Black-Scholes Formula, a physicist's perspective

1 (a)

Rewritten Using Brownian Motion:

$$ds(t) = \phi s(t)dt + \sigma s(t)dW(t). \tag{1}$$

where W(t) is a standard brownian motion.

To illustrate the relation between **Gaussian Noise** and **Brownian Motion**, consider when using R(t), we're actually suggesting $s(t+\epsilon) = s(t) + \phi s(t)\epsilon + \sigma R\epsilon$. In this case, $R \sim \mathcal{N}(0,\frac{1}{\epsilon})$, therefore $R\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0,\epsilon)$, which can be characterized as $W(t+\epsilon) - W(t)$. As $\epsilon \to 0$, $W(t+\epsilon) - W(t) \to dW(t)$. (It's really clearer to use *brownian motion* notation.) Brownian motion has the property that dW(t)dW(t) = dt, dW(t)dt = 0.

The original statement can be rewritten as:

$$df(t,s(t)) = f_t dt + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 s^2 f_{ss} dt + \phi s f_s dt + \sigma s dW(t).$$
 (2)

According to Taylor expansion formula, we can write

$$df = f_t dt + f_s ds + \frac{1}{2} \{ f_{tt} dt^2 + (f_{ts} + f_{st}) dt ds(t) + f_{ss} ds(t) ds(t) \} + o(dt^2)$$
 (3)

$$\Longrightarrow df = f_t dt + f_s ds + \frac{1}{2} f_{ss} ds(t) ds(t) \tag{4}$$

Considering $ds(t) = \phi s(t) dt + \sigma s(t) dW(t), dW(t) dW(t) = dt, dW(t) dt = 0$, we have

$$df = f_t dt + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 s^2 f_{ss} dt + \phi s f_s dt + \sigma s dW(t)$$
(5)

Using the relationship between W(t) and R(t), we can change dW(t) and derive:

$$\frac{df}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 s^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial s^2} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial s}(\phi s + \sigma s R). \tag{6}$$

2 (b)

2 (b)

We've already known that c = c(t, s(t)). Consider a portfolio $\Pi = c - \frac{\partial c}{\partial s}s$. To calculate the derivative of Π we can write down the differential of Π :

$$d\Pi = c_t dt + c_s ds + \frac{1}{2} c_{ss} ds ds - c_s ds. \tag{7}$$

Because we've got $dS^2 = \sigma^2 s^2 dt$, we can derive:

$$\frac{d\Pi}{dt} = c_t + \frac{1}{2}c_{ss}\sigma^2 s^2. \tag{8}$$

3 (c)

r means the short-term risk-free interest rate. The following equation must be true:

$$\frac{d\Pi}{dt} = r\Pi. \tag{9}$$

Otherwise arbitrage will exist, which contradicts our assumption. Therefore we can write $d\Pi = r(c-c_s s)dt$. It's equivalent to the previous result $c_t dt + \frac{1}{2}c_{ss}\sigma^2 s^2 dt$.

At last we have the **Black-Scholes formula**:

$$c_t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 s^2 c_{ss} + rsc_s - rc = 0. {10}$$

Another Way of Obtaining B-S Formula

According to non-arbitrage postulate, if at time 0, $c(0, S(0)) = c_0$, then we should should be able to construct a portfolio X(t) (with $X(0) = c_0$) to replicate exactly this option. We should use the underlying stock S(t) and the money market with interest rate r. Suppose we hold $\Delta(t)$ share of stock at time t, then it follows:

$$dX(t) = \Delta(t)dS(t) + r(X(t) - \Delta(t)S(t))dt = D_t dt + D_w dW(t)$$
(11)

where $D_t = \Delta(t)S(t)(\phi - r) + rX(t)$, $D_w = \Delta(t)S(t)\sigma$.

At the same time,

$$dc(t, S(t)) = c_t dt + c_s dS(t) + \frac{1}{2} c_{ss} dS(t) dS(t) = D'_t dt + D'_w dW(t)$$
 (12)

where $D'_t = c_t + c_s \phi S(t) + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2 S(t)^2 c_{ss}, D'_w = c_s \sigma S(t)$.

