\right), \qquad d = e^{r\Delta}\left(1 - \sqrt{e^{\sigma^2\Delta} - 1}\right), \qquad p = 1/2$$

(c) Use the binomial method in which

$$u = e^{\left(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)\Delta + \sigma\sqrt{\Delta}}, \qquad d = e^{\left(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)\Delta - \sigma\sqrt{\Delta}}, \qquad p = 1/2$$

(d) Use the binomial method in which

$$u = e^{\sigma\sqrt{\Delta}}, \qquad d = e^{-\sigma\sqrt{\Delta}}, \qquad p = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\left(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)\sqrt{\Delta}}{\sigma}\right)$$

2. Take the current price of GOOG. Use risk-free rate of 2% per annum, and strike price that is the closest integer (divisible by 10) to 110% of the current price. Estimate the price of the call option that expires on January of next year, using the binomial approach. GOOG does not pay dividends. To estimate the historical volatility, use 60 months of historical stock price data on the company. You may use *Bloomberg* or *finance.yahoo.com* to obtain historical prices and the current price of GOOG. Compare your price with the one you can get from *Bloomberg* or *finance.yahoo.com.* If the two are different, how would you change the volatility in your code to get the market price?

3. Consider the following information on the stock of a company and options on it: $S_0 = \$49, K = \$50, r = 0.03, \sigma = 0.2, T = 0.3846$ (20 weeks), $\mu = 0.14$. Using the binomial method (any one of them) estimate the following and draw the graphs:

(i) Delta of the call option as a function of S_0, for S_0 ranging from \$10 to \$80, in increments of \$2.

(ii) Delta of the call option, as a function of T (time to expiration), from 0 to 0.3846 in increments of 0.01.

(iii) Theta of the call option, as a function of S_0, for S_0 ranging from \$10 to \$80 in increments of \$2.

(iv) Gamma of the call option, as a function of S_0, for S_0 ranging from \$10 to \$80 in increments of \$2.

(v) Vega of the call option, as a function of S_0, for S_0 ranging from \$10 to \$80 in increments of \$2.

(vi) Rho of the call option, as a function of S_0, for S_0 ranging from \$10 to \$80 in increments of \$2.

4. Consider 12-month put options on a stock of company XYZ. Assume the risk-free rate is 5%/annum and the volatility of the stock price is 30 % /annum and the strike price of the option is \$100. Use binomial method to estimate the prices of European and American Put options with current stock prices varying from \$80 to \$120 in increments of \$4. Draw them all in one graph and compare.

5. Use the Trinomial Method to price a 6-month European Call option with the following information: the risk-free interest rate is 5% per annum and the volatility is 24%/annum, the current stock price is \$32 and the strike price is \$30. Divide the time interval into n parts to estimate the price of this option. Use $n = 10, 15, 20, 40, 70, 80, 100, 200$ and 500 to compute the approximate price and draw them in one graph, where the horizontal axis measures n, and the vertical one– the price of the option. Compare the convergence rates of the two methods below:

   (a) Use the trinomial method applied to the stock price-process (S_t) in which

$$u = \frac{1}{d}, \qquad d = e^{-\sigma\sqrt{3\Delta}},$$

$$p_d = \frac{r\Delta(1-u)+(r\Delta)^2+\sigma^2\Delta}{(u-d)(1-d)},\ p_u = \frac{r\Delta(1-d)+(r\Delta)^2+\sigma^2\Delta}{(u-d)(u-1)},\ p_m = 1 - p_u - p_d$$

(b) Use the trinomial method applied to the Log-stock price-process (X_t) in which in which

$$\Delta X_u = \sigma\sqrt{3\Delta},\ \Delta X_d = -\sigma\sqrt{3\Delta}$$

$$p_d = \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\sigma^2\Delta+\left(r-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)^2\Delta^2}{\Delta X_u{}^2} - \frac{\left(r-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)\Delta}{\Delta X_u}\right),\ p_u = \frac{1}{2}\left(\frac{\sigma^2\Delta+\left(r-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)^2\Delta^2}{\Delta X_u{}^2} + \frac{\left(r-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)\Delta}{\Delta X_u}\right),$$

$$p_m = 1 - p_u - p_d$$

6. Use Halton's Low-Discrepancy Sequences to price European call options. The code should be generic: it will ask for the user inputs for S_0, K, T, r, σ, N (number of points) and b_1 (base 1) and b_2 (base 2). Use the Box-Muller method to generate Standard Normals as follows:

$$\begin{cases} Z_1 = \sqrt{-2Ln(H_1)}\cos(2\pi H_2) \\ Z_2 = \sqrt{-2Ln(H_1)}\, sin(2\pi H_2) \end{cases}.$$

where H_1 and H_2 will be the Halton's numbers with base b_1 and base b_2 accordingly.

For the price of the call option you may use the following formula:

$$c = e^{-(rT)}\boldsymbol{E}^*(S_T - K)^+ = e^{-(rT)}\boldsymbol{E}^*\left(S_0\ e^{\left(r-\frac{\sigma^2}{2}\right)T+\sigma W_T} - K\right)^+ = \boldsymbol{E}^* f(W_T)$$

7. Assume the current stock price is $S_0 = \$30$ and with 70% probability it may go up to \$31 and with probability of 30% will go down to \$28 in a year. Assume the risk-free rate is 5% a year. What's the price of the European call option that expires in a year and has a strike price of \$30? What is the European put option price with strike price \$27.50?

8. How much are you willing to pay to play this game: You toss a fair coin. If the outcome is a Tail then you get \$7 in 18 months. If it is a Head then you lose \$2 immediately. The one- and two-year zero-coupon rates are 4% and 6% respectively. Would the amount you are willing to pay to play this game increase or decrease if the payoff in case of Tails is in 36-months instead of 18 months?

9. Value an American Put option that has no maturity (perpetual option). What's the delta of the option if it is at-the-money? Try to get an explicit formula for the price and estimate it by Monte Carlo simulation.