Therefore, it should follows that $D_t = D'_t, D_w = D'_w$. The second relation yields instantly that $\Delta(t) = c_s$, while the first would amount to the Black-Scholes formula:

$$c_t + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 s^2 c_{ss} + rsc_s - rc = 0 (13)$$

4 (d)

4 (d)

Change variable $s = e^x$, we have:

$$c_x = e^{-x}c_s. (14)$$

$$c_t = rc - rsc_s - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 s^2 c_{ss} = \left(r - \left(r - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2\right)\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}\right)c. \tag{15}$$

Therefore we can easily prove that

$$H_{BS} = \left(1 - \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)\left(r + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right) = -\frac{\sigma^2}{2}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \left(\frac{\sigma^2}{2} - r\right)\frac{\partial}{\partial x} + r. \tag{16}$$

which is the Hamiltonian for Black-Scholes model.

5 (e)

$$p_{BS}(x,\tau;x') = \langle x|e^{-\tau H}|x'\rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dp}{2\pi} \langle x|e^{-\tau H}|p\rangle \langle p|x'\rangle$$
 (17)

Taking $p = i \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$, using $\langle x | p \rangle = e^{ipx}$:

$$p_{BS}(x,\tau;x') = e^{-r\tau} \int_{\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dp}{2\pi} exp\{-\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 p^2 \tau + ip(x-x') + ip\tau(r-\frac{\sigma^2}{2})\}$$
(18)

Finally, perform the Gaussian integration:

$$p_{BS}(x,\tau;x') = e^{-r\tau} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\tau\sigma^2}} exp\{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2\tau} (x - x' + \tau(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2}))^2\}$$
(19)

6 (f)

We've known that P(x, T - t, x') is the conditional probability density that, given security price x at time t, it will have a value of x' at time T.

The expectation of x' at time τ can therefore be calculated (it's a simple convolution):

$$\langle x(\tau) \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x' P_{BS}(x, \tau; x') dx' = \frac{e^{-r\tau}}{\sqrt{2\pi\tau\sigma^2}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} x' e^{-\frac{1}{2\tau\sigma^2} [x - x' + \tau(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})]^2} dx'.$$
(20)

Finally we can derive:

$$\langle x(\tau) \rangle = [x + \tau(r - \frac{\sigma^2}{2})]e^{-r\tau}.$$
 (21)

The result tells us the evolution of x(which equals ln(S)) over time.

7 (g)

7 (g)

Consider a down-and-out barrier European option. If $s \leq e^B(x \leq B)$ it will become worthless, which means c = 0.

For an arbitrary potential v(x), we have: $\frac{\partial c}{\partial t} = Hc$, where H can be written as:

$$H = -\frac{\sigma^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + (\frac{\sigma^2}{2} - r) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + V(x).$$
 (22)

Obviously, if we set $V(x) = \infty$ when $x \leq B$, then c = 0 is automatically satisfied. However, when x > B, the changing of c still conform to the B-S formula. comparing with H_{BS} , we have: $V(x) = \begin{cases} +\infty, x \leq B. \\ r, x > B. \end{cases}$

8 (h)

The Hamiltonian for the down and out option is given by:

$$H_{DO} = H_{BS} + V(x) = \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + (\frac{\sigma^2}{2} - r) \frac{\partial}{\partial x} + V(x)$$
 (23)

V(x) is defined in (g).

Now we can construct the eigenfunctions similar to the Black-Scholes case except that these must satisfy $\Psi_E(B)=0$.

Define the quantities:

$$\beta = \frac{\left(\frac{\sigma^2}{2} + r\right)^2}{\sigma^4}, p = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{\sigma^2} - \beta}, \alpha = \frac{\frac{\sigma^2}{2} - r}{\sigma^2}, i\lambda_{\pm} = \alpha \pm ip$$
 (24)

The eigenfunctions are given by:

$$x > B : \langle x | \Psi_E \rangle = e^{i\lambda_+(x-B)} - e^{i\lambda_-(x-B)} = 2ie^{\alpha(x-B)} \sin[p(x-B)]$$
 (25)

$$\langle \widetilde{\Psi_E} | x \rangle = e^{-i\lambda_+(x-B)} - e^{-i\lambda_-(x-B)} = -2ie^{-\alpha(x-B)} \sin\left[p(x-B)\right]$$
 (26)

$$\left\langle \widetilde{\Psi_E} | \Psi_E' \right\rangle = [2\pi\sigma^2 \sqrt{2E/\sigma^2 - \beta}] \delta(E - E').$$
 (27)

$$x \le B : \langle x | \Psi_E \rangle = 0 = \langle \widetilde{\Psi_E} | x \rangle.$$
 (28)

Now we can use the eigenfunctions to evaluate the pricing kernel. Again we work with the p variable:

$$\begin{split} p_{DO}(x,\tau;x') &= \left\langle x | e^{-\tau H_{DO}} | x' \right\rangle \\ &= e^{-\frac{\tau \beta \sigma^2}{2} + \alpha(x-x')} \int_0^\infty \frac{dp}{2\pi} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\tau \sigma^2 p^2} [e^{ip(x-x')} + e^{-ip(x-x')} \\ &- e^{ip(x+x'-2B)} - e^{-ip(x+x'-2B)}]. \end{split}$$

9 (i) 5

Consider that we have already derived:

$$p_{BS}(x,\tau;x') = e^{-r\tau} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\tau\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2\tau\sigma^2}[x-x'+\tau(r-\frac{\sigma^2}{2})]^2}.$$
 (29)

We can simplify the pricing kernel using the previous results:

$$p_{DO}(x,\tau;x') = p_{BS}(x,\tau;x') - (\frac{e^x}{e^B})^{2\alpha} p_{BS}(2B - x,\tau;x').$$
 (30)

9 (i)

We know that r(t) satisfied Langevin equation:

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = a(r,t) + \sigma(r,t)R(t). \tag{31}$$

Here R(t) is still Gaussian noise.

Define the propagator $P(r, t; r_0)$: if $r(t_0) = r_0$, the probability of r(t) = r equals $P(r, t; r_0)$.

From the Langevin equation we have:

$$r(t+\varepsilon) = r(t) + \varepsilon[a + \sigma R(t)]. \tag{32}$$

Change it into the following formula:

$$r = r' + \varepsilon [a(r') + \sigma(r')R(t)]. \tag{33}$$

Thus we can calculate the propagator:

$$P(r,t+\varepsilon,r_0) = P(r',t;r_0)|_{r'=r-\varepsilon[a(r')+\sigma(r')R(t)]}$$

$$= \int P(r',t;r_0)\delta(r-r'-\varepsilon[a(r')+\sigma(r')R(t)])dr'$$

$$\simeq \int P(r',t;r_0)dr'\{\delta(r-r')+\frac{\partial\delta(r-r')}{\partial r'}\varepsilon[a(r')+\sigma(r')R(t)]$$

$$+\frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial^2\delta(r-r')}{\partial r'^2}\varepsilon^2[a(r')+\sigma(r')R(t)]^2+\ldots\}.$$

Because $\langle R^2(t) \rangle = \frac{1}{\varepsilon}$ and $\langle R(t) \rangle = 0$, the previous formula can be rewritten like this:

$$P(r,t+\varepsilon,r_0) = P(r',t;r_0) + \int dr' P(r',t;r_0) \left\{ \frac{\partial \delta(r-r')}{\partial r'} \varepsilon a(r') + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2 \delta(r-r')}{\partial r'^2} \varepsilon^2 \sigma^2(r') \frac{1}{\varepsilon} \right\}$$
$$= P(r',t;r_0) - \varepsilon \frac{\partial}{\partial r} [a(r)P(r,t;r_0)] + \frac{\varepsilon}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} [\sigma(r)^2 P(r,t;r_0)].$$

10 (j)

If a variable is $o(\varepsilon)$, it is automatically neglected. Thus, from the definition of derivative, we have:

$$\frac{\partial P(r,t;r_0)}{\partial t} = \left[\frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2}\sigma^2(r) - \frac{\partial}{\partial r}a(r)\right]P(r,t;r_0). \tag{34}$$

We've already known that:

$$\frac{\partial P(r,t;r_0)}{\partial t} = -H_F P(r,t;r_0). \tag{35}$$

Therefore we can prove:

$$H_F = -\frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2}\sigma^2(r) + \frac{\partial}{\partial r}a(r) = -\frac{1}{2}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2}\sigma^2(r) + a(r)\frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial a(r)}{\partial r}.$$
 (36)

From a different perspective, we define $P_B(R, t; r)$ as the back propagator. Similarly we have (since the time flows backwards this time):

$$\frac{\partial P_B(R,t;r)}{\partial t} = +H_B P_B(R,t;r). \tag{37}$$

Finally we can calculate:

$$H_B = -\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2(r)\frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} - a(r)\frac{\partial}{\partial r}.$$
 (38)

 $H_B = H_F^{\dagger}$ is obvious.

10 (j)

In this part we'll focus on the so-called **stochastic Quantization**. The Langevin equation:

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = a(r,t) + \sigma(r.t)R(t) \tag{39}$$

is satisfied at any time between t_0 and T. We must consider that both r and R are stochastic variables. Therefore when calculating z_B (can be compared to partition function in statistical mechanics), we must integrate over all possible paths

$$Z_B = \int DRDr \prod_{t=t_0}^{T} \delta[\frac{dr}{dc} - a(r,t) - \sigma(r,t)R(t)]e^{-\frac{1}{2}} \int_{t_0}^{T} R^2(t)dt$$
 (40)

11 (k) 7

Dr means integrating over all possible $r(t): \int Dr = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \prod_{t=t_0}^{T} dr(t)$.

We hope to write Z_B int the form of $z_B = \int Dre^{s_B}$. Because of this, we calculate the integral over R first:

$$Z_B = \int Drexp(-\frac{1}{2} \int_{t_0}^{T} \frac{\left[\frac{dr}{dt} - a(r, t)\right]^2}{\sigma^2(r, t)} dt). \tag{41}$$

Because the $Dirac - \delta$ function makes sure we only keep R(t) that satisfies the Langevin equation: $R(t) = \frac{\frac{dr}{dt} - a(r,t)}{\sigma(r,t)}$. It's easy to calculate S_B :

$$S_B = -\frac{1}{2} \int_{t_0}^T \frac{\left[\frac{dr}{dt} - a(r,t)\right]^2}{\sigma^2(r,t)} dt.$$
 (42)

From the definition of $S_B: S_B = \int_{t_0}^T L dt$, it's clear that:

$$L = -\frac{\left[\frac{dr}{dt} - a(r,t)\right]^2}{2\sigma^2(r,t)}dt.$$
 (43)

11 (k)

The Vasicek model can be described using the following equation:

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = a(b-r) + \sigma R(t). \tag{44}$$

Note that if we set $\begin{cases} a(r,t) = a(b-r). \\ \sigma(r,t) = \sigma. \end{cases}$ in Langevin equation (a,b,σ) are all constants), we have the Vasicek model naturally.

Thus we get:

$$L_V = -\frac{\left[\frac{dr}{dt} - a(b-r)\right]^2}{2\sigma^2}.$$
 (45)

$$S_V = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \int_{t_0}^{T} \left[\frac{dr}{dt} - a(b-r) \right]^2 dt.$$
 (46)

In the next section we'll use S_V to calculate the propagator of Vasicek model.

(I)12

For different paths (which all have different S_V), so that e^{S_V}/Z is the distribution of probability. $Z = \int Dre^{S_V}$. Given by the question itself, we know that the propagator equals:

$$P(t_0, T) = \frac{1}{Z} \int Dr e^{S_V} e^{-\int_{t_0}^T r(t)dt}.$$
 (47)

12 (I) 8

If we use a new variable $S = S_V - \int_{t_0}^T r(t)dt$, then we have:

$$P(t_0, T) = \frac{1}{Z} \int Dre^S. \tag{48}$$

Change the variable: u = r - b. Thus we can write:

$$S = -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \int_{t_0}^T dt \left[\frac{du}{dt} + au \right]^2 - \int_{t_0}^T (u+b) dt$$
$$= -\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \int_{t_0}^T dt \left[\frac{dr}{dt} + ar \right]^2 - \int_{t_0}^T (r+b) dt.$$

Next, we can define $v(t) = ar(t) + \frac{dr(t)}{dt}$. View this formula as a differential equation of r(t):

$$\frac{dr}{dt} + ar = v(t). (49)$$

The solution can be easily derived:

$$r(t) = e^{-a(t-t_0)}r_0 + e^{-at} \int_{t_0}^t e^{at'}v(t')dt'.$$
 (50)

Since we want to calculate the integral of r(t), we now have:

$$\int_{t_0}^{T} r(t)dt = B(t_0, T)r_0 + \int_{t_0}^{T} B(t, T)v(t)dt.$$
 (51)

where $B(t,T) = \frac{1 - e^{-a(T-t)}}{a}$.

From the definition of v(t) we can tell that v(T) is free to take all possible values. Therefore we can use the following path integral to calculate propagator:

$$\begin{split} P(t_0,T) &= e^{-b(T-t_0)-B(t_0,T)r_0} \frac{1}{Z} \int Dv e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \int_{t_0}^T dt [v(t)^2 + 2\sigma^2 B(t,T)v(t)]} \\ &= e^{-b(T-t_0)-B(t_0,T)r_0} e^{\frac{\sigma^2}{2} \int_{t_0}^T dt B(t,T)^2}. \end{split}$$

The v(t) integrations are decoupled Gaussian integrations, with the overall

normalization being canceled by the factor Z. Finally, assume $B(\theta) = \frac{1 - e^{-a\theta}}{a}$, where $\theta = T - t_0$, and $A(\theta) = exp[(\frac{\sigma^2}{2a^2} - b)(\theta - exp)]$ $B(\theta)$) $-\frac{\sigma^2}{4a}B(\theta)^2$].

$$A(\theta)e^{-r_0B(\theta)} = exp\left[-b\theta - r_0\frac{1 - e^{-a\theta}}{a} + \frac{\sigma^2}{2a^2}\theta - \frac{\sigma^2(1 - e^{-a\theta})}{2a^3} + \frac{b}{a}(1 - e^{-a\theta}) - \frac{\sigma^2}{4a^3}(1 - e^{-a\theta})^2\right].$$
(52)

13 Conclusion 9

If we want to prove $P(t_0,T) = A(\theta)e^{-r_0B(\theta)}$, then we must prove:

$$-b(T - t_0) - B(t_0, T)r_0 + \frac{\sigma^2}{2} \int_{t_0}^T dt B(t, T)^2 = -b\theta - r_0 \frac{1 - e^{-a\theta}}{a} + \frac{\sigma^2}{2a^2} \theta$$
$$-\frac{\sigma^2 (1 - e^{-a\theta})}{2a^3} + \frac{b}{a} (1 - e^{-a\theta}) - \frac{\sigma^2}{4a^3} (1 - e^{-a\theta})^2.$$

Change all $T - t_0$ to θ and all $B(t_0, T)$ to $B(\theta)$, and calculate the integral of $B(\theta)$, we can simplify the equation:

$$\int_{t_0}^{T} \frac{(1 - e^{-a\theta})^2}{a^2} dt = \frac{\theta}{a^2} - \frac{1 - e^{-a\theta}}{a^3} + \frac{2b}{a\sigma^2} (1 - e^{-a\theta}) - \frac{(1 - e^{-a\theta})^2}{2a^3}.$$
 (53)

the left side can be written as:

$$\int_{t_0}^{T} \frac{(1 - e^{-a\theta})^2}{a^2} dt = \frac{\theta}{a^2} - \frac{2}{a^3} e^{-aT} (e^{aT} - e^{at_0}) + \frac{1}{2a^3} e^{-2aT} (e^{2aT} - e^{2at_0}).$$
 (54)

After some comparison, the correctness is easy to prove.

13 Conclusion

14 Reference

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